



UNIVERSITY
of
ABERTAY DUNDEE

**A Study of Management Development and Parameters of
Managerial Effectiveness in the Iranian Car Manufacturing
Industry**

Nader Houshmandyar

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements of the
University of Abertay Dundee for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

July 2005

**I certify that this thesis is the true and accurate revision of the
thesis approver the examiners.**

Signed  (Director of Studies)

Date. *11.11.05*.....

Abstract

The question of what contributes to the increase of managerial effectiveness has received much recognition and attention in developing countries and states, such as Iran, where there is a growing need for competent and effective managers. This first time study explores ways and means to identify and improve the managerial effectiveness and competencies of top and senior managers, at personal and organisational levels, in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. To achieve this, the model for "Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness" (Analoui, 1999) has been used as a basis from which to explore the awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational criteria, constraints and opportunities, and motivation of senior managers, and to improve the content and context of their work. Moreover, a myriad of individual, organisational and environmental factors have been considered, in particular the implications of the study for management development in car industries, for government and co-operation agencies. The required empirical data were generated from a unique sample of 108 senior managers, from five levels of the management hierarchy, by the means of survey questionnaires and sample interviews through a fieldwork carried out in two major car-manufacturing plants in Iran.

It was found that the effectiveness of senior managers as a whole is perceived as being a function of a hierarchy of various sets of skills and competencies. Also, the degree of importance attached to the required skills is relative to the senior managers' position at different levels of the organisation, as well as being contingent upon other circumstances in which the managers find themselves. It is concluded that the most important set of managerial skills which are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers are a combination of 'analytical and self development', and 'people and task related' skills. However, these findings should be determined in a wider context of parameters of their effectiveness. These have paramount implications for government policies that are aimed at ensuring the increased effectiveness of the senior managers as a whole and in the car industries in particular in Iran.

Acknowledgments

All praise and thanks be to God, the Merciful, and the Compassionate.

Many people have contributed to the shaping of the ideas and contents of this research. I would like first of all to acknowledge my indebtedness to my supervisor, Professor Mohamed Branine for his unfailing assistance in broadening my entire perspective on research, and for his thoughtful comments on my innumerable documents and queries. Certainly, without his support, the writing of this thesis would have been neither possible, nor enjoyable. I am much obliged for his guidance, valuable discussions and probing comments without which this study would not have been concluded. Thanks are also due to the kind and friendly staff of the Dundee Business School, in the Secretariat for research degrees, and in the University library, and computer services for their assistance.

I would like to thank many academics and professionals for giving up their valuable time to share their ideas, and for allowing me to learn from their experience. These include: Dr. Azhdar Karami; Dr. Mehrdad Mirdamadi, Dr. Mahmood Sariolghalam; Dr. Hossein Bashireih; Dr. Ali Reza Sanjabi; Dr. Ali Bigdeli; and Dr. Hossein Saeif Zadeh.

I would like to offer my thanks to all the senior managers in the Car Industries in Iran. Without their participation the study of managerial effectiveness would never be completed. Thank you all.

My special appreciation and thanks are offered to my mother who unfortunately is not alive to see the completed work, also to my respected wife, Maryam, for all her patience and support, and for keeping up my morale during my studies in the UK. She has supported my work here for many years and has sacrificed much in the process. I can never repay her, but will continue to try through my undying love and affection for her. To my sons, Saied and Amir, and to my daughter Sharareh as well as friends who have encouraged and supported me through these years, thank you all of you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
CONTENT PAGES.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xvii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Managers and their Effectiveness.....	1
1.2. The Statement of the Research Problem.....	3
1.3. The Main Objectives of the Study.....	5
1.3.1. Research Question.....	6
1.4. The Scope of the Study.....	7
1.5. The Structure of the Thesis	12

CHAPTER TWO: MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS - A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction.....	17
2.1. Part One: The Need for Managerial Effectiveness.....	20
2.1.1. What Do Managers Do?.....	20
2.1.2. Managerial Roles.....	25
2.1.2.1. Interpersonal Roles of Managers.....	26

2.1.2.2. Informational Roles of Managers.....	26
2.1.2.3 Decisional Roles of Managers.....	27
2.1.3. The Nature of Managerial Work: Empirical Studies.....	27
2.1.4. Patters of Managerial Work.....	31
2.1.4.1. Emissaries.....	36
2.1.4.2. Writers.....	36
2.1.4.3. Discussers.....	36
2.1.4.4. Trouble Shooters.....	37
2.1.4.5. Committee Men.....	37
2.1.5. Rosemary Stewart’s Analytical Model (1982).....	38
2.1.5.1. Demands.....	39
2.1.5.2 Constraints.....	38
2.1.5.3. Choices.....	39
2.1.6. Work Content and Managerial Roles.....	40
2.1.7. Characteristics of Successful Managers.....	43

2.2. Part Two: Management Development

2.2.1. The Impact of Education and Training on Management Development and the Economy.....	46
2.2.2. The Importance of Management Development.....	51
2.2.3. The Management Education.....	53
2.2.4. Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness.....	54
2.2.4.1 Managerial Perception (First Parameter).....	57
2.2.4.2. Need for Managerial Skills (Second Parameter).....	58
2.2.4.3. Organisational Criteria (Third Parameter).....	60
2.2.4.4. Motivation (Fourth Parameter).....	61
2.2.4.5. Degree of “Demands” and “Constraints”(Fifth Parameter.....	63
2.2.4.6. Presence of “Choices” and “Opportunities” for Effectiveness (Six Parameter).....	64

2.2.4.7. Nature of Inter-Organisational Relationships (Seven Parameter).....	65
2.2.4.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (Eight Parameter).....	65

2.3. Part Three: Hierarchy of Managerial Skills and Effectiveness

2.3.1. Managerial Knowledge, Skills, and Performance.....	66
2.3.2. The Knowledge Base.....	67
2.3.3. Key Management Skills.....	67
2.3.4. Major Classification of Managerial Skills.....	68
2.3.4.1. Classic Taxonomy.....	69
2.3.4.1.1. Technical Skills.....	70
2.3.4.1.2. Human Skills.....	70
2.3.4.1.3. Conceptual Skills.....	71
2.3.4.2. Crucial Managerial Skills.....	71
2.3.4.2.1. Problem-Solving Skills.....	72
2.3.4.2.2. Problem- Finding Skills.....	72
2.3.4.2.3. Opportunity-Finding Skills.....	73
2.3.4.2.4. The Natural Management Style.....	73
1. The Need to Manage.....	73
2. The Need for Power.....	73
3. The Capacity to Empathise.....	73
2.3.4.3. Skills of Effective Managers.....	74
2.3.4.3.1. Peer Skills.....	74
2.3.4.3.2. Leadership Skills.....	74
2.3.4.3.3. Conflict-Resolution Skills.....	75
2.3.4.3.4. Information-Processing Skills.....	75
2.3.4.3.5. Decision-Making Skills.....	75
2.3.4.3.6. Resource-Allocation Skills.....	76

2.3.4.3.7. Entrepreneurial Skills.....	76
2.3.4.3.8. Skills of Introspection.....	76
2.3.5. Towards an Integrated Model of Managerial Skills.....	76
2.4. Conclusion.....	78

CHAPTER THREE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction.....	83
3.1. Senior Managers' Effectiveness and Perceptions of Organisational Success.....	84
3.2. Aspects of Managerial Work and Training Needs.....	87
3.3. Managerial Effectiveness and Managerial Skills.....	90
3.3.1. Self-Management.....	92
3.4. Learning Managerial Skills for Managerial Effectiveness.....	98
3.4.1. Knowing Ourselves.....	100
3.4.2. Developing Ourselves.....	100
3.4.3. Self-Directed Career Planning.....	101
3.5. Conclusion – Towards an Integrated Framework.....	101

CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF IRAN'S ECONOMY

Introduction.....	104
4.1. Iran's Geography and Demographic Facts.....	104
4.2. A Brief Overview of the Iranian Economy.....	106
4.3. The Effect of the Oil Revenues on the Iranian Economy.....	114
4.3.1. Dependence of the Iranian Economy on Oil.....	113
4.3.2. The Effects of Oil Dependence on the Environment.....	116
4.4. A Historical Survey of the Industry (1960-2004).....	117

4.5. The Car Manufacturing Industry and Market in Iran.....	119
4.6. Contributions of Car Manufacturing Industry to Iran’s Economy.....	121
4.6.1. Iran Khodro Co. (Organisation A).....	126
4.6.2. SAIPA Co. (Organisation B).....	127
4.7. The Future of Car Manufacturing Industry in Iran.....	130
4.8. Management Training Initiatives in Iran.....	131
4.9. Conclusion.....	134

CHAPTER FIVE: THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction.....	136
5.1. Methodology in Management Research.....	137
5.2. The Nature of the Research.....	138
5.3. Methodological Approach.....	140
5.4. Data Collection.....	141
5.4.1. Questionnaire.....	141
5.4.1. The Mail questionnaire: Advantages and Disadvantages.....	142
5.4.2. Interview.....	144
5.4.2.1. Personal Interview: Advantages and Disadvantages.....	147
5.5. Research Design.....	149
5.6. Purpose of the Research and the Research Question.....	149
5.7. Research Hypotheses.....	152
5.8. The Fieldwork.....	156
5.9. Choosing Car Manufacturing Industry Plant(s).....	157
5.10. Preparation and Method of Analysis.....	158
5.11. Sampling Procedure.....	159
5.12. Categories of Managers and Hierarchical Levels.....	161
5.12.1. First-Line managers or first-line supervisor.....	161

5.12.2 Middle Managers.....	161
5.12.3. Top Managers (senior Managers).....	161
5.13. Management at Different Levels.....	163
5.14. Survey and Structure of Questionnaire.....	164
5.15. The Process of the Research Interviews.....	169
5.16. The Data Measurement Consideration.....	172
5.17. Analysing the Research Data.....	174
5.18. Problems and Limitations.....	175
5.19. Conclusion.....	177

CHAPTER SIX: MAIN FINDINGS AND DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction.....	179
6.1. Research Population and Demographic Data.....	180
6.1.1. Respondents' Positions in the Organisations.....	180
6.1.2. Respondents' Age.....	182
6.1.3. Professional Work Experience.....	184
6.1.4. Years of Service and Organisational Status.....	188
6.1.5. Educational and Professional Qualification.....	190
6.2. The Nature of Senior Managers' Roles in "MI".....	193
6.2.1. Span of Supervision.....	194
6.2.2. Senior Managers' Role and Responsibilities.....	195
6.2.3. Demanding Aspects of the Senior Managers' Jobs.....	196
6.2.4. Importance of Communication in Managerial Work.....	197
6.2.5. Perceived Nature of Managerial Work.....	198
6.3. Eight Parameters Affecting Managerial Effectiveness in CMI.....	200
6.3.1. Managerial Perceptions (First Parameter).....	201

6.3.2. Managerial Skills (Second Parameter).....	203
6.3.2.1. The Need for Managerial Skills.....	205
6.3.2.2. Managerial Skills and Education.....	207
6.3.3. Organisational Criteria (Third Parameter).....	208
6.3.4. Motivation (Forth Parameter).....	209
6.3.4.1. Motivation for Managerial Performance.....	210
6.3.4.2. Factors Affecting Motivation.....	215
6.3.5. The Degree of Demand and Constraints (Fifth Parameter).....	218
6.3.6. Presence of Choices and Opportunities for Effectiveness (Sixth Parameter)....	219
6.3.7. Inter-Organisational Relationship (Seventh Parameter).....	220
6.3.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (Eighth Parameter).....	222
6.3.9. Contextual Factors Affecting Performance	223
6.4. Management Training and Development.....	228
6.4.1. Management Training and Improved Performance.....	228
6.4.2. Management Training and Self and Career Development.....	229
6.4.3. The Need for the Training and Development of Senior Managers.....	229
6.4.4. Areas of Training Interest.....	230
6.4.5. Aspects of Required Management Training.....	230
6.4.6. Participation in Management Training.....	231
6.4.7. The Influence of Training on the Three Aspects of Managerial Work.....	232
6.4.8. Recommended Content of Management Training Programmes.....	233
6.4.9. Preference for Management Training Methods.....	234
6.4.10. Preferred Length of the Training Course.....	235
6.4.11. Preference for Training Resources.....	236
6.4.12. Obstacles to Management Development.....	237
6.5. Conclusion.....	238

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

Introduction.....	240
7.1. Managerial Perception (First Parameter).....	241
7.2. Managerial Skills (Second Parameter).....	243
7.3. Organisational Criteria (Third Parameter).....	247
7.4. Motivation (Fourth Parameter).....	249
7.5. The Degree of Demands and Constraints (Fifth Parameter).....	251
7.6. Presence of Choices and Opportunities for effectiveness (Sixth Parameter).....	252
7.7. Nature of Inter-Organisational Relationships (Seventh Parameter).....	255
7.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (Eight Parameter).....	256
7.9. Conclusion.....	258

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction.....	261
8.1. Constructing an exploratory framework for the study of managerial effectiveness.....	262
8.2. The importance of the car industry for Iranian economy and role of senior managers and their effectiveness in that industry in Iran.....	264
8.3. Review of the Key Findings of this Research.....	268
8.4. Contributions of this Research to Knowledge.....	275
8.4.1. Theoretical Contributions.....	275
8.4.2. Policy Implications.....	276
8.4.3. Implications for Management Development.....	279
8.5. Limitations of the Study.....	280
8.6. Suggestions for Further Research.....	282

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Iran’s Vehicle Production in 1998-1999 and Production.....	123
Forecast for the following Year.....	123
Table 4.2. Comparative Process of Car Industry’s Export Share	
Table 4.3. Passenger Cars.....	128
Table 4.4. Commercial Vehicles.....	129
Table 5.1. Evaluation of Interview versus Questionnaire.....	148
Table 6.1. Managerial Levels of the Participants age of the Respondents Cross Tabulation.....	183
Table 6.2. Distribution of Total Respondents in Terms of Years of Experience in their Present Posts in Both Organisations A & B.....	185
Table 6.3. Cross Tabulation of Age of the Respondents by Their Years of Experience in Third Present Posts.....	187
Table 6.4. Educational Qualification of the Senior Managers.....	191
Table 6.5. Distribution of the Respondents and their Number of Direct Subordinates.....	194
Table 6.6. Average Span of Control of the Senior Managers at Different Levels.....	195
Table 6.7. Importance of Communication in the Satisfactory Discharge of the senior Managers’ Responsibilities.....	198
Table 6.8 Senior Managers’ Perception of Their roles and Responsibilities.....	199
Table 6.9. Effectiveness Perception in the Firms Studied.....	202
Table 6.10. Importance of Managerial Skills Required for Increased Effectiveness of Senior Managers	204

Table 6.11. Frequency and Value of Organisations' Criteria in the Firms Studied for Increased Effectiveness.....	209
Table 6.12. Main Factors as Frequency and Value Which Motivate Effectiveness in both Organisations	210
Table 6.13. Importance of Factors Contributing to Satisfactory Performance of all Senior Managers (N=108).....	211
Table 6.14. Motivational Factors Influencing Senior Managers' Performance.....	217
Table 6.15. Personal Attributes Affecting Performance.....	224
Table 6.16. How Senior Managers Rate the Impact of Organisational Factors to their Effectiveness.....	226
Table 6.17. Environmental Factors Affecting Performance.....	227
Table 6.18. The Need for Three Areas of Training and Expertise for all Senior Managers.....	231
Table 6.19. Senior Managers' Perceptions about the Importance of the Training Programs in the Three Aspects of their Managerial Job.....	233
Table 6.20. Preference of Training Methods by Managerial Levels.....	235
Table 6.21. Types of Management Training and Development Resources Perceived Suitable by All Se.....	237

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Fayol's Distinction of Organisation Activities.....	22
Figure 2.2. Wheel of Managerial Function.....	23
Figure 2.3. Develop the manager, develop the organisation.....	47
Figure 2.4. Use of the skills.....	68

Figure 4.1. Map of Iran.....	106
Figure 6.1. Distribution of the Senior Managers by the Level of Hierarchy.....	181
Figure 6.2. Distribution of the Respondents in Terms of number of Years.....	189
Figure 6.3. Distribution of the qualifications of the respondents.....	193
Figure 6.4. Priority of Managerial skills required for increased effectiveness.....	206
Figure 6.5. Managerial perception of obstacles at work in the firms Studied.....	219
Figure 6.6. Senior Managers' Perceptions about the Appropriate Length of the Training Course.....	236
 BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	286
 APPENDICES	
Appendix 1: Questionnaire.....	325
Appendix 2: Managerial Roles	344

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Managers and their Effectiveness

Managers are held responsible for ensuring the effective utilisation of their organisations' resources and the continued well-being of their organisations is the product of their effectiveness (Dunnette, 1971). Managerial effectiveness however, should not be viewed solely in terms of capability and competence to perform the task related aspects of the job or even solely ~~attendant~~ ^{dependent} on the people related aspects, as argued by some writers, but should also be seen to be related to managers own self development (Kakabadse et al., 1987; Analoui, 1995).

Over last decades senior managers have been the focus of the research in order to gain better insight into their effectiveness and how and why they tend to shape their organisation and in some ways manage the lives of many others who work under them. However, effectiveness should not be mistaken by efficiency. Efficiency can be defined as when people are working at or near their total capacity. However, to be effective, means doing things in the right way. Ideally, employees should be working both efficiently and effectively (Rees and Porter, 2001: 23). The justifiable attention which has been given to the topic of managerial effectiveness, over the last two decades, places even greater importance on the role of management as an integrating activity which is primarily performed to fulfil organisational objectives by directing resources to obtain the desired results (Analoui, 1997; 2004). Managerial effectiveness, in this sense, relates to the knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies of those in charge of achieving what is termed as profitable, quality service and productivity, depending on the context in which they perform (Mullins, 1993).

It is not an exaggeration to claim that the concept of managerial effectiveness form a relatively neglected aspect of management studies. This is particularly true in developing economies. It is a response to this perceived need that present study attempts to describe and analyse the formation process and the need for managerial effectiveness in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. In this respect, this exploratory study attempts to examine and test 'parameters of managerial effectiveness' n two major car manufacturing plants in Iran. The eight parameters, for managerial effectiveness were originally suggested by Analoui (1999), in a model that has been used for exploring awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational standards, motivations, degree of demands and constraints, and the presence of opportunity for effectiveness.

The aim is to use these parameters to explore ways and means by which it would be possible to improve the content and context, and therefore the quality of the top management teams in the Iranian car manufacturing industry, by assessing the required skills and knowledge, as well as identifying the factors such as interests, motivation, and environment which contribute to the increased effectiveness of the senior managers at work. Therefore it will be possible as a result, to propose strategic guidelines and policy measures for improving the quality and content of management training, as well as their development policies and programmes in the car manufacturing industry in Iran.

The present research however, does not intend to evaluate the effectiveness of the past training efforts, nor, does it aim at attempting to measure the managerial effectiveness or performance of the senior managers within this sector. Its main objective is to improve the content, the context and overall, the senior manager's assessment of the skills and competencies deemed to be essential for their increased effectiveness at both personal and organisational levels. Ultimately, it is

hoped that insight can be gained into skills and competencies senior managers actually need and wish to receive, and the conditions that ought to be created to make sure that they are more effective in their managerial roles. The identification of the causal and behavioural influences will pave the way for the planned comparative work within DCs and/or in a number of transitional economies in the near future.

Senior managers not only set the objectives by translating their visions and dreams for the future of their organisations into attainable goals, but they also identify the path, set the tempo and provide the example for achieving the prescribed goals. Drucker refers to the process of businesses aiding its top management team to have the broad vision and effectiveness to realise its objectives (Drucker, 1954). Management, therefore, is about creating and sustaining effectiveness (Carnall and Maxwell, 1988: 15). As a result, managers, by virtue of their positions and knowledge are responsible for a contribution that materially affects the capacity of the organisation to perform and obtain results. Thus, the training and development of senior managers has been the focus of much attention during the last two decades and has posed a challenge for management theorists and developers alike (Margerison, 1984). Attempts have been made to identify observable skills and their implications in the areas of management education and training so it can result in the development of competent managers, the ultimate goal of management education and development.

1.2. The Statement of the Research Problem

The performance of senior managers in the Iranian car manufacturing industry has been hampered by numerous obstacles, which could be related to economic, administrative, political and religious factors. One obvious shortcoming is the

lack of skilled trainers for developing management skills and knowledge at different managerial levels. There has been a shortage of effective management education and training. There is no doubt that the success of any organisation and subsequently the development of a nation relies on the effectiveness of their senior managers (Mintzberg, 1973 and Drucker, 1974).

Increasing managerial effectiveness therefore, has been related to the development of managers as a whole, which necessarily results in increased awareness on their part (Drucker, 1988; Analoui, 1993). Indeed,

“The development of the executives’ effectiveness will challenge directors goals and the purpose of the organisation and will also raise the egos of its people from preoccupation with problems to visions of opportunity, from concern with weakness to exploitation of strengths” (Drucker, 1988: 14).

On the whole, concerning management training and development, many writers on management and organisation have pointed to the positive relationship which exists between the financial success of an organisation and the continuous involvement of the organisation in management training and development (Odiorne, 1970; Campbell et al., 1970; Porter et al., 1975; Bennett and Brodie, 1979; Hales, 1986; Labbaf and Analoui, 1997; 1999; 2003 and 2004). Although management development and training has gained general recognition in many countries, yet there have been very limited attempts to assess the managerial training needs in developing countries, and as such, training has been improvised and concluded without a clear determination of actual needs (Khan et al, 1982; Analoui, 1995; 1997; 1999). The assessment and identification of management training needs is suggested to be the major issue that confronts developing countries with regard to management training and education.

Among the developing economies, Iran has been in the low range of countries with medium income (World Bank, 1993: 239). Therefore, according to the growth and development indices, it is necessary to consider the improvement of management as a part of the national strategy. Although this is a national necessity in all economic, social and cultural sectors, it is the main responsibility of the country's managers. The achievement of this responsibility can be brought about by the acquisition of the knowledge and skills necessary for good management. Therefore, the training and education of managers is the most important requirement for the economic growth and development of the country.

The effectiveness of the organisations is largely determined by the quality of its senior management who assume the responsibility for policy promotion and decision-making (Analoui, 1997; 1999 and 2003). The recognition of the problems faced for improving the functions of the organisations and the evaluation of the methods that lead them to success must both be considered. In this regard, the role of the education faculties and management training institutions is considerable. The most prominent management resources should be utilised so that they can begin to move towards a comprehensive management education system.

1.3. The Main Objectives of the Study

The main concern of this research is to;

- Identify the causal and influential factors such as interests, motivation, the need for managerial skills, organisational criteria, the degree of demands and constraints, presence of choices and opportunities for effectiveness, nature of inter-organisational relationships, dominant managerial

philosophy, perception and environment, all of which contribute to the increased effectiveness of the senior managers at work;

- Ways and means by which it would be possible to improve the quality of the management in particular top management team in the car manufacturing industry, by assessing their required skills, knowledge and competencies;
- Propose strategic guidelines, policy measures for improving the quality and content of management training, and the development policies and programmes in the car manufacturing industry in Iran.
- Provide an insight into managerial effectiveness and performance improvement of the top management team, the organisations at both personal and organisational levels.

It is hoped that the above objectives provide a vehicle for improving the performance of the managers and lead to increased productivity in the CMI in Iran.

1.3.1 Research Questions

In order to achieve the above objectives, the following research questions have to be answered:

1. Why has Iran suffered from a lack of effective senior managers who changed with achievement of the proposed objectives of the car manufacturing industry?

2. What are the main parameters for managerial effectiveness and what are the motivators, obstacles and difficulties in the process of achieving managerial effectiveness?
3. What is the nature of the relationships between personal, organisational and environmental factors which influence the parameters of the managerial effectiveness?
4. What kind of skills and knowledge do senior managers need and what is the outcome of these skills for their strategies effectiveness?
5. What human resource management policies are required to sustain the effectiveness of senior managers in the car manufacturing industries in Iran?
6. What policy measures can be adopted by developing countries in order to increase the effectiveness of their managers in private and public sector organisations?

The above questions form the foundation for this empirical study of effectiveness of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry in Iran.

1.4. The Scope of the Study

This study starts with the assumption that the efficiency, skills and training of senior managers are of special concern to the car manufacturing industry. There has been widespread recognition that managers' skills in car industry are an essential factor for the achievement of sustained economic development. With the recent concern for reform and the adoption of new managerial roles in the

public sector, much attention has been given to the effectiveness of the senior managers and their performance by theorists, management researchers, developers and practitioners, in developed, developing countries (DCs) and traditional economies (TEs) (Copeman, 1971; Kotter, 1982; McCall and Lombardo, 1983; Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984; Kinggundo, 1989). This organisational phenomenon, illusive in nature (Moers and Wagner, 1978), has been known and labelled as a concept which is difficult to quantify (Brodie and Bennet, 1979), and even more difficult to measure (Dunnette, 1971; Drucker, 1988), yet it is often talked about and has also attracted much interest from lateral and multi-lateral agencies, and has also been acknowledged by scholars such as Mintzberg (1973), Kirchoff, (1977); Langford, (1979); Margerison, (1984) and Analoui (1998).

Managerial effectiveness within DCs and TEs, however, has hitherto evolved mainly around, not the managers, but the organisational setting (Charesley, 1986; Mullins, 1993) social, cultural and political contexts (Jones, 1988; Kiggundo, 1989; Analoui, 1995; 1997; 1999 and 2003), and has been debated within the boundaries of an open system theory (Willcocks, 1992). The recent surge of interest from academia points to the managers' own choices, and the contentious issue that managers' performance is inevitably contingent upon and affected by the casual and behavioural influences within their immediate and wider socio-economic and cultural setting (Stewart, 1982; and 1991). This includes their perception and understanding of what constitutes effectiveness in a particular context (Kakabadse et al., 1987; Analoui, 1997; 1999; 2003 and 2004).

Senior managers and officials are believed to make a major contribution towards the well-being and development of their nations in a particular economy (World Bank, 1991; Blunt, 1992; Kiggundo, 1989 Labbaf and Analoui, 1996). The questions and issues which have not been adequately addressed, especially

within DCs' and TCs' contexts, concern the causes and sources of influences, including managers' own perception, which influence the degree of effectiveness of the individual senior managers and executives and arguably their organisation and nations as a whole.

It is therefore, logical to consider the usefulness of the managers' abilities and proficiency to use material and human resources effectively. Drucker (1974) believes that the education and training of human resources is one of the most important tasks of management. As explained earlier, management education and training are important strategies that can be used to increase managers' capabilities and skills. The increasing amount of attention that is being paid to management education and its importance is based on the assumption that useful educational programmes lead to an increase in managers' knowledge, skills and good behaviour; and eventually improve the functions of their organisations.

The education and training of managers in organisations should be a continuous and regular process in order to improve the quality and quantity of the work performance (Molander, 1986). Therefore, the process of management education and training is a continuation of occupational training of managers and an effort to improve their functions. The importance of management development as a learning process aimed at improving managerial effectiveness is in accordance with the main purpose of this research. According to House (1983), the objectives of management development efforts can best be described as a desired change in the areas of knowledge, attitudes, skills and job performance at a point after the training is completed. In this context the objectives of management development can be viewed in terms of three learning domains or educational objectives identified by Bloom et al., (1956). These include: 1) cognitive, 2) affective and 3)

psychomotor domains - or in non-technical terms, thinking, feeling and doing. For that reason, Bloom *et al.* have proposed a hierarchy of educational goals that start with a base of knowledge and comprehension, termed the cognitive domain, and progress to amalgamation and evaluative skills which include the affective domain of learning. The taxonomy is hierarchical because each category is logically built on the previous one. In other words, one must know about something (knowledge) before one can understand it (comprehension), and then one must understand it before it can be applied (application). Each level focuses on specific objectives, and it is described here in relation to adult learning, more specifically the training and development of managers.

The importance of management development as a learning process aimed at improving managerial effectiveness is in accordance with the main purpose of this research. According to House (1983), the objectives of management development efforts can best be described as a desired change in the areas of knowledge, attitudes, skills and job performance at a point after the training is completed.

The training and education of managers is one of the most important aspects of social, economic and political development and illustrates the relationship between low and high levels of society. The effectiveness of education and training can be measured by examining what a manager could do for their organisation before the training and what he or she can do after it (Cartwright, 2003: 9). Management education and training improves managers' abilities and skills, and thus they help to improve the function of organisations and fulfil the economic and social goals of a country (Paul, 1983). In reality, many less developed countries (LDCs) face the problems of limited resources that reduce their abilities to train and develop their managers.

The resource shortages in LDCs, provides organisations with a multitude of problems and forces them to optimise their use of resources. This limitation increases the need for effective managers at all levels. Management is generally regarded as the basis of an organisation's operations because management enables the organisation to fulfil economic goals as well as social and personal needs. Since management quality is among the most important factors that have a bearing on the success of the organisation, the managers of less developed countries are required to improve their knowledge, and their technical, intellectual and social skills and abilities.

Difficult economic conditions, foreign competition and international commerce complexities also place emphasis on the factors that necessitate the training and education of managers in LDCs. Moreover, it is also important to train managers because of increasing growth and development in many LDCs. Therefore, it is necessary that LDCs, before they are confronted by the multitude of problems caused by mismanagement, give appropriate consideration to the management education and training of their managers as an investment for the present and the future. However, training and education should involve, not just the management skills, abilities and knowledge managers' need but also corporate values and business finance (Stone, 2004: 47). According to these facts, in LDCs the framework and structure of centralised planning and the evaluation of the strategies of economic growth pay more attention to the management of organisations. Failing to pay attention to the improvement of these abilities will cause the failure of all efforts for economic growth and social prosperity.

This research forms an empirical, descriptive and analytical investigation into the managerial effectiveness, management training and development needs of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. It is descriptive

because it will explore and describe factually and accurately a particular phenomenon. Such an enquiry literally intends to provide as thorough descriptions as possible with a view to providing material and guidance for subsequent management performance improvements. It is empirical because it will rely mainly on the use of survey method, questionnaires and interviews to gather the data required. The study will be analytical, in the sense that it seeks to determine the existence of a pattern of relationships and interrelationships amongst a host of managerial skills and knowledge on the part of senior managers for their increased effectiveness at work.

Within the frame of reference discussed above, this investigation attempts to examine the validity of Analoui's model and its relevancy for the management development needs of the senior managers in the Car Manufacturing Industry in Iran. The study in the Car Manufacturing Industry in Iran, hereafter referred to as CMI, is concerned with the understanding of the level of awareness of the senior managers of their own training and development needs and of those factors which affect their increased effectiveness, motivation and improved performance at work.

1.5. The Structure of the Thesis

The discussions in this thesis are divided into eight chapters.

CHAPTER ONE: Managers and their Effectiveness; this introductory chapter describes and analyses the formation process and the need for managerial effectiveness. Explicitly, in this study, senior managers are the focus of attention in order to better understand how and why they tend to shape their organisation and in some ways manage the life of many others who work at lower levels of the managerial and organisational hierarchy.

CHAPTER TWO: Managerial Effectiveness and Management Development: A Review of the Literature; provides a deeper insight into the core issues of the research by reviewing the categories of skills and knowledge actually needed by senior managers for their increased effectiveness. First, attempts are made to discuss fundamental issues, which are associated with the concepts of development of management and the nature of managerial work. The importance of management and what is done by the managers will provide the basis for the subsequent discussions in this chapter. Second, a detailed review of the literature relating to the concept of management development as a learning process and its main objectives and characteristics are presented. Further debates are provided to explore what approaches are specific for the development of senior managers in developing countries. Third, a comprehensive review of literature relating to the concept and the importance of managerial effectiveness is provided. Here, the different perspectives of managerial effectiveness are explored and the issues of managerial motivation and performance are discussed.

CHAPTER THREE: The Development of a Theoretical Framework; describes and analyses the process of synthesises, and creates the literary evidence in an attempt to construct a conceptual framework of analysis which could provide a basis for the study of senior managers' effectiveness in the Iranian CMI. In this respect, the senior managers' views, perceptions and preferences for their increased effectiveness are explored. Furthermore, the premises for the importance of self-management as the core of managerial effectiveness are put forward and the research questions are discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR: An Overview of Iran's Economy; describes and explains Iran's economy and its industrial structure. The issue of industrialisation and the quest of the country for national development are traced through the establishment of the CMI in Iran. In this chapter, the significance of the car manufacturing industry in economic growth is discussed and the crucial role, which the car manufacturing industry assumes in Iran's economy and national development are explored. Organisational profiles of the complexities of the country are then presented, and a brief background to the managerial effectiveness, and management training and development activities in Iran is put forward.

CHAPTER FIVE: The Research Methodology; provides a review of contemporary research strategies and their methodological characteristics before explaining the methodology used for this study. The sources of data, the nature of the analysis and the processes of the questionnaire's formation and pattern, and the interviews will be explained.

CHAPTER SIX: The Main Findings and Descriptive Analysis of Data; presents a descriptive analysis of the primary data which was mainly generated through the use of questionnaires and structured interviews seeking the views and perceptions of senior managers about their managerial work. Following the same sequential pattern as in the questionnaire, the analysis of the collected data has been classified and tabulated in seven sections. In section one, the profile of the participant senior managers is introduced. This section focuses on what is usually called demographic data. These include their age, gender, qualification, work experience, employment and their roles and responsibilities in their present jobs. In addition to the above, the perceptions of the senior managers

about the importance of communication and the most demanding aspects of their jobs are also presented. Section two, concentrates on the training experience of the senior managers and will include their perceptions with regard to the training programme content, method and preferred training length. In section three, the main obstacles to their management development are identified. Section four, deals with the central issue of the thesis, which is the managers' perceptions concerning the importance of the range of skills and knowledge required for their increased effectiveness. Section five, deals with the senior managers main motivational factors that affect the maintenance of their quality performance at work. In section six, the contributing factors to the satisfactory performance of the participants will be considered. Finally in section seven, the eight major clusters of influences, referred to here as "parameters", of managerial effectiveness, namely: the senior managers' perception; skills and knowledge; organisational criteria; motivation for effectiveness; constraints and difficulties; choices and opportunities; inter-organisational relationships, and finally dominant managerial philosophy are analysed.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Discussion; explains the findings of the research in the context of managerial effectiveness, eight identified parameters of managerial effectiveness, and the strategy for human resources development, including training and development of the senior managers of the car manufacturing industry in Iran. Here the main research questions, which have been formulated, are examined in detail against the available quantitative and qualitative data. The discussion is related to the relevant literature reviewed in earlier chapters, including the socio-economic context of the Iranian car manufacturing industry.

CHAPTER EIGHT: Conclusion and Implications; concludes the thesis with a summary of the main findings, before explaining the main contributions of the

research to knowledge. The implications of the study for management development are explained and the objectives of the research are reconsidered. Finally, the limitations of the study are explained and suggestions for further research are made.

Next chapter will review the literature on managerial effectiveness.

CHAPTER TWO: MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS - A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the relevant literature on managerial effectiveness and management training and development. It attempts to answer the following questions in relation to managerial effectiveness: What are the characteristics of managerial effectiveness? Are these characteristics indeed closely related to our understanding of what managers are for and what they do when they are at work?

The term effectiveness is normally equated with 'getting things done', 'achieving results', 'making things happen' and 'being output oriented' (Analoui, 1997: 6). The context in which effectiveness is explored hardly matters because effective behaviour speaks for itself, it is easily recognisable and it may be experienced in all walks of life, in personal as well as organisational spheres. Yet, what makes effective behaviour or the effective manager noticeable are the attitudes, approaches and styles which they employ in order to achieve what is important to them.

It is almost impossible to examine effective behaviour in all the varied contexts in which it may occur and indeed the main purpose of this chapter is not to do this but to explore it in an organisational setting where all of us spend a large part of our lives. It is in an organisational context that effectiveness gains special meaning. Organisational effectiveness can make the difference between staying in and going out of business, at least in the long term. Even then, the degree of effectiveness shown by different groups at the various levels of seniority of the

organisation seems to have different impacts on the life and development of the enterprise.

The question, what comprises the nature of managerial effectiveness and what are managerial work and roles?, generated intense debate and a number of significant studies. There are writers who have theorised about the nature of the managers' job and who have made general statements about their functions (Fayol, 1911; Taylor, 1916; Barnard, 1938; and Drucker, 1974), and there are those who have focused on the more substantial, tangible and observable aspects of what managers actually do (Carlson, 1951; Stewart, 1967; Mintzberg, 1973). Ultimately, senior managers are the focus of attention in order to understand how and why they can form and shape their organisations in a better way. This review will address these elemental questions in an attempt to gain a deeper understanding of the core issues related to this research: the understanding of what categories of skills and knowledge managers actually need for their increased effectiveness at work. This requires the determination of what functions or roles managers perform and what responsibilities they assume when at work (Fayol, 1911; Stewart, 1963, 1967; Drucker, 1974; Mintzberg, 1989). Therefore, the main objective is to draw from the literature, the findings which are related to the following interrelated issues:

1. First, to capture a comprehensive picture of what managers actually do and their perception of their own and others managerial effectiveness.
2. Second, to establish the competencies and abilities required by managers that results in their effective performance at work.

3. Third, to create a framework of analysis that could be applied to senior management and their development.

It is assumed, that the more managers know about their job, the more likely they are to be effective, given that the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours for their effectiveness have been made available to them. Hence, this chapter places emphasis on the range of skills, knowledge and behaviours that managers actually need for their increased effectiveness. It is essential to determine first, what managers do before giving the identification of what is regarded by them as effective performance.

To achieve the above, this review of the literature is presented in three parts:

1. Part one: 'The Need for Managerial Effectiveness'; explores and examines carefully fundamental questions which relate to the concepts of managerial effectiveness and management development, and their characteristics. In presenting these concepts, following Blunt and Jones (1992), a feature is made between the prescription of managerial work as presented by the founding 'fathers of management thought', the characteristics of managerial work, which Willmott (1984) refers to as the images and ideals of the 'specialists' of management, and a more realistic view of the managers' work as reported in numerous empirical studies. On the whole, the discussion will be concerned with the functional view of the managers' work as described by empirical research.
2. In part two: the concept of management development will be explored. Here, the main features, objectives and approaches adopted are

investigated in detail and links are made to the concept of managerial effectiveness. In this regard Analoui's (1999; 2003) eight parameter model of awareness, perceptions, organisational standards, degree of demands and constraints, and the presence of choices and opportunities will be used as a basis for exploring effectiveness in a managerial environment. Furthermore, the importance of the above mentioned parameters and their relevance to senior managers' motivation and performance at work will be discussed.

3. Part three: 'Hierarchy of Managerial Skills and Effectiveness'; aims to identify those most important managerial skills that influence the development of senior managers and consequently results in their increased effectiveness. In this part, following a discussion about the implications of skill approach to management development, a wide-ranging review of different classifications and taxonomies of managerial skills will be presented and relevant conclusions will be drawn.

2.1. Part One: The Need for Managerial Effectiveness

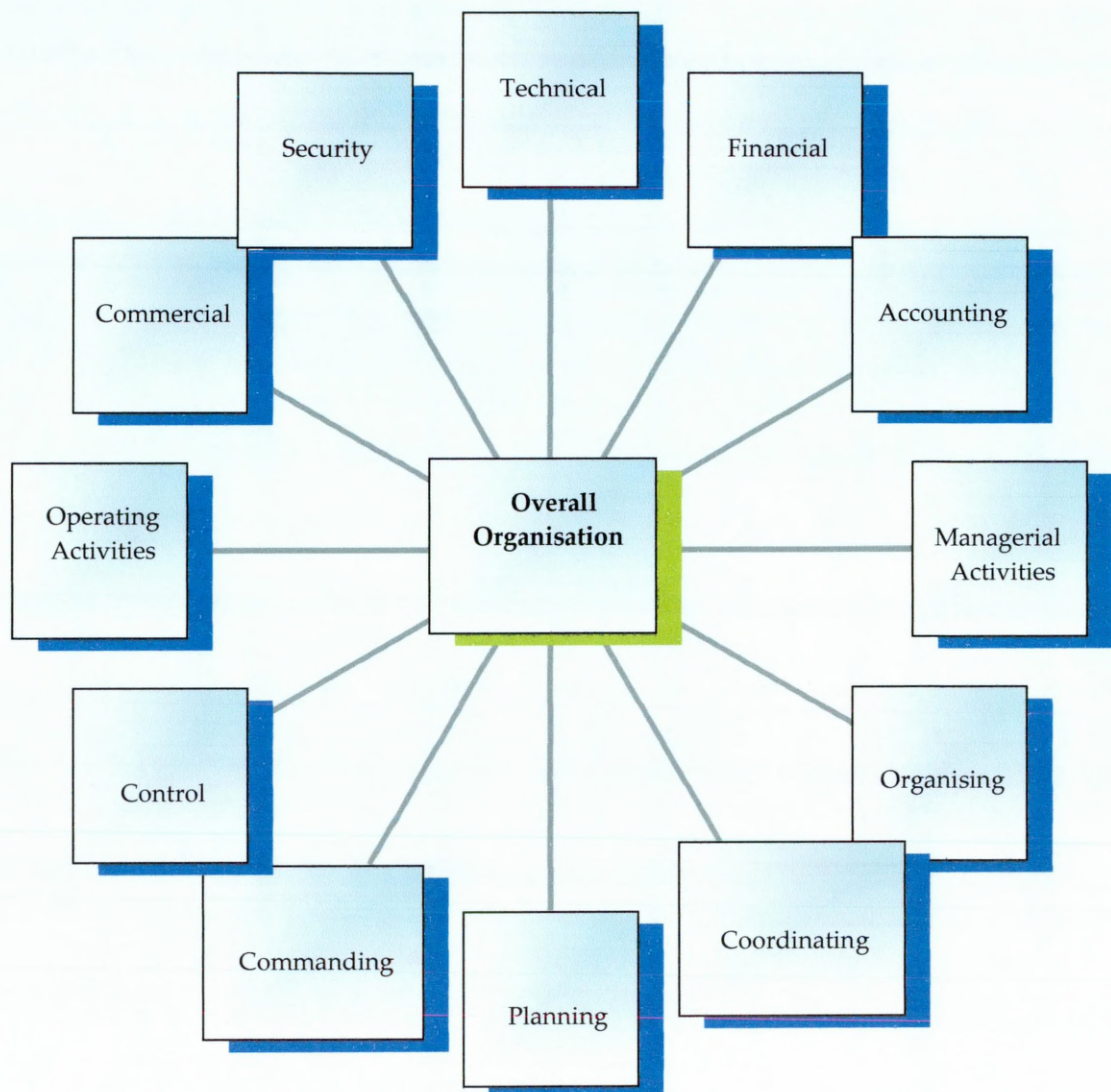
2.1.1. What Do Managers Do?

The main difficulty in describing managerial work is that there is no certain definition of what managers actually do. Levitt (1991) pointed out that 'managers do many different things, but there are three things they must do well. They must: (1) think about the purpose of the organisation and the direction in which it should be going; (2) foster, promote and manage change; and (3) conduct operations in an effective and efficient way'. These activities are important but how do managers accomplish them?

A number of attempts have been made to study managers and thereby gain insight into what managers actually do and how the managerial tasks are actually achieved. One of the first attempts to explain what managers do is that of Henry Fayol with his principles of management. Not surprisingly, he has been seen as the founder of classical management theory, which has been criticized for being too general for current complex organizations and unable to deal with the more rapidly changing organizational environments of today (Stoner and Freeman, 1989).

From Figure 2.1, which was developed from Fayol's principles of management, Gullick and Urwick (1952) introduced the word POSDCORB an acronym that denotes the management functions of, planning, organising, staffing, directing, and co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. Other writers such as Apply (1965) also included planning, executing and controlling in their analysis of managerial work. Prasad (1985), in his review of the writers on the functions of management, pointed out that Davies (1951) had included planning, organising and controlling as the functions of top management. Brech (1972), on the other hand, added motivating to the functions of planning, organising, co-ordinating and controlling.

Figure 2.1 Fayol's Distinction of Organisation Activities

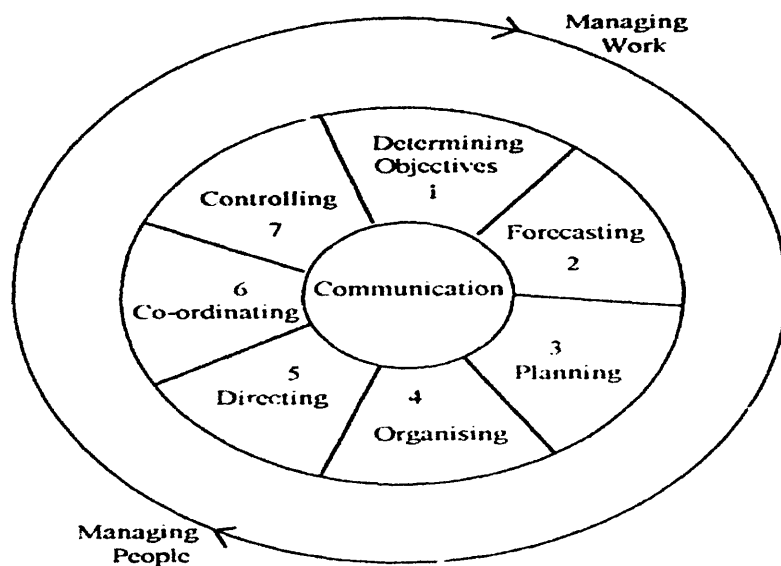


Sources: Stoner and Freeman, 1989: 25

Breck's work can be compared with that of Koontz and O'Donnell's (1976), who in addition to planning, organising, directing and staffing also put forward evaluation and representation as important managerial functions. Dale (1965) went further to include innovation and presentation as important managerial functions. Drucker (1973) added the functions of motivation, communication, measurement and the development of people, including the managers themselves, to the list of managerial work. The latter is an interesting addition

particularly in the context of the present study because it highlights the fact that effective management not only requires the development of people, but the development of the managers' own skills and performance as well. In this context of analysing what managers do and how they do it, Kakabadse et al., (1988) presented a schematic model of managerial activities, in which a distinction is made between 'people' and 'task' related aspects of managerial work (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Wheel of Managerial Function



Source: Kakabadse et al., (1988: 10), *Working In Organizations*, Penguin Books.

Indeed, according to Levitt (1991), the work of managers is much less structured than visualized by Henry Fayol and others. He stated that managers do many different things, but there are three things they must do well. They must: (1) think about the purpose of the organisation and the direction in which it should

be going; (2) promote, foster and manage change; and (3) conduct operations in an effective and efficient manner.

One of the most comprehensive summaries of the main studies of managerial work was written by Hales (1986). Hales' study was particularly comprehensive because an attempt was made not just to look at the activities managers perform but also to "shed light on five major areas ... about managerial work" (Hales, 1986: 90). These areas are:

1. The elements of managerial work (what managers do?)
2. The distribution of a manager's time between work elements (how managers work?)
3. The interactions of managers (with whom managers work?)
4. The informal elements of managerial work (what else managers do?)
5. The themes that pervade managerial work (what are the qualities or characteristics of managerial work?)

After reviewing many studies on the subject, the following "body of fact" was said to exist. First, management work combines managerial elements with speciality and professional elements. Managers almost always perform some non-managerial functions in the course of doing their jobs. Second, the substantive elements of management work entail providing connections, managerial human behaviour, and assuming responsibility for getting work done. Next, the nature of a manager's work varies by duration, time span, and

unexpectedness. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to predict the variety of a manager's work during a given period. Managers spend a great deal of time on every-day troubleshooting and solving ad hoc problems.

The communication patterns that managers employ vary according to what the communication is about and with whom it is taking place. Managers do a lot of persuading, and engage in face-to-face communication encounters. As a result, there is little time to spend on any particular activity or in the formulation of systematic plans. A great deal of the manager's time is spent explaining what they want, and engaging in informal "politicking" and in conflict resolution. It was also noted that managers are able to exercise considerable choice in terms of what they do and how they do it. However, other writers have suggested different ways of looking at what managers do (Mintzberg, 1971; 1973).

2.1.2. Managerial Roles

One of the most famous studies of managers was conducted by Mintzberg (1971; 1973; 1980), who followed several managers around for one week each and recorded everything that they did (Mintzberg 1980). Although Mintzberg used an extremely small sample, his views on managers' work have been well quoted in management literature. In documenting managers' activities, Mintzberg reached some interesting conclusions about the manager's work methods and about several major roles that managers play. Mintzberg viewed the manager's job as a series of roles assumed throughout the process of achieving organisational goals (Mintzberg, 1980; 1993). In presenting his argument, three major categories of roles were identified. Each had a series of subcategories. The three main identified categories were interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles.

2.1.2.1. The Interpersonal Roles of Managers

The interpersonal roles, as the name implies, involved the manager developing relationships with other people and groups. This category of roles directly influences the status and the authority of the manager. Most of a manager's time is spent interacting (through oral and written communication) with other persons inside and outside of the organisation. Frequently managers are called on to perform the role of figurehead and to carry out ceremonial and symbolic acts. On a 5-day trip to India and South Africa, for example, Microsoft's Bill Gates spent much of his 16-hour days holding press interviews, submitting to photo sessions, and making speeches (Schlender, 1997: 72, 81).

Managers, in their interpersonal relations, are also expected to function as leaders and to motivate others.

2.1.2.2. The Informational Roles of Managers

A major part of any manager's job is information processing, that is spending most of their time giving and receiving information. The informational roles of managers involve receiving and transmitting information. Sometimes the manager is seen as the monitor or nerve centre of the information flow in the organisation. In this role the manager is a dispatcher, routing information to different internal and external groups. Sometimes the role is more than that of the disseminator of information. Once the manager receives the information, it must be selectively shared with people in the organisation, and choices must be made about who will benefit most directly from the sharing of information. Grove (1985) provided a diary of "a day in his life" as the Chief Executive of Intel. One two-hour block of time in Grove's day was spent lecturing to the employee orientation programme. This programme was designed to give senior

managers an opportunity to provide new professional employees with information on company objectives, history and expectations.

2.1.2.3. Decisional Roles of Managers

Mintzberg's final category is that of decisional roles. These roles are diverse and far ranging. Managers use information to make decisions that solve problems and/or take advantage of opportunities. Managers' decisions can be related to everything from scheduling one's own time to negotiating with the labour union. When the manager acts as an entrepreneur, he/she searches the environment for new and challenging opportunities. The entrepreneurial role involves taking the risks necessary to succeed in a competitive industry. The role of disturbance handler is assumed as the manager attempts to correct or fine-tune the organisation's progress toward goals when things knock the operations off course. Frequently, managers are expected to function as resource allocators and make decisions concerning whether or not to commit organisational resources to alternative uses. In one case, Grove (1985) made a decision not to grant a manager a pay increase that would have placed him outside the normal salary range for such a job. This was a resource-allocating decision. Finally, managers assume the role of negotiator when they bargain with employees, their bosses, or outside groups such as the labour union. Therefore it can be concluded that managerial work combines managerial elements with specialty and professional elements.

Managers almost always perform some non-managerial functions in the course of doing their jobs. Also, the substantive elements of managerial work entail providing connections, managing human behaviour, and assuming responsibility for getting work

Furthermore, it was recognised that managers who perform at the various hierarchical levels might require not only different skills – concerned with people rather than with operation - but also more of one than the other (Analoui, 1993; 1995; Labbaf, 1996). Such categories of skills, namely task and people, are essential for the increased effectiveness of senior managers, there are also other skills which have been largely overlooked mainly because managers have been perceived and distinguished as being passive rather than capable of recognising their own need for self-development. This is partly seen as an unintended consequence of adopting a prescriptive rather than descriptive approach towards the study and explanation of managerial behaviour and their notion of their job (Analoui, 2003).

It is generally agreed that the classical definition of a manager's job in terms of a set of functions is a suitable way of viewing managerial work (Kakabadse et al., 1988). However, its main shortcoming is that it does not identify the various skills and knowledge that are required to perform these functions effectively (Stoner and Freeman, 1989). Several researches have therefore considered this matter and have produced empirical evidence on the subject of the complexity and diversity of managerial work. The next section of this review focuses on such empirical studies.

2.1.3. The Nature of Managerial Work: Empirical Studies

The essential part of the literature on managerial work has been based on the assumption that a useful generalisation can be made about the nature of managerial work. The answer to the question of 'what constitutes the nature of managerial work?' is indeed closely related to our understanding of what managers are for and what they do when they are at work. Once their functions (Fayol, 1911), major responsibilities (Drucker, 1974), activities, demands and

constraints placed on them, their choices (Stewart, 1963; Drucker, 1974), the major roles which they perform (Mintzberg, 1975), the aspects of their work and their major concerns (Analoui, 2003) are understood, then it would be feasible to determine the characteristics or basic components of their work and ultimately what they need to learn in order to do their job effectively. The so-called 'universal principles' of managerial actions were first emphasised and promoted widely in western industrial countries and later exported to developing and less developed countries, mostly those who were under colonial regimes and were economically and politically dominated. Hence, most of the empirical evidence on managerial work originated in western developed countries.

According to Hales (1986), empirical studies on the work of managers provided answers to five underlying questions about managerial work, as explained earlier, (1) What do managers do? (2) How do managers work? (3) With whom do managers work? (4) What else do managers do? (5) What qualities does managerial work have? In this context, it is expected that the following review will provide answers with proven implications for management training and development as a whole and the training and development of the senior managers in particular.

Based on the assumption that a useful generalization about the nature of managerial work can be made, a new approach dominated the traditional approach to the search for 'universal principles' of managerial actions, and emphasized on a thorough examination of managerial work. Carlson (1951), for example, a Swedish executive carried out the first study of managerial behaviour, using one French and nine Swedish managing directors. He later published the results of his study under the title *Executive Behaviour* (Carlson, 1951). He used a mixed methodology of a diary technique, checklist and

questionnaire in an attempt to investigate working time, communication patterns and work content of Swedish directors. However, he concluded that 'the managers' working day, to a large extent, was determined by what was written in their diaries (Carlson, 1951: 73). Carlson used the phrase 'diary complex' to describe the way in which the executives in his study used their appointments diaries in an attempt to control the apparent randomness and unpredictability of their working days. He found that the managing directors spent most of their total working times in contact with other people. He concluded that the executive's time was repeatedly disrupted and that they had no time to themselves. The executives therefore, tended to neglect long-range planning.

Communication was an important factor in Carlson's study (1951) which he defined simply as the methods used in contacting other people. His pioneering study and contribution revealed for the first time some of the things that were involved in the 'work content' of top management and paved the way for observational studies into the actual work of executives and senior managers. As Willis (1984) pointed out, Carlson had the development of managers in mind when he decided to obtain material for selecting and training top executives. Indeed, Carlson's study set a new pattern that rested on a direct approach to research into management and shifted attention from abstract and generalized statements of what managers ought to do, to a more precise notion of what they actually do in carrying out their daily responsibilities (Mumford, 1984; Willis, 1984). However, due to the limitations of the techniques he used in data collection it could not draw a comprehensive picture of the working day of an executive's life and became the subject of a great deal of criticism (Hughes, 1988).

Following the direct approach to research into what it is that managers actually do, a study was launched by Burns (1957) to investigate the work of managers

by surveying 76 executives in eight English firms. He focused his attention on how these managers spent their time at work. Because of the inherent limitations of the diary method, he used time sheets instead and asked managers to mark one of the pre-arranged categories. He reported that the average respondent in his survey worked 41.5 hours per week, of which six hours were spent away from the firm. Burns also suggested that managers spend comparatively small proportions of their time with their direct subordinates (Burns, 1957: 47).

According to Mintzberg (1973), one of the most significant descriptions of managerial work behaviour is that of Sayles (1964), which was based on a field experience of several years' research on the behaviour of lower and middle-level managers in one division of a large American corporation. Sayles (1964) also confirmed the findings of Burns (1957) and Copman, Luijk and Hanika (1963) that managers had a wide variety of contacts and relationships other than those with their subordinates (Analoui, 1997: 18). He asserts that a typical manager is 'an enormously active person and he or she works with and through people. Sayles (1964) viewed managerial work behaviour as a series of roles, which are played by managers especially at lower levels, irrespective of the differences of their activities. These roles included monitoring, maintaining relationships, negotiating, disturbance handling and leading. These roles also appeared in the list of managerial behaviour reported by Mintzberg (1973).

2.1.4. Patterns of Managerial Work

Rosemary Stewart (1963) described the patterns of managerial work on the basis of commonly known features drawn from both theory and practice. A distinction has been made in the manager's functions between deciding what to do and arranging for it to be done. She suggested a simple and practical

definition and broadly defined a manager's job as 'deciding what should be done and then getting other people to do it' (Stewart, 1963: 65). She further explained how these two tasks, which are actually overlapping in practice, demand different sets of capabilities from managers. The first task, she explained, demands that the manager should be capable of setting objectives, plan, make decisions, and organize the work organization. The second task requires that managers have the ability to motivate, communicate, measure and control, as well as develop of other people.

Managerial work, Rosemary Stewart suggests, is best viewed as a combination of 'thinking' and 'doing' in the form of 'judgment and decision' leading to the achievement of effective performance. Therefore, a significant feature of this role must lie in the accountability that it entails. By virtue of its responsibilities, it is the job of management to get things done through other people, and thereby to manage both the work and the people involved. It is important to note that Stewart's definition of management may not perhaps meet all the criteria that one can perceive as the nature of managerial work today. However, it has the advantage of simplicity and focuses on what in reality is at the heart of effective management.

Rosemary Stewart (1963) argued that the implications of functional analysis of management are limited to the selection and the training of managers and that the diversity that features managerial work reduces the value of generalization about their functions. She argued further that to list management functions is to "ignore the diversity of management: that the job of a top manager bears little resemblance to that of the junior manager, or that being a coke-oven manager in a steel mill is hardly comparable with being an advertising manager to a popular shoe manufacture" (Stewart, 1963: 66).

Moreover, Stewart suggested that the managerial work varies considerably with respect to three main factors: functions of the job, level of the job, and the situation of the firms and that the rate of change associated with these factors can transform the nature of managerial work. Campbell *et al.*, (1970) agreed with the above and argued that managerial work differs substantially from one to another and that the work of particular managers also differs greatly because of differences in individual characteristics, situational variables and organisational contexts.

It is also argued, that one aspect of what managers do is 'task-related'. This aspect of managers' behaviour varies according to the level of seniority in which he or she operates the organisational context and even the nature of the business. Yet, the fact remains that all managerial work, regardless of the diversity and differences in the above factors, does share a task-related aspect as part of the overall picture of their features (Analoui, 1993, 1995; Labbaf and Analoui, 2003).

Stewart also argued that, 'theorists concentrate on the similarities in the manager's job, whereas the research highlights the differences. No adequate selection and training can take place unless these differences are appreciated' (Stewart, 1963: 66). Basic elements of the decision-making process, however, are present in all situations at all levels of management, only the complexity changes from one situation to another. There are similarities in the activities of the specialists in that they all 'manage people and get things done', and there are differences in terms of the knowledge and skills which they apparently require, as well as the problems which they may encounter during the course of their daily activities. Differences are also found at different levels in which the managers perform: the higher the position of a manager in the hierarchy of the organization, the more he or she will be involved in policy-making and the

greater their responsibility will become. The situation of a firm substantially affects the manager's job. Situational factors such as size, structure, outputs and the organization's position in industry can account for this variation. For example, a manager's job in a process industry is bound to be different from that of the same job in a mass-production industry.

It is further argued that a gap exists between the general statement of managers' work and a detailed description of what they do (Stewart, 1963). She strongly challenged the notion that, 'a good manager can manage anything', and believed that due to highly technical and specialized knowledge which is required in many management posts, the reality of the concept can hardly be demonstrated in practice, except at senior and top management level, where the demand for technical expertise is relatively less compared to administrative skills. She further argued that:

"Even at the top management level, the kind of people who have to be managed and the type of problems that have to be resolved can be so diverse that they require different abilities, therefore, different people" (Stewart, 1963: 67).

Therefore, it can be concluded that the application of universal descriptions of managerial functions in selection and training is so limiting, there is a need for specific descriptions based on what managers actually do or how they do it. This point is central to any in-depth study of management development, since it incorporates the main idea that management is a grouping of people fulfilling similar roles in terms of four functions of planning, organizing, motivating and controlling. These functions are at the same time engaged in jobs that in many cases are bound to be different with respect to their contextual factors. Stewart's works however, suggests that managers' jobs need to be analyzed in behavioural terms as well as on the lines of technical and functional responsibilities. In her

later studies of how managers spend their time, Stewart (1982, 1988, 1991) referred to the work of Mintzberg (1973; 1975) on managerial work and confirmed that on average the 160 managers in the sample studied had spent two-thirds of their time working with other people (Steward, 1982: 50). It seems reasonable to assume that most managers spend the bulk of their working day in some type of communication activity. Even the 33 managers in the sample in backroom-type jobs spent about half of their time working with other people (Rees and Porter, 2001: 163). This may be through attendance of meetings, the giving and receiving of instructions, discussions with colleagues and contact with customers or suppliers. Such contact may be face to face, over the telephone or a combination of both. Much of the remaining time is likely to be concerned with the assimilation or preparation of written information. If managers are to make the correct substantive decisions in their jobs, it follows that they need to be able to handle the communication process effectively. A problem of communication within organisations is that if it is faulty, everyone else in the communication chain can be misinformed.

Stewart's (1967) study of the actual work content of 160 senior and middle managers, for four weeks in Britain, placed considerable importance on the methodology of studying managerial work. She did not believe in the use of observation because she felt that it could not embrace sufficient time to show variation in the manager's job. She reported that few management jobs had a daily cycle and that most managers had no time to think, and they complained of being bombarded by 'one damn thing after another'. Stewart concluded that the manager's job was a fragmented and varied one with variety in the place of work, in the contacts made in work activities and in its content. From the analysis of the results of her study, Stewart (1967: 117) identified five basic

managerial outlines that are named respectively after the main characteristics of five distinctive groups of managers. These are as follows:

2.1.4.1. Emissaries

These managers are in close contact with the outside people and spend much of their time away from the company, dealing with and entertaining them. They work long hours, but their days are less fragmented than most other people in their organization. Typical of this group are the sales managers and senior managers who act as public figures and whose work usually takes them away from the organisation.

2.1.4.2. Writers

In comparison with the other groups, these managers spend more time by themselves in reading, writing, dictating and doing figure work. They tend to work shorter hours than other groups. They spend the least amount of time in group contact and are less subjected to day to day pressures than other management groups. The main examples of this group were engineering staff specialists, also some sales managers who spent time in office administration, a few accountants and company secretaries.

2.1.4.3. Discussers

These are the average managers in the whole sample with less distinguishing characteristics than the other groups. They tend to spend much of their time with other people, particularly with their colleagues. This group also consists of a wider variety of managers than the other groups and covers a much more diverse range of activities.

2.1.4.4. Trouble Shooters

These managers spend most of their time in coping with crisis, and they had the most disjointed and fragmented work pattern. They spend more time with their subordinates and less with their peers. A relatively large amount of their time is spent on inspection. Their main external contacts are suppliers. Examples of this group are factory managers, production and engineering managers, as well as a few general managers.

2.1.4.5. The Committee Men

These managers spend a large amount of their time in committees. This group differs evidently from other groups in that they have a wide range of internal contacts and group discussions. Their internal contacts are both vertical and horizontal with very few outside contacts. They also spent considerably more time on personnel work. Managers in this group were mostly production and works managers who worked in large companies.

Some years later Rosemary Stewart (1976) published another study of 274 managers that on emphasized the differences rather than the similarities between managerial jobs, and focused attention on managerial behaviour as distinct from the technical content of the job. She noted that her earlier work, relying on the specially designed diaries, involved no personal contact with her subjects and this 'greatly restricted the aspects of managerial work that could be studied' (Stewart, 1976: 2). Thus, she added interviews and a small time-sampling observation to her methodology. In this study, Rosemary Stewart was more concerned with the work patterns, and the demands and choices of different types of managers' work.

2.1.5. Rosemary Stewart's Analytical Model (1982)

In her book entitled, *Choices for Managers*, Stewart (1982) introduced a model that provides an analytical framework and structure for better understanding of managerial work and the behaviour of managers. This model is believed to provide a framework for thinking about the nature of managerial jobs, and about the manner in which managers carry them out (Analoui, 1997). It helps to consider that managers have to experience, as well as acquire, the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are essential for their effectiveness, as the main determinant of their performance at work. It directs attention to the generalization that can be made about managerial work, and the differences that exist among managerial jobs. The managers' job is explained in terms of the demands and constraints placed upon managers as well as the choices open to them. The main constituents of Stewart's model are as follows.

2.1.5.1. Demands

Demands are what anyone in the job has to do. Demands are not what a manager ought to do, but only what must be done. Therefore, Rosemary Stewart (1982) explained that demands refer to those activities that must be carried out because of the nature of the responsibilities and accountability of an individual to others, especially to his superiors. There are many things that managers ought to do as prescribed in the job description, or because the chief director considers them to be important. For example, in compliance with bureaucratic procedures and meeting minimum criteria of performance, this cannot be ignored (Analoui, 1997: 21).

2.1.5.2. Constraints

Constraints or impediments are internal or external factors to the organisation that tend to limit what the manager can achieve. These factors may include

resource limitations, physical location, attitudes and expectations of other people as well as organisational constraints.

2.1.5.3. Choices

Choices are the activities that a manager is free to do, but does not have to do. They are the opportunities for the manager to undertake different work, or to do the work in different ways. It is really at the manager's discretion what work is done and how the work is done.

It is the balance between the demands, constraints and choices that managers have to bear. Although they are subject to some discretion, they can be seen as having implications for the organisational purpose, managerial effectiveness, selection, education, training and career decisions. With this model, Rosemary Stewart's work clarified the reality of effectiveness at work and how it can be increased. The manager, while confronting different demands from family, outside contacts, bosses, peers, subordinates and other superiors (Stewart 1976: 7) can consciously push back some limiting factors in order to gain ground for effective behaviour. What, however, is worthy of consideration is the awareness of managers of the factors identified, and the extent and availability of choices and opportunities which are available to them. This point brings one to the question that is often posed; do all senior managers reach identical levels of self-awareness concerning the nature of their job? And more importantly, whether or not their awareness of the need for certain managerial knowledge and skills, which are perceived as enabling them to cope with such a varied assortment of limiting factors, is relatively ignored. These issues have not been given the attention that they deserve.

Essentially, Rosemary Stewart illustrated that managerial jobs differ in the balance of constraints, demands and choices that they place on the individual manager, although the individual has some discretion in shifting the balance by, for example, pushing back constraints. Thus, the job is subject to possible changes, because either the constraints or demands will affect the choices.

2.1.6. Work Content and Managerial Roles

To make sense of the data he collected, Mintzberg (1980) attempted to categorize the managers' various activities into roles. A role is an organised set of behaviours associated with a particular office or position (Kathryn and Martin, 1998: 11). Positions usually require multiple roles. For example, the roles of a salesperson in a retail store might include information giver, that Mintzberg observed as interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles. There has been, however, a shift from what Hales (1986) refers to as the statistical and analytical approach toward a more synthesizing one to the study of the content of managerial work with reasonably different aims, methods and models.

As explained earlier, Mintzberg (1973) formulated his theory from a study of chief executives, which has been the most influential of all studies, and has served as a landmark in studies of managerial behaviour. His premise offers an alternative view of the job of managing that throws some new light on how managers spend their time and perform their work. He made an extensive survey of existing research on this subject and integrated those findings with the results of his own study of five chief executive officers. Synthesizing the thoughts of various writers, Mintzberg declared that, 'the field of management, so devoted to progress and change, has for more than half a century not seriously addressed the basic question: what do managers do? Without a proper answer to how we can teach management (Mintzberg, 1975: 49).

Mintzberg found that the 'indistinguishable words of POSDCORB' (planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting), permeated the work of all classical writers and popular theorists that told almost nothing about the actual content of managers' work. He argued that:

"There seems to be no pattern to managerial activity. Rather, variety and fragmentation appear to be characteristics, as successive activities deal with issues that differ greatly both in type and in content. In effect, the manager must be prepared to shift moods quickly and frequently" (Mintzberg, 1971: 99).

The view that managerial work is a science in nature and meaning, and requires systematic planning was challenged with the notion that it is an art. Mintzberg (1973) argued, "Almost nothing senior managers do is programmed, formally recorded as a series of steps to be carried out in a systematic sequence" (Mintzberg, 1973:135).

This view challenged the contemporary belief concerning the classical functions of management and, based on his observation of the behaviours of five senior managers, suggested that managers' jobs are remarkably similar and that the work of all managers can be divided and described more meaningfully in terms of various 'roles' or organised common sets of behaviours associated with a position. The concept of role behaviour from the behavioural sciences stance was viewed as the capacity in which the managers act. Each of the identified roles falls into one of the three listed categories and each represents things a manager should be able to do. The three main identified categories of roles are interpersonal, information processing and decisional.

It is suggested that managers spend a great deal of time interacting, orally or in written form, with other people inside and outside of the work unit. A major

chunk of their time is allocated to others and to relationship building. Some managers refer to this major activity as networking and creating contacts. In this respect, decision-making is a natural step to the information processing which refers to the managers' ultimate use of information in order to make decisions that solve problems. During this process managers often take advantage of opportunities that are made available to them.

Mintzberg (1973: 135) offers a list of thirteen propositions about managerial work characteristics that are summarized in four general findings. These are:

1. Managerial activities are characterised by brevity, variety and discontinuity and they are strongly oriented towards action and dislike reflective activities.
2. Managerial work has a number of regular duties involved, including ritual and ceremony, negotiations and the processing of information, both within and between organizations.
3. Managers strongly favour personal communication by talking, rather than documents and the written media, and as a result spend a considerable amount of time on the telephone and in meetings.
4. Managers do not have a formal programme upon which to base their behaviour, but rely on judgment and intuition, and that the process of decision making used is not clearly observable (Mintzberg, 1973: 51).

A number of recent studies report evidence that supports the general validity of the theory that Mintzberg proposed. His work was generally based on the study

of North American and Western European managers. Casey (1976) in his studies carried out in South East Asian countries; Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, Taiwan and Indonesia, suggested that despite socio-cultural differences, the work content of managers was similar to those of Mintzberg's (1973). Executives in those countries spent as much as 70 percent of their management time in talking with other people, and some spent as much as 90 percent in this task as well as doing paper work. Time was spent with many people other than the manager's direct boss and subordinate. Some of the time was spent with the subordinate's subordinates, the boss's boss, customers and suppliers. The formal chain of command was frequently isolated. An extremely wide range of topics was discussed with other people.

Furthermore, the question, which is also relevant to this present investigation, is whether Mintzberg's managerial role description holds its validity for managers in the public sector. To answer this question, Lau *et al.* (1980) studied the work content and job characteristics of 210 public executives in the USA (Analoui, 1997: 26). They used Mintzberg's framework and his description of managerial activities to evaluate the similarity of public and private sector management jobs. Based on the results of their study, Newman and Broedling (1980: 519) reported that public sector executives engage in similar work activities as the private sector executives both in terms of job content and job characteristics. It was concluded that the work content of public sector executives matches with Mintzberg's managerial role descriptions, and that the major roles are remarkably similar in both sectors (Lau *et al.*, 1980: 519).

2.1.7. Characteristics of Successful Managers

It has been often argued that successful managers are those who sustain the competitive advantage of their organisations in a turbulent and competitive

business environment. Therefore it is important to understand how they do it. They are supposed to be active rather than passive and make it happen. They assume responsibility for, and direction of, the process of change and the activities required to make their organisations effective and successful (Pettinger, 2001:9).

The transition from middle-to top-level management is in some ways not as radical as the transition from employee to successful managers. One important attempt to examine the characteristics of successful managers was provided by Kotter (1982) from a study of 15 successful general managers by using interviews, questionnaires, archive records, and more than 500 hours of direct observation. Successful managers for the purpose of his study were defined as, individuals who hold positions with multifunctional responsibilities for a business (Kotter, 1982: 2). In other words, they operated at higher organisational levels than typical middle managers with responsibility for a single function such as marketing, finance or operations. However, they were not, in all cases, top-level executive.

Successful managers seldom gave orders or told people what to do. In spite of this, successful managers frequently attempted to influence others. Instead of telling people what to do, however, they tended to request, persuade and intimidate. In allocating their time, Kotter (1982) found that the participants tended to behave in a 'reactive mode' with few of the encounters being planned. Most of the time spent with others was consumed by short and disjointed conversations, and all the general managers worked for long hours. They did not approach their jobs by planning, organising, motivating, and controlling in a formal sense. They relied on continuous, informal, and subtler methods to approaching the complex demands of the management task (Kotter, 1982: 127).

In completing the task of management they produced agendas and networks rather than long-range plans and organisation charts. The agendas they developed were not in conflict with formal plans but were less statistical and numerical, covered wide time frames, dealt with more people-oriented issues, and were, in general, 'less rigorous, careful, rational, logical or linear' than one would expect of formal planning.

Commenting on Kotter's work, Duncan (1999: 36) stated that Kotter's view of successful management behaviour had more in common with Mintzberg than with Fayol. Moreover, Duncan (1999) pointed out that substantial efficiency resulted from apparent inefficiency. The agendas allowed managers to react efficiently and opportunistically to the flow of events around them while knowing that they were doing so within a larger, more rational framework and structure. The networks made it possible for the managers to achieve efficiency and cope with the extreme demands of their jobs. Such demands resulted consistently in working weeks that averaged 59 hours (Duncan, 1999: 37).

In drawing and reaching a conclusion, in Kotter's view, the general manager's success is essentially a function of his/her personality characteristics. He asserts that, 'the basic personality themes that one finds in a group of successful general managers relate to power, achievement, ambition, emotional stability, optimism, intelligence, analytical ability, intuition and a personable style' (Kotter, 1982: 6). Kotter considers successful managers as competent people who implement policies, objectives and activities through a diverse number of individuals and groups.

Now that the concept of management and the nature of managerial work and its characteristics have been clarified, a discussion of management development

will be most relevant to the arguments raised above on managerial roles and the characteristics of successful managers. Therefore, the following part will be devoted to the significance, concept, features and objectives of management development.

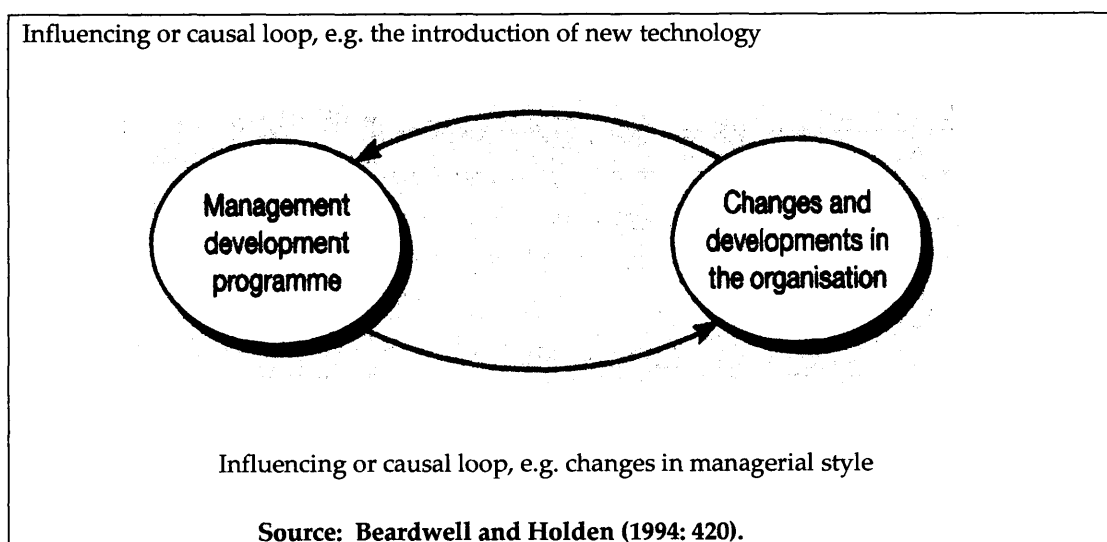
2.2. Part Two: Management Development

2.2.1. The Impact of Education and Training on Management Development and Economic Development

Management development programmes focus on developing managerial skills for use at supervisory, managerial and executive levels. Beardwell and Holden (1997) stated, "Management development is making learning happen, whereas training is the planned process to achieve an effective performance". Management education and training are important components in management development but they do not, by themselves, constitute management development. When we educate managers, we seek to introduce, extend or improve their learning and understanding about the managerial positions they occupy. For example, managers on a postgraduate Diploma in Management Studies may learn about the psychology of individuals and organizations. This learning process may raise their awareness and understanding of human behaviour and how to manage people more effectively at work. Management training, however, tends to be more specific and used in a short term. It is primarily concerned with teaching managers the skills they need to perform their jobs more effectively. For example, managers will attend short courses during their careers on a whole range of business topics such as leadership skills, risk management, assertiveness and communication skills (Beardwell and Holdden, 1997: 405).

On the whole, management development is a conscious and systematic process to control the development of managerial resources in the organisation for the achievement of goals and strategies. According to Mumford (1987), 'management development is an attempt to improve managerial effectiveness through a planned and deliberate learning process' (Mumford, 1987: 223). Also, Storey (1989) pointed out that, 'management development is that function which forms deep understanding of business goals and organisational requirements, undertakes: (a) to forecast need, skill mixes and profiles for many positions and levels; (b) to design and recommend the professional, career and personal development programmes necessary to ensure competence; (c) to move from the concept of 'management' to the concept of 'managing' (Storey, 1989: 19).

Figure 2.3 Develop the manager, develop the organisation



Beardwell and Holden (1994: 420) stated that 'changes in either the management development programme or the organisation can result in influencing loops which positively or negatively reinforce change'. Shown in Figure 2.4, is the causal relationship between management development programmes, if we

develop the manager, we will develop the organisation, and vice versa. That is to say, an open systems view is one that identifies the way management development contributes to the overall organisational effectiveness. As the organisation changes and develops, so positive influencing 'loops' are created that lead to the future development of managers. Similarly, as managers are developed, positive influencing 'loops' lead to changes in the organisation that produce greater effectiveness. It can, of course, work the other way. Poor or ineffective development can create negative influencing 'loops' that undermine organizational or managerial effectiveness.

The objective of management development is becoming indistinguishable from the need to respond effectively to pressures and challenges of organisational change and renewal. In this respect, Pedler and Burgoyne (2001), stated that,

"Any effective system for management development must increase the manager's capacity and willingness to take control over, and responsibility for, events-particularly for themselves and their own learning", (Pedler and Burgoyne, 2001: 3).

There are many examples and case studies where management development has been used as a vehicle to facilitate and 'engineer' different forms of culture change in both the public and private sectors (Hofl and Dawes, 1995: 28). It has also become a 'tool' in the pursuit of quality, cost reduction and 'profitability through excellence' and the introduction of new roles and responsibilities for managers (Storey, 1989).

Management development plays several roles: First, it prepares and trains skilled personnel, from low levels to all levels, to manage capital, technology, services and administration in every sector of the economy. Furthermore, as will be pointed out in this research, in most examples, economic and sometimes also

social returns on investment in education exceed and other forms of returns on alternative kinds of investment, and that developing nations obtain higher returns than the developed ones. As concern for the management of the environment, for conservation, for the use of energy and for achieving a balance between human population and natural resources mounts, education and training in management development will be expected to raise the consciousness of people and to provide knowledge, skills and trained manpower to deal with environmental issues.

What education and training in management can achieve, however, is constrained among other things, by the prevailing economic order, political power and social structure. In the absence of politically planned social changes, the education and training of managers may facilitate change by providing the otherwise disadvantaged people with a degree of social and economic prosperity. With an understanding of political rights and action, educated managers can be active in organising forces for change. Furthermore, education and training should not be seen as only a sector of management development parallel to, for example, agriculture or industry but as a pervasive element that must be integrated horizontally and vertically into all development efforts (Simmons 1995).

Economic development can be dependent partly on the efficient function of a proper education system. One method of analysing education efficiency is to look at its two interrelated aspects 'internal and external efficiency' (World Bank, 1980: 30). It is the external efficiency management development that is more directly related to economic development, whereas internal efficiency has two deterrents:

1. The maximum flow of students is evident through the education system with a minimum of waste. The results confirm the high number of dropouts and repetition of courses, especially in rural areas in LDCs. It has been suggested that the flow of students is often accompanied by inefficient use of teachers (Davico, 1990; Paterinos and Psacharopoulos, 1996). The high repetition and drop out at primary school level presents the realisation of universal primary education in many LDCs (Schiefelbaum, 1989; Davico, 1990 and UNESCO, 1984, 1992).
2. The quality of learning is a relationship between inputs/ outputs and outcomes.
3. Generally speaking, in all countries, especially in developed countries, the education and training of the work force is considered a cultural, social, economic and political development strategy. In other words, education, training and development are three interrelated concepts that at the same time have different objectives. Economically, the education and training of the work force is considered to be a long-term strategy whose benefits have always been significant (Machlup, 1982). The education and training of the work force is, on one hand, the most important means for development and, on the other hand, provides the substructure of all development goals. Therefore, the role and importance of education of human resources is emphasised as a means to increase and hasten the speed of economic development. Understandably, this requires a large proportion of the LDCs' annual budget to be allocated for education and training.

In 1988, the United Nation's Centre for Development and Education carried out a comprehensive study of the policies for education and training, and occupational education in the world. It was found that only 45 countries

considered education as the first and most necessary factor in economic development. One of the other significant findings of the study was that occupational education and the learning of special occupational skills was the most important and necessary educational requirement of LDCs' (UNDP, 1989: 52). The experiences of Japan and Korea and their success in increasing the economic growth and advances in human resources are in agreement with these views. These two countries, diligently and responsibly, have put much emphasis on the training of their work force, eventually leading to their economic growth and an increase in all aspects of development (World Bank, 1991: 52).

2.2.2. The Importance of Management Development

Although the development of productive and successful organisations is a requirement for political, economic and social development, the most important requirement is efficient and responsible managers who manage these organisations (Kinggundo, 1989: 294). All organisations including business companies, factories, hospitals, universities and schools have organisational goals, managers organise them via human and material resources and their integration, and by the direction of human efforts, guarantee the fulfilment of these goals. Among all the factors present in an organisation, none is more important than managers because they determine how to use other production factors effectively in the organisation (Mullins, 1993). The multitude of natural, technological and financial resources is not enough for stable economic and social development and more emphasis than ever has to be placed on organisations and their management. Management, together with other traditional production factors, provides a key factor in stable development, and the quality of management in various levels of a country, expresses the real situation of the process of economic and social development of the country (Ndegwa, 1987).

It has been said, that only via the adjusting the role of efficient managers can economic resources bear fruit. Drucker (1974) argued that economic and social development mostly reflects better management. He claimed that wherever only economic factors of production have been utilised, development has not really occurred. But where creative management forces are present and their education has been utilised, rapid development has occurred. Drucker (1974: 35) believed that 'development is not caused by wealth, but it is caused by fruitful efforts of humans on all the activity scenes of the society'. He argued that management is the most important factor of economic and social development and that correct management makes comprehensive development possible (Drucker, 1974: 35). However, he does not consider the LDCs as underdeveloped, but considers them as trapped by bad management.

Japan and Indonesia are two obvious examples of Asian countries that obviously prove the central role of management in any country's development. Among the Asian countries, Indonesia is one of the richest in natural resources, but Japan is among the poorest. However, Japan is one of the most successful countries in the world, and Indonesia has just emerged from the list of backward countries. The Netherlands is another example in Europe for good management. Large parts of this country are covered by water. It has limited natural resources, but due to good management, it is one of the most successful countries in the world (Patil, 1979).

Management makes a vital contribution to economic development and organisational performance. Thus, managers are among the highest-level human resources of a country (Harbison and Myers, 1964). The effect of management on the performance of organisations is among many production factors. This factor determines how to use other factors, and how to integrate and harmonise them.

Therefore, management has a double effect on the production process of an organisation because the quality of the management of an organisation is its weakest or strongest point (Narayansuwami, 1991: 155). Managers are indeed the most important factors in the success or failure of organisations, so many managerial theorists believe that management at all levels, especially higher levels, affects the productivity of an organisation (Robbins, 1997).

Moreover, Drucker (1974) argued that managers are the basic resource and most valuable elements in any organisation, but they also deteriorate most rapidly and need regular training and development. He believed that 'it takes years to train a group of efficient managers, and that unfortunately this resource deteriorates in a short time due to mishandling' (Drucker, 1974: 379). The function of a manager reflects his/her abilities, capabilities and motives. The effects a manager has on an organisation are obvious and striking. Therefore, the benefits from a proficient manager are more than the benefits from any other within the organisation. Hence, emphasising on the training of managers is believed to bring about more benefits than emphasising on the training of others in the organisations (Jkenney and Donneld, 1972). A fundamental element in the process of management development is management education.

2.2.3. Management Education

Management education is usually referred to as a formal educational programme that is designed to lead to formal academic qualifications and the earning of a university degree (Kerrigan and Luke 1987). Its objective however, is to improve managerial abilities with respect to knowledge, skills and attitudes. Unlike training, management education does not concentrate on a certain task in the organization, but focuses on a wider area that is more of academic interest. Management education has a clear relationship with management development

in that it provides a general framework from which management development can benefit.

Within the context of management education, learning objectives are important in the choice and application of method to circumstances and these must also take into account the areas or 'domains' of learning. Peddler *et al.* (1986) when discussing management development objectives suggested the following learning domains of management education:

1. Cognitive: knowledge.
2. Affective: attitudes and feelings.
3. Psychomotor: mainly manual skill.
4. Interpersonal: person-to-person skills, blending specific cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills in face-to-face interactions.
5. Self-knowledge: personal growth and an expanded awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses

As Gage and Berliner (1979) noted, these domains are so overlapping that in reality it is difficult to isolate one specific type of behaviour from another. However, they provide a useful framework for understanding management education objectives.

2.2.4. Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness

With the recent concern for reform and the adoption of new managerialism in the public, as well as private sector organisations, much attention has been given to the effectiveness of the senior managers and their performance by theorists, management researchers, developers and practitioners, in developed, developing countries (DCs) and traditional economies (TEs) (Copeman, 1971;

Kotter, 1982; McCall and Lombardo, 1983; Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984; Kinggundo, 1989). This organisational phenomenon, illusive in nature (Moers and Wagner, 1978), has been known and labelled as a concept which is difficult to quantify (Brodie and Bennet, 1979), and even more difficult to measure (Dunnette, 1971; Drucker, 1988), yet it is often talked about and has also attracted much interest from lateral and multi-lateral agencies, as well as being acknowledged by serious researchers such as Mintzberg (1973), Langford (1979), Margerison (1984), the World Bank (1994) and Analoui (1999).

Managerial effectiveness within DCs and TEs, however, has hitherto evolved mainly around, not the managers, but the organisational setting (Charsley, 1986; Mullins, 1993) social, cultural and political contexts (Jones, 1988; Kiggundo, 1989; Analoui 1997; 1999, 2003), and has been debated within the boundaries of an open system theory (Willcocks, 1992). The recent surge of interest from academia points to the managers' own choices, and the contentious issue that managers' performance is inevitably contingent upon and affected by the casual and behavioural influences within their immediate and wider socio-economic and cultural setting (Stewart, 1982; 1991). This includes their perception and understanding of what constitutes effectiveness in a particular context (Kakabadse et al., 1987; Analoui, 1999).

Senior managers and officials are believed to make a major contribution towards the well-being and development of their nations in a particular economy (World Bank, 1991; Blunt, 1992; Labbaf and Analoui, 1996; Kiggundo, 1989). The questions and issues which have not been adequately addressed, especially within DCs' and TCs' contexts, concern the causes and sources of influences, including the managers' own perception, which influence the degree of

effectiveness of the individual senior managers and executives and arguably their organisation and nations as a whole.

Analoui (1999, 2003) argued that despite the considerable attention given to managers and their effectiveness in the last few decades, a great deal of confusion, misunderstanding and concern still surrounds the subject. He continued to say that recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the public sector to the realisation of the growth and development of the developing world. Therefore, following empirical research on managerial effectiveness in a number of developing countries, he developed a model of eight parameters of managerial effectiveness. He therefore identified the casual and behavioural influences that determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers. The eight "parameters" of managerial effectiveness are:

1. The senior managers' perception;
2. Skills and knowledge;
3. Organisational criteria;
4. Motivation for effectiveness;
5. Constraints and difficulties;
6. Choices and opportunities;
7. Inter-organisational relationships; and
8. The dominant managerial philosophy.

Analoui (2003: 367) stated that 'these parameters pointed to individual but also internal and other external contextual factors which determined the senior managers' effectiveness'.

In this respect and as explained in the introduction chapter, this study attempts to examine and test the above eight parameters of managerial effectiveness in

two major car manufacturing plants in Iran. Analoui's model will be used as a basis for exploring awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational standards, motivations, degree of demands and constraints, and presence of choices and opportunities for effectiveness in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. Each of the parameters is explained below.

2.2.4.1. Managerial Perception (First Parameter)

In Analoui's research, the senior managers and officials of public sector organisations were asked to describe an effective manager. The question was aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager should possess. The responses ranged from "ability to supervise", "being a good leader", to "being concerned with deadlines", "honest", "experienced" and "able to deliver goods on time".

The descriptions they provided varied according to the type of organisation the managers belonged to. Such perceptions also represent the characteristics of a manager whom they often refer to as "ideal". In this respect the question is; do managers say something about themselves or do they describe an ideal manager? The data collection will indicate that on the whole, managers have in mind an image of an effective manager whom they wish to be or more importantly who they wish their superior to do. It is particularly interesting to discover that in situations where the managerial control is complete and which leaves little room for expression of discontent, the managers will use such occasions (of using questionnaires or interviews) to describe how they feel about their organisations and their immediate superiors.

The more senior the managers, the easier they will find it to provide a description of who and what they will think an effective manager should be. In his study of this parameter, Analoui (1999) concluded that 'the impression given is that it is not enough to be able to get the job done, simply because managerial positions also require the ability to work with people. The fact that most managers were critical of the way they were being managed or the way things are in their organisation is indicative of their frustration and dismay with the present system within the public sector.'

2.2.4.2. The Need for Managerial Skills (Second Parameter)

Analoui asked the senior managers and executives to suggest between three and five managerial skills, in order of priority to them, which in their view are essential for ensuring the increase in effectiveness. He states that 'the responses collected were weighted according to their corresponding order of priority. A total of 32 levels of skills and expertise were identified' (Analoui, 1999: 369). He found that the senior managers had different descriptions of skills. Depending on the priority assigned to them by the senior managers the skills were categorised into five major skill categories, which will be explained later.

Further analysis showed that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities that were reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important skills were associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones. Other skills such as delegation, being a good planner, organising ability, good human relations and leadership skills are an indication of the fact that senior managers were more in need of "interpersonal" and "analytical skills" rather than "informational" and "decisional" as had been described in the available literature.

Analoui (1999, 2003) noticed that three important issues had emerged from his data. These are:

1. There seemed to be a similarity between the characteristics attributed to an effective manager and the skills that were considered to be required to remain effective. The consistency in the responses given had important implications for the way managers perceive themselves and others, in particular their superiors.
2. People-related and analytical skills seemed to be the most important skills required by managers for their effectiveness at work. While most skills tended to equip the managers to become more successful in their interaction with others, the self-related skills were needed in order to compensate for the lack of attention and supervision that was expected by them.
3. Again the responses were partly expressing the managers' expectation of others, in particular the leadership of the organisation, and partly providing what they thought were the main ingredients for being effective. Data generated through interviews indicated that in most cases respondents felt that possession of such skills would "hopefully" lead to more effectiveness at work but in reality they felt that the situation might never change. In many cases the list of skills provided appeared to be projection rather than accurate self-assessment.

Therefore, in discussing this second parameter, Analoui (1999; 2003) concluded that the responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in developed and developing countries. Senior managers

become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because the awareness is there that one cannot be effective unless he or she can work with or through people, namely colleagues, peers and subordinates. It is not surprising then to realise that senior managers require as much if not more “management development” than “management”.

2.2. 4.3. Organisational Criteria (Third Parameter)

In Analoui’s (1999) study of managerial effectiveness in the public sector, senior managers were asked about the criteria for effectiveness in their organisations. As expected, in each organisation a different list of factors was produced. Evidently, each organisation, because of the cultural specifications derived from the nature of its work, its history and size etc, tended to support the basis for a particular way of working and standard with which effectiveness would be measured.

Analoui (1999) states that, ‘from a list of 38 criteria used to determine effectiveness, the ten most widely used important to “increased productivity” (8.2) the last in the list of priorities. Meeting targets usually referred to what was expected from the employees. In organisations such as EPA (Environment Protection Agency), research institutes CSIR (Council for Scientific and Industrial Research) and GAEC (Ghana Atomic Energy Commission), periodically projects were discussed and targets were set. Most senior and executive managers expressed the opinion that the most important indicator to them of their effectiveness was that their staff were achieving targets. However, it became clear that targets were often “set” for the subordinates, with little degree of involvement in the setting of those targets on the part of the employees concerned’ (Analoui, 1999: 371). Also, criteria such as “publication” may appear to be unusual as the

second most important factor for determining effectiveness from an organisation's point of view.

2.2. 4.4. Motivation (Fourth Parameter)

As suggested earlier, in order to understand effectiveness, attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, in particular the motive behind the actions undertaken by managers. The analysis of Analoui's (1999) quantitative data revealed that the motivators were those factors that were not already present at work. He, therefore, stated that 'all managers reported that their effectiveness was adversely affected by the low level of remuneration since they had to "think about" how to compensate and balance for the lack of it, and/or spend time outside of the organisation, often on "projects of some sort" to feed their family' (Analoui, 1999: 374). This reveals that top management show deep dissatisfaction with the "worsening situation". "How can we [senior managers] motivate our employees? We have no control over it at all". It was therefore understood that employees from time to time needed to "earn some money". Hence, their absence from the organisation was not complained about seriously (Analoui, 1999: 374).

On average, it was reported that the monthly salary of a manager was only to "take care of a third of their monthly expenses". Almost all managers had to supplement their monthly remuneration with some sort of second earning, which in many cases took them away from their workplace and even periodically from their country (Analoui, 1999: 374). The most interesting point, however, is the one that goes beyond "remuneration" or in this case the lack of it. Motivators, such as "recognition from superiors", "job satisfaction" and "training and self-development" were reported as the main motivating factors towards effectiveness.

Thus, these and other remaining factors such as “promotion” and good teamwork seemed to be symptomatic of the following issues.

1. The reward system within the public sector acted as a demotivator and adversely affected their effectiveness at work.
2. Managers felt that they did not receive recognition for work well done.
3. The managerial style adopted by the top management was responsible for the low performance of managers at lower levels.
4. Job satisfaction, especially among scientists, seemed to be the most important motivator for remaining in their posts.
5. Achievement of targets set also added to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acted as a motivator in their work. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work found the challenge to be motivating and the main reason for their effectiveness at work.
6. The provision of resources and teamwork were both found to work as motivators.

Analoui (1999) concluded that ‘it was interesting to note that what was expressed to be motivators were indeed the problem areas and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. Devaluation of the currency, inflation, a substantial decline in the purchasing power of the managers together with organisational structural reform adds to the worsening situation as far as the motivation for effectiveness is concerned’ (Analoui, 1999: 374).

2.2.4.5. The Degree of “Demands” and “Constraints” (Fifth Parameter)

Analoui (2003) stated that it is difficult if not impossible to deal with the issue of effectiveness at work without considering the “constraints and demands” with which managers are faced. Realistically, managers are not free floating agents, allowed to do what they desire. In almost all organisations, there are inhibiting forces that slow down the progress and need to be managed, removed or negotiated. In line with an open systems approach towards understanding managers, their work and effectiveness, the managers were asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work.

In this respect, Analoui pointed out that the ‘analysis of the data provided a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse effect on the effectiveness of the managers, though managers in each organisation naturally experienced different sets of difficulties’ (Analoui, 1999: 376). These difficulties are: inappropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/or inappropriate training, poor remuneration, lack of motivation and a lack of teamwork. Therefore, he concluded that the constraints and demands experienced by the managers, whether those identified or those that were never mentioned, leave the managers with very little chance to determine their own level of effectiveness.

2.2.4.6. Presence of “Choices” and “Opportunities” for Effectiveness (Sixth Parameter)

Stewart (1982; 1991) suggested that the choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. In Analoui ‘s (1999: 380) study of managerial effectiveness in the public sector, a total of 35 factors related to the choices available to managers had been identified, from which the ten most important ones are listed:

- (1) Training (self),
- (2) On-the-job training,
- (3) Part-time study,
- (4) Necessary resources/equipment,
- (5) Teamwork/co-operation,
- (6) Better remuneration,
- (7) Funding,
- (8) More appropriate staff,
- (9) Visit other units/establishments, and
- (10) Effective/regular communication.

The responses of the senior managers point to solutions and ways of dealing with the present situation in order to become more effective. Opportunities are in a sense related to demands and constraints. The presence of constraints and demands forces senior managers to think of a “way out”. Unfortunately, in most cases senior managers revealed that training, part-time study, full-time secondments, and visits abroad including attending seminars, conferences and other scientific venues were seen, by the organisation, as ultimately enabling the senior managers to move up, move away or one day be able to work for international agencies. The presence of “role-culture” and lack of motivation “has forced” some managers “to think of themselves”. Therefore, the exploration of choices was perceived as being available to them indirectly showed the presence of a strong belief in what would only be regarded as the main reason for “person-cultures” (Analoui, 1999).

2.2.4.7. Nature of Inter-Organisational Relationships (Seventh Parameter)

In Analoui’s (1999) study, implicit and explicit remarks were frequently made when the overall subject of managerial effectiveness was being discussed. In this

respect, Analoui stated that 'all respondents saw their effectiveness as being affected, if not determined, by the overall effectiveness of the organisation' (Analoui, 1999: 382). Furthermore he adds 'it was evident that the respondents were aware that there is a two-way relationship between their effectiveness and the organisation that was determined partly by their organisation's relationship with other organisations and agencies, both nationally and internationally' (Analoui, 1999: 383).

2.2.4.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (Eight Parameter)

It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organisation does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed, and generally it influences the flow of information and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organisation. The leadership of the organisation provides the standard for the patterns of behaviour and therefore has proven to be a decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the organisation.

In Analoui's (1999) discussion of the eighth parameter, he states that 'the data, whether in qualitative or quantitative form, has been tainted by the presence of this influence of the managerial philosophy and style of top executives and its related agencies' (Analoui, 1999: 386). The traditional preference for "politically correct administration" as opposed to management resulted in many instances in the ineffectiveness of the individual managers and the organisations as a whole.

Ultimately, the degree to which the executives and senior managers adhered to traditional management, or to correct administration principles varied from one organisation to another. In this respect, Analoui pointed out that 'apart from a few top senior managers and executives who did feel that there is a need for change of

attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training or the adoption of participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work' (Analoui, 1999: 386).

2. 3. Part Three: Hierarchy of Managerial Skills and Effectiveness

2.3.1. Managerial knowledge, Skills and Performance

The role of leaders in traditional organizations was one of functional expertise in specific work-related areas. As the paradigm and pattern of the work shifted from high control to high involvement, their responsibilities have also shifted. Managers in high performing organizations are required to develop an entirely new set of skills to be successful. Historically, they have been expected to plan, organize, direct and control. In a high performing organization, they are expected to provide visionary leadership, to pursue tenaciously excellence and to set free team energy. Analoui's writing on the hierarchy of managerial skills and effectiveness considers the following issues; 'do managers require specific knowledge and skills in order to remain effective? If so, what categories of managerial skills do they require and more importantly does the position which a senior manager occupies in the hierarchy of seniority influence the need for the acquisition of certain types of skills more than others?' (Analoui 1997: 52). For managers to develop work agendas, act out roles, and engage in planning, organizing, leading and controlling, they need a sound knowledge base and key management skills.

2.3.2. The Knowledge Base

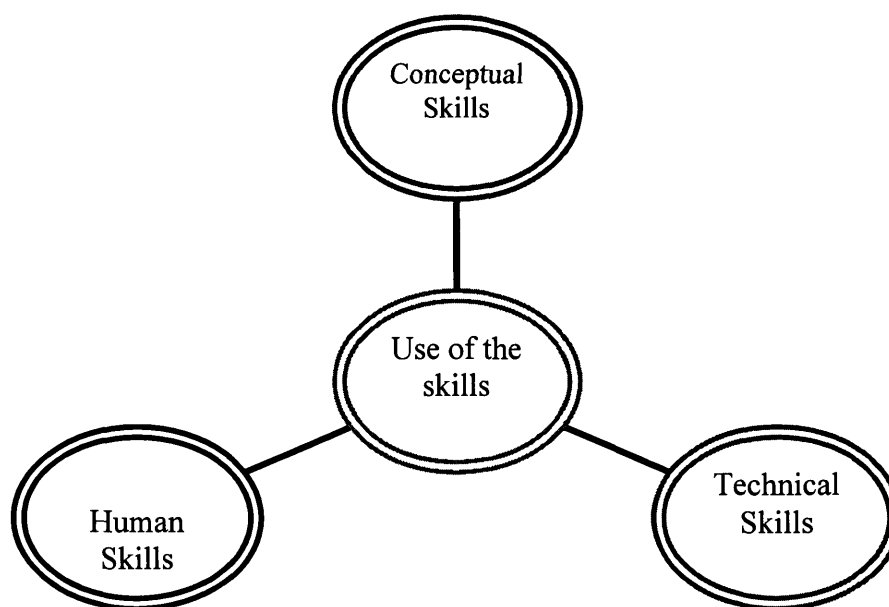
Although managers often switch companies and work in different industries, they are likely to run into difficulties if they do not have a reasonably extensive

knowledge base relevant to their particular managerial work. A knowledge base can include information about an industry and its technology, company policies and practices, company goals and plans, company culture, the personalities of key organisation members, and important suppliers and customers. For example, Kotter (1982) found that one reason why the general managers in his study were able to accomplish and achieve so much within short periods of time was because they could take action with only small bits of information at their disposal. Their extensive knowledge base enabled them to attach the appropriate meaning to the information fragments they obtained.

2.3.3. Key Management Skills

In addition to having a knowledge base, managers need certain skills to carry out the various functions of management. A skill is the ability to engage in a set of behaviours that are functionally related to one another and that lead to a desired performance level in a given area (Boyatzis, 1982). For managers, three types of skills are necessary: technical, human and conceptual (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 2.4. Use of the skills



Sources: adapted from Katz (1974: 94)

2.3.4. Major Classifications of Managerial Skills

The issues of managerial work, skills and competencies have always been the main reason behind the tremendous academic efforts that have been aimed at satisfying the needs of the management educators and developers. Moreover, very few attempts have been made to conceptualise the training and development needs of the senior managers into a rational framework. A number of writers notably, Mintzberg (1973), Katz (1974), Boyatzis (1982), and Whetten and Cameron, (1984, 1991) focused their attention on defining what it is that managers do as they perform their function, what roles they are required to perform and what skills made for their effectiveness in managerial performance. It is important to note however, that the developers of such taxonomies do not claim that their work is the 'final word' on the skills needed for managerial effectiveness. Thus, no

required managerial skills. A brief description of the major taxonomies that have been introduced in conjunction with managerial skills is presented below.

2.3.4.1. Classic Taxonomy

Katz (1974) stated that the taxonomy of managerial skills was probably the first major classification of the skills, which were thought to be required by all managers. In his classical article, *Skills of an Effective Administrator*, which was first published in Harvard Business Review in 1974, Katz showed concern for the sets of skills that managers needed for their increased effectiveness. His approach was primarily based on what effective managers can do and not on what they are. In this way, he utilised his accumulated experience in working with and studying managers. In his view, the definition of a skill is that of 'ability which can be developed and which is manifested in performance, not merely in potential, the ability to translate knowledge into practice' (Katz 1974: 94). From this point of view a model for increasing managerial effectiveness and development as the whole, ought to include managerial abilities.

Katz's management training and development model and his taxonomy of managerial skills is well recognized throughout the literature and is incorporated into most textbooks on management and organizational behaviour (Wexley, 1977; Stoner, 1978; Szilagyi, 1981; Schermerhorn, 1984; Mullins, 1993). Katz's approach to management development is based on what effective executives can do, the kind of skills that they exhibit in carrying out their job effectively, and not on what they are, their innate traits and characteristics. He was mostly concerned with the skills that managers needed to do their jobs effectively. It is assumed that a manager/administrator is one who directs the activities of other people and undertakes the responsibility for achieving certain objectives through their efforts.

In Katz's view, the required managerial abilities are conceptualised in terms of three basic observable interrelated sets of skills that he called: technical, human, and conceptual. He wrote:

"I now realize more fully that managers at all levels require some competence in each of the three skills. A clear idea of these skills and of ways to measure a manager's competence in each category still appears to me to be a most effective tool for top management, not only in understanding executive behaviour, but also in the selection, training and promotion of managers at all levels" (Katz 1974: 102).

These skills are briefly described in the following sections.

2.3.4.1.1. Technical Skills

Technical skills are skills that reflect both an understanding of and a proficiency in a specialised field. For example, a manager may have technical skills in accounting, finance, engineering, and manufacturing or computer science. In other words, technical skills are related to the technical aspects of the managers' job. These skills are related to activities that are concerned with achieving the organisations' mission. Skills include the abilities to follow a process with proficiency and expertise by using tools, techniques and procedures in a specific field. It is often argued that technical skills are primarily used by the managers located on the lower levels of the hierarchy of the organisational structure who are concerned with the application of specialised knowledge in the process of producing the goods and services.

2.3.4.1.2. Human Skills

Human or people skills are skills associated with a manager's ability to work well with others, both as a member of a group and as a leader who gets things done through others. Managers with effective human skills are typically adept at communicating with others and motivating them to develop themselves and

perform well in search of organisational goals. In other words, these skills are seen as a necessity for senior managers and executives. The possession of these skills will enable them to work effectively alongside, co-operate with, understand, motivate and lead other people either individually or in groups. Human skills are demonstrated when people perceive and begin to understand others and subsequently behave accordingly and take appropriate actions. That is to say, such skills emerge as a spirit of trust, enthusiasm and real involvement in interpersonal relations. These, in managerial terms, involve the ability to delegate as well as train and develop subordinates and staff. In this context, human skills are used to appraise the situation and individuals effectively and then attempt to guide and even control the behaviour of employees towards a better and improved performance. Human skills, as reported by Mintzberg and many other writers recently, are essential to fulfil the 'interpersonal roles' of managers.

2.3.4.1.3. Conceptual Skills

Conceptual skills are skills related to the ability to visualise the organisation as a whole, tell the difference between interrelationships among organisational parts, and understand how the organisation fits into the wider context of industry, community and the world. Conceptual skills, together with technical skills, human skills and a knowledge base, are important factors in organisational performance.

2.3.4.2. Crucial Managerial Skills

Livingston (1971) opposed the conventional thinking about education and development of management and argued that there is no direct relationship between performance in business school or training programme and successful performance of managers at work. However, in a controversial, article entitled, 'Myth of Well-Educated Manager', he suggested that highly capable managers

with potential do not have to rely on formal education to ensure their success in their careers. He referred to formal management education as 'mis-education' that somehow distorts the ability of managers and their careers. He further argued that formal education systems often neglect to teach students the crucial abilities upon which their success depends, in the hope that they will acquire those skills that are essential to their success on the job but which, in reality, may be extremely difficult for them to achieve. He proposed four crucial management skills for managers; problem solving, problem finding, opportunity finding and the ability to develop a natural management style. A summary of these skills is discussed below.

2.3.4.2.1. Problem-Solving Skills

Livingston (1971) argued that conventional management education teaches the students the theoretical aspects of decision-making and not the practical implications in real situations. Students do not learn how to carry out their decisions or even to plan realistically for their implementation. They need the skills that enable them to solve the problems they face on a daily basis.

2.3.4.2.2. Problem-Finding Skills

Livingston (1971) believed that managerial effectiveness depends more on conceptual skills than on analytical skills and that perceptual skills are required to find problems long before they occur. This kind of skill can be acquired more effectively through first hand experience on the job. Managers are expected to be able to find the problems and deal with them effectively.

2.3.4.2.3. Opportunity-Finding Skills

A manager's opportunity-finding skills come first when long-term successes are the objectives. Managers who lack this ability will often spend their time doing the wrong things. The way to obtain this skill, according to Livingston (1971) is only through practice in real job situations.

2.3.4.2.4. Natural Management Style Skills

Opportunities are not exploited nor are problems solved until someone takes action. However, each manager must learn to take action in his/her own individual way. A way each manager takes action is consistent with his/her own personality. Livingston (1971) suggested that these abilities can and should be taught, while at the same time he argued that certain characteristics of effective management are almost impossible to teach. These characteristics are personal qualities, which people develop long before they enter management-training programmes. According to Livingston, there are three such qualities associated with successful managers:

- 1. The Need to Manage.** Only those who want to exert influence on the performance of others and who derive satisfaction when they do so are likely to become effective managers.
- 2. The Need for Power.** Good managers have a need for the ability to influence others. To do this they do not rely on the formal authority of their positions but on their superior knowledge and skill.
- 3. The Capacity to Empathise.** The effective manager also needs the ability to understand and cope with the often-unexpressed emotional reactions of others in the organisation in order to win their co-operation.

2.3.4.3. Skills of Effective Managers

Mintzberg (1989) showed much concern about the way management was taught at business schools. He echoed Livingston's criticism of management education and concluded that 'the management school gives students a M.B.A. or M.P.A. degree; it does not in fact teach them how to manage' (Mintzberg 1989: 187). He advocated that management should be taught as specific sets of skills associated with the actual work of management. He argued that 'just as the medical student must learn diagnosis and the engineering student must learn design so also must the student of management learn leadership, negotiation, disturbance handling and other managerial skills' (Mintzberg 1989:188). He added that 'one way to determine what skills managers need is to analyse the roles they perform' (Mintzberg 1989: 189). Based on his research he suggested the following eight sets of managerial skills that he believed are directly related to the ten roles explained earlier. These are:

2.3.4.3.1. Peer Skills

This is the ability of the manager to enter into and efficiently maintain peer relationships. Peer skills include other skills such as communication, negotiation, consulting and a whole set of political skills associated with conflicts in big bureaucracies. These skills enable managers to build a network of information sources, communicate with colleagues, negotiate with peers and develop political skills within one's own group.

2.3.4.3.2. Leadership Skills

The ability of a manager to motivate, train, guide and provide help for their subordinates. Leadership skills enable managers to deal effectively with subordinates. It includes effective delegation of authority and the giving of

sufficient freedom to facilitate growth and development of subordinates. Leadership skills, although very much dependent on innate personality, are best developed by participatory training.

2.3.4.3.3. Conflict-Resolution Skills

This is the ability of managers to act as a mediator and negotiator between individuals in conflict. It also includes one other interpersonal skill, the decisional skill of handling disturbances. In using both these skills, the manager learns how to manage stress effectively. Although they are important at all levels of management, conflict resolution skills are especially important at top level where stress is likely to be tense.

2.3.4.3.4. Information-Processing Skills

The ability to find and disseminate information requires learning where to get information, how to get it, and how to use it effectively. It involves building and maintaining information networks, seeking out sources of information and validating them.

2.3.4.3.5. Decision-Making Skills

This is the ability to make decisions in unstructured situations. Regarding the characteristics of top management decision-making, management students should learn the reality of decision-making under ambiguity. It requires a diagnosis of the estimation as well as finding and analyzing alternatives and their future consequences.

2.3.4.3.6. Resource-Allocation Skill

This is the ability of managers to choose from among competing resource demands and allocate their own time as well as the time and the work of their subordinates. Resource allocation skills are required once the decision has been made. It calls for the executive's time to be properly allocated between projects and demands.

2.3.4.3.7. Entrepreneurial Skills

This is the ability to search for problems and opportunities, and to bring about a controlled implementation of change. When acquired, entrepreneurial skills enable senior managers to find problems and opportunities, as well as assuming responsibility for implementation of change within the organisation.

2.3.4.3.8. Skills of Introspection

This is referred to as the ability to understand one's own job and learn through observing how his/her and others behaviours are effecting the organisation. It is the ability of managers to judge adequately their impact on the organisation. When developed, this can allow the managers to learn from their own experience.

It should be noted that both Katz's human and conceptual skills categories seem to have been included in Mintzberg eight skills categories. However, Katz's 'technical skills' category has not been included in Mintzberg's classifications.

2.3.5. Towards an Integrated Model of Managerial Skills

Based on three recent studies of senior managers' training and development needs, Analoui (1999, 2003) introduced a three-dimensional model for the training

and development of senior managers. Analoui adopted a 'descriptive' approach to the understanding the managers' jobs and their required skills for increased effective performance. The descriptive approach is primarily concerned with what managers actually do and what their real training and development needs are. This approach is in fact in contrast with the traditional 'prescriptive' approach that is based on a mechanistic philosophy that views individual managers as passive agents who are only responsive to some external stimuli. Analoui (1993, 1995, 1997) suggests that there appears to be a perceived hierarchy of skills for senior managers. He incorporated this concept of a hierarchy of skills into an integrated model of management training and development in which three categories of managerial skills are identified as necessary for the successful performance of senior managers: 1) Analytical and self-related skills, 2) People related skills, and 3) Task-related skills (Analoui, 1997: 77). Based on the findings of the three studies he carried out in Zimbabwe, Ghana and India, Analoui (1997, 1999, 2003) argued that the more senior the position in which the senior managers performs, the more their needs are for 'people-related' and 'analytical-self development' as opposed to task-related skills.

According to Analoui (1997), task-related skills are those that enable managers to manage the work effectively by determining objectives, forecasting, planning and organizing the tasks involved. These may include a range of managerial skills and knowledge that are specific to the nature of the task. In addition to this there may be a set of other skills and knowledge that are general in nature such as managing the financial aspects of the organisation and knowledge of working with computers. Likewise, the category of people-related skills, which are essential for managing people, may include communication, handling conflict, motivating, and leading, appraising and developing people. Although conceptual in nature, the analytical and self-development grouping of Analoui's model takes into account a

set of important skills which are essential, self-management and the development of one's own potential, as well as the ability to make decisions and solve problems creatively, all of which has been proven to be vital for the effective performance of senior managers.

2.4. Conclusion

One can realise from what has already been demonstrated in this chapter that managerial effectiveness is a complex multi-faceted organisational phenomenon. The "awareness" shown and the required abilities and competencies alone cannot sufficiently explain the nature of managerial effectiveness. However, when senior managers are under careful study and consideration of what is actually needed by them becomes the focal point. This chapter puts forward the assumption that the participant senior managers are generally well aware of the importance of management development training and the achievement of managerial skills as the most appropriate means for intensifying their managerial effectiveness.

Nevertheless, what might be considered as the classical view in this context is mostly concerned with the nature of management functions such as forecasting, organising, motivating, co-ordinating and controlling. In other words, by looking at the nature of managerial work from different standpoints, it appears to be a series of functions, and various sets of knowledge and skills to increase effectiveness and efficiency. This approach seems to be more functional than those who attempt to understand the nature of the work which managers undertake, especially senior managers. In spite of the fact that, managerial functions, roles, demands, constraints and choices play a major part in understanding managers' behaviour at work, their awareness of their own need for effectiveness and ways to achieve this, requires careful consideration.

The concept of managerial effectiveness remains one of the essential topics, which continues to hold the interest of management scholars and researchers. The literature review highlights different literary evidence that suggests that, personal and career development skills are increasingly important for the effectiveness of senior managers.

The ways in which traditional concepts of managerial work were conceived and applied have become unrealistic and unhelpful. It has become evident that generalisation about managerial activities is likely to be substantially incorrect for any particular manager or group of managers. Substantial variations in what is deemed to be required managerial behaviour and skills have emerged. Despite the similarities in the activities and the functions of management, managerial work has been seen to differ widely with respect to individuals, and organisational and development changes. Empirical studies suggest that managerial jobs are subject to dynamic changes. The analysis of the managerial work therefore, must take into consideration the diversity of the nature of jobs and account for such differences.

The review of the literature has revealed the fact that managerial work is multifaceted and requires managers, in particular senior managers, to deal effectively with work, people and themselves. Senior managers consider self and career development as aspects of their job. The conventionally designed and structured management training and development programmes, with emphasis on the task-related aspects of the job, appear to be not so beneficial for those who are located in the middle, upper and senior positions, as they are for those who occupy junior managerial positions.

Management training and development programmes should be specifically designed, depending on the level of seniority and position held by the trainees, to

meet effectively the people-related aspects of the jobs. According to a consensus reached by reviewing the sources in this field, management development can best be seen as a learning process, closely related to management training and education. Management development relies on a variety of methods for its implementation. The effectiveness of those methods in turn depends on the nature of the skill, knowledge or attitude to be imparted, and the preferred learning style of the individual managers. It is concluded therefore, that managerial effectiveness can be improved through effective management development programmes, which provide their participants with the appropriate knowledge and skills that are required for creating a certain kind of attitudes and behaviour.

As far as developing countries are concerned, the review of the literature, notably the three studies by Analoui (1997, 1999, and 2003), points to the fact that management development is and must be viewed as a learning process aimed at endowing managers with the right kind of knowledge and skills. In addition, it must be employed as a means by which managers' abilities are developed in the context of the required knowledge and skills to confront the continual changes and challenges that they face in their jobs. More importantly, they should be viewed as a strategy to enhance and increase the pace of socio-economic development.

Despite the considerable attention given to managers and their effectiveness in the last few decades, a great deal of confusion and concern still surrounds the subject. Recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the public sector to the realisation of the growth and development of the developing world. The aim and analysis of the eight parameters of managerial effectiveness is to identify the causal and behavioural influences that determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the public sector. The results point to the

presence of factors that constitute “parameters” of effectiveness at work. The primary purposes of the eight parameters are:

1. To identify the different behavioural and causal variables necessary to determine the effectiveness of managers/officials within DCs’ institutions and organisations;
2. To elaborate on the construction and future use of appropriate methods to be used for the collection and generation of relevant data concerning managerial effectiveness in different cultural contexts.

There is also a need for consideration of other parameters such as individual and organisational criteria, and the motivation, constraints and demands that determine the choices of behaviours and the degree of effectiveness in a particular context. The eight parameters of effectiveness within public sector organisations point to a mirror image of the characteristics of each dimension. That is to suggest, what forms the motivation for greater effectiveness is also indicative of what the constraints and demands are which control, inhabit or completely paralyse the individual concerned. The perception of the individual managers of their own and their colleagues’ effectiveness is also related to the skills and abilities attributed to effective managers. And, most important of all, the organisation’s expectation of its managers is reflected in the nature of the criteria for effectiveness that is held by the organisation.

This is certainly very much related to the core of the research that seeks an explanation for the development of senior managers. The explanatory framework, which is discussed in detail in the subsequent chapter, is in line with the above recent theoretical developments in this field.

In the next chapter therefore, attempts will be made to present and provide a framework of analysis for the research into senior managers training and development needs.

CHAPTER THREE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter describes and analyses the process of synthesising and creates the literary evidence drawn from the literature in an attempt to construct a conceptual framework of analysis which could provide a basis for application in so far as senior management are and their overall effectiveness is concerned. In this chapter the senior managers' views, perceptions and preferences for their increased effectiveness are explored. Furthermore, the premise for the importance of self-management as the core of managerial effectiveness is put forward and the research hypotheses are formulated. The exploratory nature of this research, the conceptual framework of the present study is presented in this chapter. In order to achieve this objective, first the premise for managerial effectiveness will be explored and its consequences on organisational success are argued. This will be followed by a discussion of the conceptual framework of the research. Conclusions will be drawn from the review of empirical evidence on the nature of managerial work to include the diversity of the work and the complexity of the job environment. A brief review of the aspects of managerial work will then provide the basis on which the framework of this research and the determinants of a model are built. The model that has been adopted for this research will be further explained. And finally, the main hypotheses of the research are presented.

The mechanistic approach to the study of managers and their jobs, as explained in the last chapter, has for a long time placed stress on functions as opposed to what managers actually do. Therefore, it is not surprising to see that the underlying assumptions of the researchers and writers in management in

relation to ontology, epistemology, human nature and the methodology paints a prescriptive portrait of them. Often, their managerial needs were spelt out, and these were in relation to work and the organisation in a closed system approach rather than their potential to fulfil their roles in order to maximize effectiveness. Today, a managers' work is viewed in terms of fulfilling a series of roles that are being affected by the realities of demands, constraints and consequently the nature of choice open to them for action (Stewarts, 1983, 1991; Kakabadse *et al*, 1987).

Recent empirical studies have paid more attention to various aspects of the managerial work. Yet still, little is known about the importance of the managerial skills, abilities and experience in contributing to the success of senior managers (Margerison, 1984:1). In other words, while it has been accepted that senior managers do perform roles and require certain skills and abilities to carry out their roles and duties effectively, nevertheless, it is observed that there is a tendency to adopt a prescriptive rather than a descriptive approach towards identifying what they need to be effective. A true assessment of management training and development needs ought to consider managers as the focal point. As a result, the methodology to be employed should reflect the reality of the managers and not our projected needs for them (1989; Mullins, 1993; Analoui, 1997, 1999 and 2003).

3.1. Senior Managers' Effectiveness and Perceptions of Organisational Success

It has been taken for granted that management creates the critical link between economic progress, organisational effectiveness and people's performance (Farmer and Richman, 1965; Drucker 1974; Ndegwa *et al*, 1987). Management is increasingly viewed as an integrating activity through which human and

material resources are coordinated for the achievement of organisational goals. Viewing management in this way establishes management as the foundation of organisational effectiveness (Mullins, 1993). From this standpoint, management is also responsible for directing people and resources toward achieving the greatest results and contribution to the attainment of organisational objectives. This places heavy responsibility on managers and at the same time demands a high level of skills and competencies from them.

Managers are, therefore, universal to all types of organisations and can be viewed as persons whose efforts can result in performance gains or losses depending on how well organisational resources are utilised. However, it is not useful to know only that their differences in perception will inevitably lead to different needs and abilities in order to remain effective, rather it is regarded as a process, in which senior managers' perception is concerned.

Selecting, organising and interpreting external sensory stimuli and information into terms and categories those are consistent with their own frames of references and personal views of the world (Kakabadse et al., 1987: 75).

It can be argued in this respect that managerial work is the most significant factor in determining an organisation's success or failure (Robins, 1980). In this regard, the role of the senior managers' effectiveness, their perception and organisational success have been considerably more important than the overall success of their organisations and the development of their nations (Onah, 1981). Perception, therefore, not only allows us to select and filter the masses of information that we have to deal with on a daily basis but also provides the basis for communicating, understanding and relating to others. This is of extreme importance to senior managers in their positions within the hierarchy of their organisation.

In managerial terms, an interaction with others and/or situations will involve the 'perceived', the 'perceiver' and the 'situation' in which the understanding or misunderstanding, for that matter, is likely to occur. It is suggested that external factors such as physical appearance, verbal and social cues, and motor behaviours tend to firm up impressions of others in first social interactions. Often people place judgment on others based on the externally perceived cues and behavioural indicators.

Experience may or may not confirm our view of the world and others and therefore the accumulation of our experiences prepares us to deal with emerging situations with a higher degree of reliability. It is no wonder that senior managers think that experience is one of the most important contributing factors to their effectiveness. As Margerison (1984) reported from his study of chief executives;

'...there is little doubt that they regard practical and challenging experience as the most important factor in management development. As they looked back upon their own careers they felt strongly that they had learnt to become chief executives by responding to challenges and taking work which perhaps at first they found difficult' (Margerison, 1984: 52).

It is also important to consider the senior managers' effectiveness, their perception and organisation success in relation to the external world. This point is of the utmost significance. In other words, the training and development of senior managers has become the focus of much attention during the last two decades (Margerison, 1989). This has posed a challenge for management theorists and developers alike.

In the context of developing countries, there exists a great demand in developing nations for a high level of managerial talent in every aspect of organisational life (Drucker, 1974; Kiggundo, 1989; Kerrigan and Luke, 1987; Mozina, 1982). Management skills and techniques are therefore, required in the management aspects of developing economies, especially in the public sector where positive social, political and economic changes can improve conditions for development. It is noted however, that managerial problems in developing countries are not associated with organisations, its form of ownership, its source of finance and/or the transfer of technology; rather they are related to individual managers, especially those at higher and medium level (UN, 1974). For this reason, the effective operation of an organisation highly depends on the quality of its managerial performance. The training and development of competent managers who can be entrusted with the responsibilities of these organisations will remain a crucial issue in every country. It is therefore argued that,

'Today's managers can not be expected to manage as of right, he has to establish his authority time and time again by proving that he has kept up to date in a rapidly changing economic, technical and industrial relations environment' (Hales, 1986).

It has been suggested, therefore, that no other type of investment in the development of manpower, particularly in developing countries, can be of greater benefit than that of the formation of an effective cadre of senior managers (UN, 1989). It is also suggested that, management development must be regarded as a function of not only corporate policy and training but also as an integral part of organisation design and planning (Margerison, 1980).

3.2. Aspects of Managerial Work and Training Needs

The research for the most effective ways of training and developing senior managers has long been pursued by management trainers and educators in the light of two interrelated questions, “what constitutes a manager’s job?” and “what skills and knowledge contribute to an increase in their effectiveness?”

Since the dawn of human relations, the tendency to regard people as the most important resource of the enterprise has resulted in a major shift in our perception of what a manager’s job is. This shift in our perception has resulted in the managers’ role being seen in terms of dealing with people, albeit being able to resolve conflict, negotiate, motivate and lead towards shared objectives (Katz, 1974; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Huff, 1982).

As described earlier, the classical school of management placed much emphasis on the planning of the work and the technical requirement of the organisation. Management was mainly responsible for the maintenance of the organisation in order to carry out the workload. This generalization led to the emergence of a prescriptive list of managerial skills that was often recommended for increased effectiveness with almost no regard for the real life situations. It was believed that a universally applicable set of skills, knowledge, values and beliefs would enable the managers to organise, maintain, control and design work and the work environment (Handy, 1995). The main concern seemed to have been with the maximization of output. Invariably, it was the ‘task-related’ aspects of the managers’ job that was prescribed as more worthy of consideration.

As the Human Relation movement began to emerge, attention was paid to the importance of social factors at work. The claim made by followers of classical management that there is one best way for managing people and organisations could no longer hold its validity (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The importance of

the people-related aspect of the work was recognised as human relations writers put much emphasis on the wider social aspects and individuals' needs at work. Therefore, managers expected to be trained to possess 'people-related' qualities in order to deal with these new realities. The contributions made by such theorists as Abraham Maslow (1948), Douglas McGregor (1960), Rensis Likert (1961, 1976) and Chris Argyris (1964) represented the types of issues managers must consider when thinking about appropriate and inappropriate leadership styles. In this respect, a shift of emphasis was made possible from achieving harmony to individual's self-actualisation, paving the way for the emergence of development programmes that concentrate on offering opportunities for the integration of individual's objectives into those of the organisation. Management development programmes therefore, changed from just being programmes that dealt with individuals as machinery and equipment that can be shaped to suit the organisation into mature programmes that can realise the reality of that individual and organisation. Schein (1980) expresses this development as:

'Models of development shifted from the engineering model of 'modelling or shaping people to fit the organisation' to more agricultural models of permitting people to flourish according to their innate potential, the obligation of the organisation was to provide sunshine, nutrients, water and other environmental supports' (Schein, 1980: 73).

Together with the development of General Systems Theory by Bertalanffy (1951), and its application in the analysis of work organisation and management by Katz and Kahn (1966), a reconciliation of these earlier approaches was made possible. The works of Woodward (1958), Burns and Stalker (1966) and Lawrence and Lorsh (1969) are also notable for their contribution to bringing about changes to traditional management. This was achieved through paying attention to the managers' job under various circumstances.

The concept of organisation as a 'socio-technical system' emerged, and attention was focused on the total work organisation and the interrelationships between structure, behaviour and other variables provided within the organisation and its environment. It was assumed that managers practice managerial processes differently according to the circumstances they find themselves in. This had far reaching implications for the managers and the ways in which the nature of their jobs and responsibilities were being viewed, as well as the kind of managerial skills and knowledge which managers were required to possess in order to ensure their own development as well as their organisation's survival. Attention is now paid to the nature of the senior managers' job, its requirements and how to improve the manager's ability to manage task, people and the working environment. To cope with the ever-changing environment and in order to effectively deal with different aspects of the job, managers today are expected to possess a combination of the right kind of skills and knowledge.

In this regard the work of Mintzberg (1973), Katz (1974), Boyatzis (1982), Labbaf (1996) and Analoui (1997) are notable. Their work has constituted the very basis for building major taxonomies of managerial skills. We will examine some of the most notable ones below in more detail.

3.3. Managerial Effectiveness and Managerial Skills

There has been a general consensus, as explained earlier, that the prime responsibility of managers is to achieve objectives through coordinating efforts of organisational members and making sure that their every day jobs involve many diverse activities, roles, demands, constraints, and choices. As a result, the question of what contributes to their increased effectiveness has become increasingly significant. The works of prominent writers such as Katz (1955); Mintzberg (1974); Stewart (1982); Boyatzis, (1982); Whetten and Cameron, (1984);

Margerison, (1987b) and Kakabadse (1987) support the view that the question of the right kind of managerial skills is the most effective way to increase senior managers effectiveness. The effectiveness of managerial behaviour is thus, considered to be both a function of knowledge and of relevant skills. In addition to analytical skills, it is argued that managers, in particular senior managers, require skills for managing themselves, other people and their tasks (Kakabadse *et al*, 1987).

As explained in the last chapter, Katz (1974) developed a management development model that incorporated the above basic categories of skills: technical, human, and conceptual. Katz's model however, did not address a set of very important skills, 'Analytical and self development', which are now believed to be highly influential in terms of achieving managerial effectiveness (Margerison, 1984 and Analoui, 1990, 1999 and 2003). Thus, little seems to have been established about the importance of the aspect of self-management, the relevant managerial skills, abilities and their exact contribution to the effectiveness of senior managers.

Moreover, the relevancy and applicability of Western management was very often questioned (Moris, 1977; Sedden, 1985; Jones, 1988). The work of Katz and Mintzberg are representative of western views. However, the question that is often asked is "Is this dominant view also applicable to developing countries like Iran?" Furthermore, there has not been sufficient empirical evidence to support the notion that, similar skills are equally as important and needed by senior managers in developing countries.

A few studies that followed the Katz and Mintzberg line of inquiry seem to be more concerned with the classification of managerial roles than with the

identification of common skills required by managers. Some studies, however, reported the presence of certain similarities with Mintzberg's classification of managerial roles and Katz's categories of managerial skills but there is a need for more evidence in this respect. The work of Analoui (1993, 1997, 1999, 2003) in the Zimbabwean Public Sector, Indian Railways and the public sector in Ghana, not only confirm Katz's categories of managerial skills, but goes further to suggest that essentially three categories of 'analytical-self development', 'people-related', and 'task-related' skills are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers. It is contended here that each of the above broad categories includes a set of managerial skills that are required for effective self-management, people-management and task-management respectively.

3.3.1. Self-Management

The significance of self-management was brought to our attention in the 1970s as a major part of managerial behaviour (Luthans and Davis 1979; Manz and Sims 1980; Margerison 1984; Jones and Woodcock 1985). At the same time, as Luthans and Davis (1979) observed, the aspect of self-management is perhaps the most overlooked area which received very limited attention in management literature or management practices. Looking from the perspective of social learning theory, self-management is viewed as a basic prerequisite for increased managerial effectiveness and it is even referred to as 'the important missing link in managerial effectiveness' (Davis 1979: 43). Based on the above premise, Luthans and Davis (1979) emphasized on the need for acquiring the necessary self-management skills and stated that,

'Observational studies of managerial work suggest that individual managers in highly 'reactive' jobs need some techniques and skills that will allow them to exercise more control over their own behaviour. The ability of managers to manage other individuals or organisational units effectively when their own

behaviour is continually in turmoil is highly suspect. Observational studies indicate that managers do not spend their time in 'other-centred' activities, such as planning, organizing, controlling, motivating or leading. Instead, they spend their time worrying about their own situation and taking care of their own immediate demands. Behavioural self-management is closely related to work that managers actually do when effective managerial action is absolutely necessary', (Davis, 1979: 47).

Luthans and Davis (1979) put forward an argument relating to the pros and cons of self-management. Based on these arguments and with reference to the work of Manz and Sims (1980), Brief and Aldag (1981) presented a summary of the benefits of self-management. These benefits are as follows:

1. Although managers are generally taught how to engage in 'others centred' activities, the majority of their time is often spent in situations in which they need to exercise greater control over their own behaviour.
2. Self-management may result in time and cost savings to the organisation, freeing the hierarchical superior to attend to other issues.
3. Instead of focusing on attitudes, which may have little relationship to behaviour, this approach to behaviour change forces a direct focus on the situation-cognition-behaviour interaction.
4. An emphasis on the interactive nature of organisational behaviour, rather than on simple goal-orientated approaches such as those of expectancy theory or the path-goal theory of leadership, provides a more realistic view of organisational work.

5. By providing an individual rather than group-orientated approach to organisational change and development, behavioural self-management may be more readily transferable to the work place.
6. Behavioural self-management is a more ethically defensible approach to behaviour modification than are such externally imposed programmes as management by objective (MBO) or organisational development (OD).
7. Consideration by the organisation of the relevance of self-management may result in the identification of dysfunctional self-controlling behaviours, such as excessively high goal setting (Brief and Aldag, 1981: 82).

With reference to Brief and Aldag (1981), the formulation of the social cognitive theory presented by Bandura (1974, 1986), has provided the theoretical basis for the recognition of self-management as the most important determinant of effective managerial behaviour. Furthermore, the 'cognitive self' plays an important mediatory role in job satisfaction and organisational behaviour. Locke (1979) recognised this and stated that,

"One of the most unresearched subjects in the area of job attitudes is the individual's view of himself and the way in which this view affects what he seeks for pleasure on the job and how various job conditions and experiences affect him" (Locke, 1979: 325).

In their concluding remarks and based on their research on the successful use of self-management with a wide variety of managers in advertising, retailing, manufacturing and public service settings, in both line and staff positions,

Luthans and Davis (1979) found that a self-management approach had much to offer for increasing managerial effectiveness.

In an effort to provide a holistic picture of what really constitutes effective managerial behaviour Jones and Woodcock (1985) argued that self-management sets a ceiling for managerial effectiveness.

'Managers, who look after themselves, have more energy available for directing the work of others. On the other hand managers who feel stressed, who do not direct their own career development and create situations for their own advancement, waste a lot of time and energy that might otherwise be available for organisational tasks' (Jones and Woodcock, 1985: 43).

To be effective means that managers must first ensure that their self-development is a continuous process through personal and professional growth and have possession of a high degree of self-knowledge, as well as the acquiring sufficient skills required for self-management.

Analyses of data and empirical studies have shown that senior managers are aware of their own management training and development needs. Therefore, can it be construed that predominantly the 'self aspects of the managers' knowledge and awareness can constitute a determining factor in identifying the degree of importance of the task and people aspects of their job? Is the managers' job orientated outwards with emphasis on influencing others and situations, or could it be that the managers' own development constitutes a major aspect of what they do at work? Evidence points to the fact that senior managers are aware of their abilities and weaknesses as well as their strengths and do seek development. In doing so, they spend a large proportion of their energy, efforts and resources, such as time, on this aspect of their job, themselves.

The review of the managerial job characteristics so far suggests that managerial tasks and responsibilities may be divided into three primary areas of management: 1) Managing self, 2) Managing others, and 3) Managing work. This is referred to as 'aspects of management'. Based on the above premise there is also every reason to hold this contention that self-management is the core of managerial effectiveness, and to further conclude that each aspect of management therefore, demands a different set of demonstrable skills from effective managers at all levels.

According to Analoui (1997), the approach is based on a descriptive as opposed to prescriptive philosophy and offers a more realistic view of the nature of the factors that affect senior managers' effectiveness. It is noted that social scientists are usually concerned with two basic research emphases, 'descriptive enquiry and explanatory enquiry' (Forcese and Richer, 1973: 79). This approach, based on the contingency model, recognises the diversity and variety which features in a manager's job (Sayles, 1964; Steward, 1967; Mintzberg, 1974), and makes allowance for the contextual factors which affect the performance of senior managers. It also appreciates the demands and constraints that the managers face in their jobs and accounts for the ever-changing organisational patterns and functions of a senior manager's job (Ashton et al, 1979).

Managers, in particular senior managers, are seen as being aware of the nature and presence of the factors that contribute to their effectiveness and are viewed as being capable of identifying and assessing the parameters of their own effectiveness. This is essentially based on the assumptions that the process of managing consists of the cognitive understanding of the behaviour needed to perform managerial work and the actual ability to perform in an appropriate context. While the person-process-output model of managerial effectiveness,

which was proposed by Campbell et al, (1970: 11), has some value in measuring and evaluating managerial effectiveness, it can not however, include the 'awareness' of the managers (Analoui, 1997, 1999), and not surprisingly tends to ignore the 'consciousness' part of their 'voluntarism' and ability to exercise 'choices' available to them (Reddin, 1974). It is therefore, believed that, 'managers who are aware of what will make them effective are also aware of the limitations and obstacles to their own effectiveness and that a true assessment of what accounts for senior managers' effectiveness should include their views, preference and needs' (Analoui, 1995: 10).

Based on the premise discussed so far, the proposed managerial skills and preferences analysis which has been adopted for this research is constructed on two interrelated dimensions: the recognition of the 'self awareness' of senior managers and the 'self aspect' of the manager's job. This scheme allows for some degree of voluntarism in managerial behaviour, therefore, the framework prescribes to the validity of a set of assumptions which according to a host of management writers and theorists, such as Kirchoff (1977); Willmost (1984); Kakabadse et al (1987); Jones (1988) and Peters (1989) supports the view that the acquisition of the right managerial skills will contribute to the effectiveness of managers.

The review of the major works in the literature concerning managerial skills and effectiveness could be summarized as:

1. Managers are aware of their own effectiveness and the things that affect their effectiveness.
2. Managers can learn from their own experiences and the experiences of others with whom they interact.

3. Managers can become more effective by the acquisition of the skills that are necessary for managing self, managing people and managing task.
4. The managers' perceived required skills for increased effectiveness reveals the aspects of their job believed to play a significant part in their effectiveness.
5. The range of skills which managers perceive as necessary for their increased effectiveness includes those which will consequently enable them to overcome the demands, constraints and choices at work.

3.4. Learning Managerial Skills for Managerial Effectiveness

How can management skills be taught? What teaching methods should be used? Universities attempt to teach management in a wide variety of ways ranging from reviews of research-based literature, to having students experience management in student-created and-run organisations (Waters, 1993: 3). This section summarizes the current knowledge about how to teach managerial skills.

In the process of accomplishing their managerial tasks managers motivate employees to work harder, direct the activities of others, communicate the needed information, initiate changes, and help subordinates become more competent, or resolve conflicts among team members. To be an effective leader, managers must have skills in building power bases, promoting change, motivating others, developing subordinates and managing conflict. It is for this principal reason that managerial skills are classified into three basic categories: 1) Analytical and self-related skills; 2) People-related skills; and 3) Task-related skills. According to Analoui (1993), task-related skills are those that enable managers to effectively manage the work in hand by determining objectives,

forecasting, planning and organizing the tasks involved. These may include a range of managerial skills and knowledge that are specific to the nature of the task performed by them. In addition to this there may be a set of other managerial skills and knowledge that are common in nature such as managing the financial aspects of the organisation and knowledge of working with computers.

People-related skills are essential for managing people at work and may include communication, handling conflict, motivating, and leading, appraising and developing people. Although conceptual in nature, the analytical and self-related skills are essential for effective self-management. This is believed to be a category of self-knowledge that provides for personal growth and expanded awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses (Pedler *et al.*, 1986). These include the assessment and development of one's own potential and performance as well as abilities to make decisions and solve problems creatively, all of which are proven to be vital for the effective performance of senior managers. Analoui (1993: 77) incorporated the three categories of skills into an integrated model of management training and development based on which he suggests that there appears to be a hierarchy of skills for senior managers. His proposition is that there is a direct relationship between the level of seniority and the need for the acquisition of managerial skills. It is also suggested that the more senior the position in which the manager performs, the more his/her needs are for 'people-related' and 'analytical-self development' as opposed to task-related skills. What distinguishes this model from the previous models is its profound emphasis on self-development as the most important aspect in the process of management development. It is argued that self-development and the attempts to achieve it become a part of the career path of people in work organisations. As a part of self-management, self-development requires that managers learn how to assess and develop their own potential and how to effectively use their time and efforts

to achieve personal and organisational goals. From this perspective the manager's career development constitutes an important part of his job. Therefore, as managers progress in their career, the extent of their dependency on task-related skills decreases and their development and effectiveness becomes more a function of analytical and self-related skills as well as people-related skills.

It is difficult to improve ourselves unless we know our strengths and weaknesses. But because we all seek to protect, maintain, enhance and prove our self-concepts, we do not often focus on negative information about ourselves, much less seek it out. Sometimes we even avoid awareness of certain personal strengths if that knowledge would entail and involve responsibilities we are not willing to undertake. Nevertheless, 'know you' has been the cornerstone of advice of intellectuals to leaders for centuries. To manage others well, we must be able to manage ourselves. In order to manage ourselves well, we must know ourselves well and be able to develop ourselves (Hunsaker, 2001:5).

3.4.1. Knowing Ourselves

Knowing ourselves is certainly the first step in a skills development programme. Hunsaker (2001) pointed out that, knowing ourselves better requires new knowledge about what we do, how we do it, and the consequences of our actions. Sometimes these insights can be acquired by self-observation of the consequences of our actions, but more usually they are provided by others who share feedback about the reactions to our behaviour. Another way to learn about ourselves is by taking self-assessment inventories that reveal certain attitudes, values and knowledge bases.

3.4.2. Developing Ourselves

Hunsaker (2001) believes that, self-knowledge is not enough for skill development. We also have to want to improve. First, we have to be open to the possibility that we are not perfect and that we can become better. Next, we must be open to acquiring knowledge about ourselves, which the majority of the time means listening non-defensively to feedback from others. Finally, we must be willing to risk, and be assertive enough to try out, new behaviours that may not work perfectly the first time, and keep practicing them until we become skilled in their application. Skill development requires a high degree of psychological investment. If we are unable or not willing to make this kind of commitment, we may not even want to know the skills we could improve, let alone put the work into developing them.

3.4.3. Self-Directed Career Planning

Another aspect of self-development is career planning. In today's rapidly changing world, organisations no longer accept the responsibility for career development. So to remain a valuable human resource, it is imperative and necessary that managers keep current and constantly upgrade needed skills. In the past, a skill learned in youth could provide a living for life. Now, technology changes so rapidly that as soon as we have learned something, that 'something' becomes obsolete (Hunsaker 2001: 6). Learning is a lifelong process. Other people out there are keeping current, making themselves ready to assume our work responsibilities if we show signs of falling behind.

Some analysts have argued that workers can expect to change careers, not just their jobs, three or four times during their working lives (Calabresi, 1993: 38). If they are right, today's worker must be prepared to go back to school and learn new skills at a minimum of every 5 to 10 years (Hunsaker, 2001: 6). Because

fewer and fewer employers are providing this retraining, most employees will be balancing current work responsibilities with taking courses during their off hours. Self-directed careers require continuous training and learning.

3.5. Conclusion - Towards an Integrated Framework

In an attempt to draw attention to the fact that managerial work is complex and requires the manager, in particular senior managers, to deal effectively with work, people and themselves, this chapter tried to scrutinise various aspects of managerial work. Senior managers consider self and career development as aspects of their job. In this respect, the conventionally designed and structured management training and development programmes, with emphasis on the task-related aspects of the job, seem to be more beneficial to those who occupy junior managerial positions, rather than those who are located in the middle, upper and senior positions.

The abilities, knowledge, skills and even attitudes that enable senior managers to interact with people within and outside of the organisations are seen as the focal point in this research. The combination of attention paid to these aspects, of course may vary from one organisation or industry to another. However, to ensure increased effectiveness, it must be remembered that the senior managers' effectiveness is a function of both personal and organisational factors.

The skills, attitudes and preferences of individuals are important in so far as the opportunities, training, development and support that are provided by the organisation are concerned (Carnell and Maxwell 1988: 28). The overriding characteristics of effective skills application in any area, is acting positively, but consistent with earlier advice on freedom of choice, it is unrealistic to make this statement and expect others to begin acting this way immediately. A number of

different types of learning situation are provided so that our experiences in dealing with them will serve as effective self-teaching for others and ourselves. The majority of responsibility, therefore, rests with us for our own learning.

The conclusion reached here is that senior managers' perception and aspects of their work should be defined in terms of a function of awareness of self and other organizationally shared values, preferences, constraints, demands, choices and the ability to get the necessary jobs done. Generally speaking, managerial effectiveness, managerial skills and their training, are partly determined by the awareness and realisation of the need for skills and knowledge to satisfy the socially agreed upon and maintained standards for organisational effectiveness. In the next chapter, attempts will be made to provide an overview of Iran's economy and industrial structure in order to explain the context in which this study has been carried out.

CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF IRAN'S ECONOMY

Introduction

This chapter describes Iran's economy and its industrial structure. The issue of industrialisation and the quest by the country for national development is traced through the establishment of the Car Manufacturing Industry (CMI) in Iran. The significance of the car manufacturing industry in the country's economic growth is discussed and the crucial role that the CMI has played in Iran's overall economy and national development is explored. The first section is concerned with an overview of Iran's social as well as its national and geographical condition. It ends with a brief discussion of the overall effect of the oil on the country's economy. In the second section, an historical survey of the car industry in Iran is presented in order to trace back the establishment of the CMI in the country. The development of the two biggest of the five major car manufacturing industries of the country, together with their organisations, is presented. The chapter concludes with a brief explanation of management training in Iran.

4.1. Iran's Geography and Demographic Facts

There are several factors that make Iran an important country. The country's geographical locations, combined with its natural resources, are the most obvious factors. With an area of 1.648 million sq km, Iran is the sixteenth largest country in the world. In spite of being a large country, less than 10 per cent of it is inhabited. Iran's Population was estimated at around 68,017,860 (Iranian statistics, July 2005). Its official language is Farsi, although Turkish is commonly spoken in the north-west, Kurdish in the west and Arabic in Khuzestan in the south-west. The Capital of Iran is Tehran. Islam is the official religion of the

country with a small number of Christians, Jews and Zoroastrians. About 95% of Iranians are Shiite and 4% are Sunni.

The lack of water and the two huge mountains in the north and west of the country have turned Iran into a dry country with a huge desert that covers nearly one third of the country's soil. The average rainfall is about 30 cm annually, making it one of the least susceptible for agricultural development. However, Iran is strategically located along south-western Asia's important commercial and military routes and historically has served as a land bridge between Asia and Europe. The Caspian Sea, with an area of 424,200 square kilometres is the World's largest lake and links the country with Europe via the waterways of Russia. It borders the three former Soviet Union States: the Republic of Armenia, the Republic of Azerbaijan and the Republic of Turkmenistan, with the Caspian sea to the north, Turkey and Iraq to the west, the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman to the south and Pakistan and Afghanistan to the east (see Figure 4.1).

Iran is potentially a rich country. According to a report by Barclays Bank (2003), Iran's proven oil reserves are the largest in the World at 92,860 million barrels that, on the basis of current oil output of 3.60 million barrels per day, would last for over 80 years. In addition to oil, according to OPEC Bulletin (2004), Iran's reserves of natural gas are estimated at around 20 trillion cubic metres, making it the second largest in the World. As well as oil and gas, Iran has considerable mineral reserves, including coal, chromium, copper, iron, lead, manganese, zinc and sulphur. The recently discovered copper deposits at Sar Cheshmeh are the second largest in the World at 400 million tons.

According to Kayhan Havaai Daily newspaper (2003) Iran exported more carpets and rugs than any other nation to an annual value of \$3.1 billion.

Figure 4.1. Map of Iran



4.2. A Brief Overview of the Iranian Economy

Attempts to develop modern industry dates back to the beginning of the 19th century when the Qajar Dynasty tried to establish the defence industry. The first serious step to industrialisation was taken and factories such as textile, food stuff, leather work, paper making, glass and crockery and construction materials were established through the efforts of the late Amir Kabir, Chancellor of Iran, in 1848 (Ashraf, 1980). The major attempt towards the Industrialisation of Iran

began when the first oil field was discovered in 1905 in Masjed-e Soleymān, in Western Iran. Systematic attempts in pursuit of economic development within a planning framework began in 1949, when the First Seven-Year Development Plan was approved by the Iranian Parliament. However, due to a crippling national crisis, resulting in the nationalisation of oil industry in 1951-1953 (Madaani, 1965), and subsequently the loss of oil revenues, the plan was not implemented.

The Second Seven-Year Development Plan in 1955-1962 and then the Third Five Year Plan (1962-1967), which were both characterized as medium-term government financial programmes, focused on a handful of prestigious projects including the construction of three major dams and inter-city motorways as well as the expansion of the railways (Pesaran, 1985). The industrial section of the plan included building, textile, sugar, cement, pharmaceuticals, food processing and a number of other light industries. Iran had envisaged the participation of the private sector in a number of consumer producing fields.

The main drive towards the country's industrialisation programme, however, was launched with the Fourth Plan (1968-1972) when industrial development received the highest priority. Generous high credits facilities were made available to private industry, mainly, through the activities of the International Mining and Development Bank of Iran. Direct foreign investments were encouraged by the Government, particularly in the manufacturing industries. According to Zamani (1988), during the period 1962-1972, gross value added in manufacturing increased at an average annual rate of 12.3% in real terms. During the same period, industry grew in response to an increasing home demand, which until then had been largely satisfied by imports. During this

period, the total industrial investment amounted to 357 billion Rials, (\$ 5,100,000) of which 67% was in the private sector. Seventy five percent of the total private investment came from the industrial investment banks whose main priority was the pursuit of import-substitution.

The Fourth Development Plan (1968-1972) and Fifth Development Plan (1973-1977) also provided rapid growth of the country's manufacturing capacities. The annual real growth of the industrial and mining sectors for the third, fourth and the fifth Development Plan was 13.7, then 13.0, and then 15.5 percent respectively. In the 1980s, the Iranian economy was submitted to the burden of an eight-year war that resulted in considerable sacrifice and financial hardship for the Iranian people. It also bore the costs associated with the influx of a large number of refugees from Afghanistan and Iraq. The country's public and private sectors suffered from uncertainty created by the sudden and rapidly changing economic policies. In such circumstances, the implementation of the necessary macroeconomic policies and structural adjustments was a formidable task. Ghasimi (1992) suggested that during this period, the enormous payments for war-related expenditures and the considerable instability in oil revenue, which varied from \$ 21 billion to \$ 6 billion a year, resulted in large government budget deficits. The oil was the driving-force of the Iranian economy and was the main source of foreign exchange earnings by which the socio-economic programmes of the country were financed.

The maintenance by Iran of a high official exchange rate rendered its currency (the Rial) and therefore non-oil exports, uncompetitive on World markets. To resolve these problems and with a view to developing the economy in a systematic way, a Five-Year Development Plan (1999) went into effect in March 1999. The objective of this plan was an annual average growth rate of 8% in

GNP, an expansion and improvement in education, training, science and technology upgrading the country's car manufacturing capacity, creating two million new jobs and reducing inflation to below 10%. Paragraph 4 of the general objectives of this Plan is particularly relevant in the context of this research. It listed the following objectives:

1. The completion of semi-finished investment projects thereby entailing considerable foreign exchange savings (Paragraph 4.1);
2. Growth of capital and intermediate production in the economy with emphasis on agricultural inputs, water and soil. Mining and Heavy Industries, socially needed commodities and energy supply, communications and research and technology of car manufacturing industry development aimed at import-substitution with priority for maximum utilisation of existing capacity (Paragraph 4.2);
3. Employing revenue from export of oil and other minerals to invest in technology transfer and science and technology of car manufacturing industry and motor cars (Paragraph 4.3);
4. Selecting the appropriate low cost, employment-creating technology and independence from international monopolies (Paragraph 4.33);
5. Promoting research works and technological knowledge in order to improve the country's capacity in car exporting.
6. Reconstructing the structure of industrial productions (Paragraph 4.34);

7. Identifying, attracting and adapting imported industrial technologies and Research and Development (R & D) activities in modern technologies and industries (Paragraph 4.36).

To achieve these aims, the industrial structure was to be revived and the private sector was to be given a large role in the management of public organisations. According to Barclays Bank Report (1990), these Five-Year Development Plan projects amounted to a total expenditure of \$ 394 billion, \$ 27 billion of which was to be raised through foreign investment, mostly to be used either for the restoration of existing industries or for setting up new projects, mainly assembly lines of car manufacturing industries.

Although a significant portion of the country's resources were allocated to industrial development over the past three decades, it is important to realise that industrial 'added-value' has never reached more than 14.5% of GDP in 1984 and in 1989 this figure dropped to 12%. The industrial sector has suffered from a deficient structure, in the sense that the share of capital goods in total industrial production has not exceeded 15% and only half of this small share included machine tools and spare parts, which have been an essential feature in a developed industrial base. This sector also remained heavily dependent on spare parts and raw materials from abroad. Less than a third of raw material requirements have been supplied by domestic sources.

The Five-Year Development Plan forecasts an average annual growth of 14.2% in the industrial sector. This would raise the share of industry in GDP to 9% investment in industry was targeted \$276 billion or 6.5 of total investment under the Plan. Almost two thirds of total investment would be financed by the public sector. An additional \$22.1 billion was allocated for the import of raw materials

to feed car manufacturing plants. Around \$2.5 billion of this would be spent on domestic products that were to replace imports. Thus a total amount of \$19.6 billion would be spent on the purchase of materials from abroad bringing the total amount of foreign exchange expenditure in the industrial sector to \$33.7 billion per annum. A further \$17.1 billion in foreign exchange would be allocated to the intermediate industries; \$8.2 billion for new investment and \$8.9 billion for the importation of raw materials and equipment. These huge and colossal expenditures illustrate the extent to which Iran depended on foreign inputs (Barclays Bank Report, 1993).

According to Amuzegar (1993), the Five-year Development Plans clearly anticipated foreign participation in financing some development projects to the sum of \$27 billion under different arrangements. While the plan did not specifically emphasize, the spirit of these arrangements, it was suggested that the government was ready to welcome foreign private investment under certain conditions. Therefore, as part of the current Development Plan, the government has created a number of Free Trade Zones (FTZs), amid other objectives, to encourage direct foreign investment and to facilitate the transfer of car manufacturing technology. The free trade zones are expected to serve as bridges between domestic and foreign industries. The Zones included the Gulf Islands of Kish and Gheshm, and the port city of Chan Bahar (Bandar Beheshti) off the shore of the Gulf of Oman as well as several locations on the mainland.

The (FTZs) have the following characteristics:

1. Single-point clearance with regard to industrial licensing, foreign collaboration and the importation of capital goods.

2. No license is required for the importation of capital goods, raw materials, consumable spares, tooling or packing materials, as these items were placed under an open general license.
3. Exemption from customs duty and certain taxes and;
4. Duty-free import of capital goods and equipment from preferred sources.

A brief discussion of Iran's efforts to establish FTZs and the perceptions of respondents, relating to the effectiveness of the Iranian FTZs, are presented in the qualitative analysis.

One of the most important cultural beliefs of the revolutionaries was that private economic firms were foreign-reliant, anti-national and were against the spirit of the country's independence. In this social, economic and political environment, the Islamic revolution gained victory over the Pahlavi Regime in 1979. The subsequent revolutionary state nationalised large and small private corporations, together with banks, insurance companies and main industries. The role of the government on the economy has been thoroughly established in the Islamic constitution. Article 44 of the constitution defines the criteria for the national economic system. Whilst it recognises the private sector as well as the cooperative sections, its main emphasis is, however on the State as the backbone of the country's economy. Although the new reformist government is more inclined to change this clause, its rivals (the conservatives) fears that tampering with the constitution and changing one of its clauses might unleash other demands in favour of changing other constitutional amendments.

4.3. The Effect of the Oil Revenues on the Iranian Economy

4.3.1. Dependence of the Iranian Economy on Oil

Oil has played a decisive role in the political and economic development of Iran. It has been the major source of government income, as well as providing the country's investment in its industrialization programme. 'Iran is OPEC's second largest oil producer and holds 9% of the world's oil reserves and 15% of its natural gas reserves. Additionally, Iran is a focal point for regional security issues' (United States Department of Commerce, 2002). Iran's dependence on oil revenues is so acute that fluctuations in this income could create great difficulties for the economy. This dependence mostly began in 1971 when the price of petroleum greatly increased. According to the Iran Commerce Report (1993), over 80% of Iran's foreign exchange earnings and also over 70% of the government's income came directly through the sale of petroleum. With this level of dependence, one wonders what should be the optimal manner in which it should be spent.

Oil as a non-renewable substance is one of the nation's natural but depleting assets and its utilization must be based on the same principles as those of any other assets, namely that it should lead to the production of other wealth. That is to say, Iran could only claim to be successful in the utilization of its oil income if this revenue changes into other forms of assets such as capital goods and human assets. This matter must be thoroughly assessed to determine what proportion of petroleum income was spent on building factories and machine tools, education establishments, manpower training and on the importation of technology from abroad. Petroleum reserves that approximate eighty years at current rates of extraction play an important part in Iran's economic planning in general and the transfer of foreign technology in particular. This is placed in context when one

realizes that the time schedule for producing alternative energy sources in commercial quantities is ten to thirty years. Therefore, the oil producing countries and Iran in particular, have no other choice but to participate in technological programmes if they are to avoid their economies returning to deserts when the oil runs out. Iran's high degree of dependence on oil can only be reduced by widening their economic base, through the extensive transfer of technology manufacturing.

Iran's economy, which relies heavily on oil export revenues (around 80% of total export earnings, 40%-50% of the government budget, and 10%-20% of GDP), was hit hard by the plunge in oil prices during 1998 and early 1999, but with the rebound in oil prices since then, has recovered somewhat. For 2001, Iran's real GDP grew by around 4.3%; for 2002, it is expected to grow at a slightly lower, 3.5% rate in 2005. Relatively high oil export revenues during the past year or two have allowed Iran to set up an oil stabilization fund. To cope with its economic (and social) problems, the state has proposed a variety of privatization and other restructuring and diversification measures, although these remain politically contentious. Iran also has set up a "stabilisation fund" for excess oil revenues, which amounted to billions of dollars in 2001. Iran has also attempted to unify its two major exchange rates – "official and floating"- in the same year. Finally, Iran has expressed interest in joining the World Trade Organization (WTO), although this would require significant, and politically problematic, economic reforms. However, in February 2002, the United States blocked Iran's application from moving ahead towards joining WTO.

Iran is attempting to diversify its economic base by investing some of its oil revenues in other areas, including petrochemicals. Iran's non-oil exports appear

to have increased significantly in recent years. Iran is also hoping to attract billions of dollars worth of foreign investment to the country by creating a more favourable investment climate (i.e., reduced restrictions and duties on imports, creation of free-trade zones). In May 2001, the Majlis (parliament) approved the "Law on the Attraction and Protection of Foreign Investment," which aims at encouraging foreign investment by streamlining procedures, guaranteeing profit repatriation, and more. This Law represented the first foreign investment act passed by Iran's legislature since the 1978/79 Revolution, which superseded decades of legislation imposing restrictions on this kind of investment. However, this legislation has not yet come into effect due to disagreements between reformist section and conservative section of the state. In June 2001, the Guardian Council rejected the bill. In November 2001, the Majlis passed a second, heavily amended, version of the bill. Although this version was much diluted in its objectives, the Guardian Council again rejected it in December 2001. Efforts to encourage foreign investment in Iran still remain stalled.

On February 18, 2000, Iran held its sixth parliamentary elections since the 1978 - 79 revolution, with an overwhelming victory for the reformist coalition. Presidential elections were held in June 2001, and President Khatami won a landslide re-election. In July 2001, Iran's cabinet approved formation of a "Supreme Energy Council" (SEC), which would consist of ministers from the oil, energy, economy, commerce, mines and industries ministries, among others. The SEC would play a strategic role in overseeing Iranian energy projects. However, despite the wide range of reforms imposed on the Iranian economy since 1979 the country is still heavily dependent on oil exports and lacking the institutional structure needed to effect the transition to a free market system.

4.3.2. The Effects of Oil Dependence on the Environment

In the context of its oil-based economy, environmental issues in Iran only recently have become important. An acute air pollution in urban areas, which reached a critical level in Tehran in December 1999, has highlighted the need to improve Iran's environmental record. The rush to develop oil and natural gas resources in the Caspian Sea makes oil pollution in that area a real environmental threat. Huge increases in energy consumption over the past 20 years have contributed greatly to pollution levels as Iran's carbon emissions have nearly tripled over the same time span. Large numbers of old, inefficient cars on the road lacking catalytic converters account for much of the country's air pollution. Energy prices are kept artificially low in Iran through heavy state subsidies, resulting in wasteful consumption patterns. In addition, Iran's abundance of fossil fuel resources has tended to discourage the country's incentive to shift to cleaner alternative energy sources for its energy needs. As Iran continues to struggle with air pollution in the 21st century, there is an urgent need for taking a variety of tough measures in order to avert an environmental crisis.

It can be concluded that during the last four decades Iran's social, economical and political life has experienced drastic and radical changes, many of which have been introduced by the Islamic Revolution in 1979 and later caused by the war with Iraq 1980-1988. The combination of these events created extremely difficult conditions for the country. Major shocks and disruption were introduced in the domestic economy including an international trade and financial sanction which was imposed mainly by the US. The mass departure and exodus of entrepreneurs, skilled workers, and the flight of capital were witnessed. The excessive regulation of the economy, the dominance of the

public sector in production activities and the diversion of resources to support the war effort were initiated by the government.

Other events, such as the major declines in the price of oil and influx of large numbers of Afghan refugees, and a rapidly growing population compounded these problems. The net result was a highly disrupted economy operating under critical conditions for a full decade. Although the economy (mainly the oil industry and agriculture) grew at a fast pace during the first half of the 1980, it actually declined significantly during the second half leading to a high inflation rate and an acute unemployment level. The performance of the industrial sector was especially constrained by excessive regulation, price controls, the foreign exchange allocation system, market and structural deficiencies, public enterprise domination and a virtually dormant private sector. However, with huge natural and human resources, Iran has the potential for economic growth and socio-economic development.

4.4. A Historical Survey of the Car Industry (1960-2004)

The first car imported into Iran was a Ford that Mozaffaredin Shah, the king of Qajar, who ruled Iran from 1890-1906. It had been purchased from Belgium. This car, which puffed much smoke, was renowned as "smoky chariot". Following urbanization process since 1920, the importing trend of cars increased. Most automobiles of that time were brought from the USA and England. The first car manufactured in Iran was called "Paykan". It was produced by the "Iran National Industrial Corporation" licensed by the British Talbot Company and was offered to market in 1967. Later on, an Iran National Company, on a gradual basis, assumed the manufacture of other vehicles like pick up, minibus and passenger bus. In the same year, two models of American

"Rambler" cars locally called "Aria" and "Shahin" were produced by Pars Khodro. However, one year later, in 1968, a model of French Citroen named "Jyane" was also assembled in Iran by the SAIPA Company.

The Islamic revolution of 1979 and the Iran/Iraq war (1980-88) had far reaching consequences. For the country's including the car industry all domestic automotive manufacturers were nationalized in 1979 in what was supposed to be a temporary measure. The Iraqi invasion in 1980 encouraged the creation of a centrally planned economy to direct production towards essential war goods. Domestic demand for cars dropped during the 1980s, as did investment and output.

Following the end of the war in 1988, the demand for cars soared and so did oil prices. Imports rose to record levels in 1993/94 with up to 90,000 vehicles arriving annually. But the Iranian economy was in trouble as vast quantities of consumer goods were sucked in. Iran did not take much attention to the outcomes of foreign exchange fluctuations and therefore built up a substantial foreign debt. Drastic action was required to remedy the ailing economy. In early 1990s, as part of a series of measures to address the nation's economic ills, the Automotive Law of Iran was enacted. This introduced stiff import tariffs. It also introduced tax breaks and other incentives for manufacturers to increase the local content of domestically produced vehicles.

Traditionally, the car manufacturing industry assumed a vital role in the economic development of many developed countries. The car industry is now assuming an important role in economic growth and development of the developing countries as well and will continue to play this role with an even greater importance in the future. A true explanation of this role is provided by the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO, 1987) where

the contribution of the motor cars industries in both developed and developing countries between 1970 and 1985 is analysed in terms of the share of production in total industrial output. According to the above analysis, the car manufacturing industry is the most important key sector contributing in Iran's economic development. The share of developing countries in world production of car manufacturing industry has also increased. Therefore, while the output of car manufacturing industry is to grow in developing countries such as Iran, the demand for cars over the same period will also increase.

4.5. The Car Manufacturing Industry and Market in Iran

The car manufacturing industry is a priority for Iran - a key sector which used to receive considerable preferential treatment in capital allocation and foreign exchange by the successive administrations in Iran before and after the revolution. This strategy has however been gradually withdrawn. In 2001 all manufacturing units ought to become self-sufficient with regard to foreign exchange requirements. The industry has far lower propensity to react to any general downturn in the economy than most other sectors. Between 1994 and 1998 the car industry grew by about 30%, five times that of other industries and eight times that of the economy. During the same period it generated some 235,000 new jobs (Bolourian, 2001). The payment situation is improving although caution is advised and political difficulties can also limit sales. The domestic demand and export potential is considerable but there are too many local manufacturers. Privatization and rationalization is on the cards but outmoded laws and bureaucratic problems may slow the process. The authorities are eager to promote local production supported by joint ventures with foreign companies while imports are tightly controlled.

In spite of a vast internal market, car manufacturing industry especially van (light car) has been inefficient, non-productive, and it could not respond quantitatively and qualitatively to increasing demands of the market, and lacks any potential export capacity. As the experience of industrial countries shows, car industry should pass six stages, in order to become an efficient and productive industry. In each stage the support of the state and the rest of the national economy play crucial roles. These stages are as follows:

1. Assembling the imported parts;
2. Creating product bases;
3. Mass production;
4. Creating parts designing bases;
5. Designing and manufacturing new cars, modernising the parts manufacturing network and creating export bases, and;
6. Designing and manufacturing machinery and equipment for assembly lines.

The most important feature of Iranian car industry has been the formation of its orientation by the state. That is to say, the economic development was designed, executed and run one way or another by the state. During 1954 -1960 when the bulk of the Iranian economic and industrial development took place, and during which Iran acquired a 'modern state' status, almost the entire major economic activities were operated by the state. Not only major industries such as oil, gas, petrochemical, steel, and similar industries were state oriented, the small industries, which belonged to the private sector, were also dependent on the government for every activity.

In sum, it can be stated that Iran's domestic car industry has been active for over 40 years, and is largely controlled by the Iranian state. The government is supposed to transfer the ownership of the car industry to private sector but so far the best one can hope for is partial and limited privatization as has been experienced by some of the larger manufacturers such as Iran Khodro, which is still 45% owned by state owned company named Iran Development, and Renovation Organisation of Iran (IDRO).

Ultimately, the car industry sector is viewed as a key strategic industry by the authorities, not least because it has been a major employer (400,000 in 1998) and accounts for 2.5% of GNP and 18% of the total value added goods produced in the country. With a total sale approaching 9,000 billion Rials, (over \$1 billion) it receives a high priority in the allocation of domestic capital (for investment) and foreign exchange (purchase of raw material). The Iranian government is also keen to promote a greater role for the private sector, both in vehicle and components production. However, the quality of parts and finished vehicles has been a serious and sensitive issue. Despite an apparent addition to ISO 9000/2, manufacturers fail consistently to meet acceptable quality standards.

4.6. Contributions of Car Manufacturing Industry to Iran's Economy

Despite the crucial role played by the oil and steel industry, and a few other major industries, the role played by the car manufacturing industry in the country's economical development should not be underestimated. There are still many problems and difficulties confronting this forty years old industry in Iran. It is important to note, however, that in all existing developed or developing economies in the world, car manufacturing industry is considered to be a leading industry, creating numerous links and opportunities to other trades. From this advantage point of view, the analysis of the present situation of the car

manufacturing industry in Iran is presented. The projected annual growth of car manufacturing industry has been 23 percent behind the approved product plan by the Ministry of Industry in 1998. From March 1998 to March 1999 Iran's car manufacturing industry produced 206,070 cars (Table 4.1).

The share of car manufacturing industries export in total industry's export has increased from 2.3% in 1994 to almost 6% in 1998. The comparison of these shares shows that the car industry could have especial share in Iran's industry in the future (Table 4.2).

The car industry has been considered as the mother of industries without which industrialisation would never gain pace exportation for economic growth in developing countries. As in many industrial countries, the car manufacturing was also fundamental to the industrialisation of Iran. Thus, the establishment of the car industry has long been viewed as an alternative solution to many existing economic and social problems (Farazmand, 1989). Since its establishment, the car industry has provided opportunity to basic industrial development, technological transfer, economic independence training and development of skilled human resources as well as an increase in the level of national income and employment rate (See table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Iran's Vehicle Production in 1998-1999 and Production Forecast for the Following Year

Period	March 1998-March 1999						Forecasts For Following year
Types of Vehicle	Number			Product growth as Compared with pervious year%	Deviation From Program	Implement Capacity%	
	Actual product	Programmed product	Product capacity				
Passenger Car	157017	191000	185000	+16	-17	84.8	
Lorry	33831	49000	45000	+40	-30	75	
Mini Bus	505	2600	11500	-60	-80	4	
Bus	2466	4150	6500	+250	-40	38	
Truck	5171	7750	36000	+7	-33	14	
Two differential Truck	7085	13500	14000	-20	-47	50	
Van Pickup truck	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Total	206,075	268,000	298,000	+18	-23	69	

Source: Supplying of Automotive parts Co. Publication, April 1999, Tehran, Iran.

Table 4.2 Comparative Process of Car Industry's Export Share

Order	Industry's Group M.\$	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
1	Textile and Clothing Industry	184	164	369	328	162
2	Chemical Industry	221	91	208	319	377
3	Food and Medicine Industry	137	142	230	241	175
4	Metallic Moulding Industry	123	63	99	93	111
5	Electric and Electronic Industry	5	6	8	4	5
6	Non-Metallic Mineral Industry	33	36	53	40	50
7	Car Industry*	19.5	40.2	20.1	35.9	65.3
	Vehicle	11.6	28.9	6.6	4.5	19.5
	Parts	7.4	11.3	9.2	9.4	12.2
	Wagon	0.5	-	4.3	21.7	26.5
	Maritime Floating	-	-	-	-	7.1
8	Other Industries	-	217	128	83	102
	The share of Car Industry %	5.4	5.4	2.2	1.2	6
	Total	722.5	759	1115.1	114.3	1047

*Wagon and Maritime Floating are included

Sources: Sapco Publication, April, 1999, Tehran, Iran.

With respect to these objectives the development and expansion of the car industry was pursued by the governments before and after the revolution. In addition to the above, the aim was to promote the industry to achieve self-sufficiency in manufacturing production, to improve the investment and the establishment of other supporting industries and to end dependence on imports in the long run, and subsequently to provide substitutions for oil export by reaching a level where the industry products can be exported abroad.

It is important to note, however, that in all existing developed or developing economies in the world, capital goods and intermediate industries including petrochemical, and machine tools industries due to their nature are considered as leading industries which create many linkages with other industries. From this advantage point of view, the analysis of the present situation of the industry indicates that the manufacturing production is a leading industry that has the highest coefficient of backward and forward linkages compared to other industries such as ASEAN. Therefore it seems that it is important to understand the nature of the car manufacturing industry in relation to the overall national economy. The production process begins with motor car making and ends with the delivery of long or flat product to the consumer (Commercial Surveys, 1994). It is important to note that CMI is in itself a major commodity for other industries, and thereby differs from many other industrial branches.

A wide range of industries and manufacturing plants have powerful relationships with the CMI and are dependent on its product for their successful operations (Farazmand, 1989). According to the recent industrial development strategy set out in the Five-Year Development Plan, the development of capital goods and intermediate industries in Iran is being sought in a clear cut policy statement. Under this plan, a total of \$17.1 billion in foreign exchange will be allocated to intermediate industries, \$8.2 billion for new investment and \$8.9 billion for the import of raw materials and equipment. The projected annual growth of intermediate industries is 20%. It is therefore expected that the value added share of intermediate industry will increase to 63 percent of total share of the industrial sector by the end of the plan. While the share of non-industrial producing intermediate industries will drop from 38 to 26 percent, the share of

industrial producing intermediate industries will increase from 62 to 74 percent in the same period.

As far as the overall car and its related industries are concerned, the planned target is the achievement of a growth of 38.5 percent each year. Furthermore, in view of relative economic advantages, car manufacturing production in Iran is considerably more economical than in similar countries. The availability of raw materials, abundant cheap clean energy such as natural gas, an increased level of technological infusion and skilled human resources as well as the existence of the required infrastructure provide the best possible advantages for the successful operation of the CMI in Iranian industrial sector.

The employment figures also reveal a steady increase in total employment of the car manufacturing industry over the 1999-2002 periods. Given the total manufacturing employment of over 24,000 by 2002, the total employment in the car manufacturing industry increased from 10,700 in 1999, to around 24,000 employees in 2002 (Commercial Surveys, 2002). While production of van (light car) industry reached its highest level at about 870,000 vans in 2002, the domestic consumption of all kinds of cars product in 2002 was 2,610,000. The two major car manufacturing plants in Iran are Iran Khodro and SAIPA, referred to in this study as Organisation A and Organisation B respectively. A brief description of each one of them is provided below.

4.6.1. Iran Khodro Co (Organisation A).

Iran Khodro (the former Iran National) was founded with registered capital of 100,000,000 Rials (\$1,428,571) on 18 Aug, 1962, by Mr. Hadj Ali Akbar Khayami, Mr. Ahmad Khayami, Mr. Mahmood Khayami, Mrs. Marzieh Khayami and Mrs.

Zahra Sayedi Rashti in Tehran. Its objective was the creation and management of factories to manufacture various types of vehicles, parts, selling, and exporting of them. Now after 35 years, it continues to design and manufacture cars and buses as the largest vehicle manufacturer in the country. Having an average share of 65 to 70 percent of domestic vehicle production. Registered Capital of Iran Khodro by the end of the Iranian fiscal year 1381 (March 20, 2003) was 2,404,687,500 Rials. (\$34,352,678,570) for 2,404,687,500 shares, each one worth 1000 Rials. (\$14.28).

In 1997, Iran Khodro broke the record in the 30 years history of production by producing 111,111 units of various passenger cars and vans. Furthermore, the company was able to improve the quantity and quality of its products remarkably. The company was able to receive the certificate of ISO 9001 compliance from RWTUV, Germany. As well as aiming to increase its share of domestic market, Iran Khodro is also trying to penetrate the world market. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the production of Iran Khodro Co (Iran Khodro, 2003).

4.6.2. SAIPA Company (Organisation B)

The SAIPA Company was established in 1966 and has a range of car assembling models, including Citroen Dyane, Renault 21, Nissan Patrol, Mazda 323 and the Renault 5, which is still being produced. Recent developments included a license agreement with the South Korean KIA Motors for the Pride mini car and with the French Citroen company for the Xantia family car. SAIPA became a full ranged car manufacturer after it merged with three other major companies, Zamy, Iran Kaveh and in 1999 to hold a substantial market share in Iran. SAIPA is effectively controlled by the Iranian government, which owns 48 percent of its shares (SAIPA, 1999). Louis Schweitzer, Chairman and CEO (chief executive officer) of the Renault group, and Rezah Veyseh, Chairman and CEO of IDRO

Table 4.3 Passenger Cars

Date	Descriptions
1967	Paykan (the car that Iran started to assemble was a prototype of British-made Hillman Hunter) [1600-1725-1800 cc]
1990	Peugeot 404 (1600 cc). versions: GL, GLX
1995	Peugeot 405 (2000 cc). Versions: GLX(Automatic & Manual Gear Box)
1997	Peugeot 1600 RD (1600 cc)
1998	Peugeot 405 Station Wagon (2000 cc)
1999	Peugeot Persia (2000 cc)
2000	Test production of Samand (X7 Project 1800 cc-injection)
2001	Peugeot 206 (1400 cc)
2002	Samand Production line opening with the presence of President Khatami

Source: Iran Khodro August 21, 2003

(Industrial Development & Renovation Organization– a public organization responsible for the automotive industry in Iran) signed a major agreement on October 27, 2003 in Bologna, France for the formation of a joint venture company during the first quarter of 2004, held 51% by Renault and 49% by AID co, a common entity composed of IDRO and the two leading Iranian automakers Iran Khodro and SAIP. The project involves the production and marketing by Iran Khodro and Saipa of the X90 vehicles in Iran as of 2006, with an initial installed capacity of 100,000 units at each of the two manufacturing plants (SAIPA, 2004).

Table 4.4 Commercial Vehicles

Date	Descriptions
1963	Mercedes Benz Bus O 302model. Versions: (City Intercity, Left hand Drive & Chassis)-Benz LP608 Bus-Benz OP Model
1965	Comer Minibus (Minibus, Van, and Ambulance)
1967	Mercedes Benz Minibus 319 Model, Changed to 309 Models Later. Versions: (Standard & High roof)
1970	Mercedes Benz Ambulance O409 Model
1971	Minibus 309 Benz (Minibus, Van and Ambulance, Single and Double Cabin)
1986	Mercedes Benz Single Cabin light Truck. Double Cabin Light Truck With Passenger Capacity 6+1 & Payload 3 Tons
1988	Mercedes Benz Minibus 508 Model (Standard and High Roof)
1989	City Bus O355 Model
1990	Minibus 508 Benz Caravan: Minibus Benz 409 and Minibus Benz M30
1994	Minibus Benz O508D: High-Deck Coach 400 Prototype
1995	Minibus Caravan: C400 Super Bus
1996	Intercity Bus S369
1997	Neoplan Double Decker Bus: Neoplan Airport Bus, Neoplan Liner City Bus, High Deck Coach 400 Mass Production, Hyundai Minibus (E-Model), Hyundai Minibus (M-Model) (Minibus and Vans Type)
1998	Hyundai Minibus Chorus Model: Double Cabin City Bus

Source: Iran Khodro August 21, 2003

The X90, a vehicle well-suited to a growing Iranian market with 67 million inhabitants, Iran's automobile market has experienced strong growth for the past three years. An estimated 700,000 passenger cars and light commercial vehicles

are expected to be sold in 2005. The country has already a car manufacturing industry and a strong network of equipment manufacturers.

4.7. The Future of Car Industry in Iran

After nearly 40 years of redesigning, reinvesting, and rethinking, the car industry in Iran is still in a state of confusion and mismanagement. There is great room for creation of companies and plants for making parts both for the export and domestic markets. Manufacturing automobiles and automotive parts and components require long-term planning, robust management, and sufficient investment. It can play a significant role in the country's economic development. Statistics reveal that in Iran about 106,000 people are directly engaged in design and production of automotives with almost as many workers working in related industries. This is 12% of the total jobs available in Iran's industrial sector. It is interesting to note that most emerging economies began their economic development by adopting auto production first. These nations, such as Japan or South Korea, are now well-known car manufacturers with dominating presence in the world market.

Currently, there are 6 major automobile manufacturers in Iran: Iran Khodro, Pars Khodro, Saipa, Kerman Khodro, Bahman Autos, and Kish Khodro. Should the strategy of mergers develop in Iran, the country will soon become a Middle East leader in auto manufacturing. Quality standards and performance are very important factors in the success of the car manufacturing. Since the Institute of Standardization and Industrial Research draws up national standards, it must also compile international standards that would be acceptable worldwide. Presently, Iran collaborates with South Korea, Japan and France to produce cars locally. Iran Khodro has a huge plant, not far from Tehran. The company,

formerly known as Iran National, has been producing Peugeot GL (since 1990), Peugeot GLX, and Peugeot 205 GR (since 1995). New products include Peugeot Persia and Peugeot 206.

From 1979 to 1990 there was a heavy decline in the industry caused by the Revolution and the war. As a result, the industry began to disintegrate. However, it was given a great deal of attention in the 1990s. The Iranian government made serious efforts towards industrial and economic development. The auto and auto part industries expanded rapidly. The import of cars was prohibited (except in a few cases such as students returning home). The need for better cars imposed an inevitable rise on the abilities, and demanded up-to-date means and facilities. Thus the industry shifted from assembly stage to the next stages. The Third Development Plan (2000-2004) emphasized on increasing the production capacity up to 500,000 units a year. It also aims that by the end of the Plan, the industry shall gain all the foreign exchange it requires for its imports, from its exports. Although the future of the automobile market looks bright, heavy investments made by giant companies shall put Iran at a position of disadvantage. This means Iranians will have to work harder and be more innovative.

Africa alone offers Iran a great future since the continent's demand for cars is expected to increase by 100% by the year 2015. It is easier to export auto parts than finished cars, and experts often point out that possibilities for investment in this sector are endless. The figures in international auto market are impressive: in 1998, over 100 billion dollars (over 3% of the total world production) was spent on the purchase of 50,500,000 vehicles; and in the same year 100 million people were employed directly in this industry. By 2000, the number of vehicles

bought rose to 60 million and most of the increase went to developing countries. With good planning and wise investment, Iran can benefit greatly.

4.8. Management Training Initiatives in Iran

Management training and development as we understand it today does not have a long history in Iran. Some technical training efforts were initiated by the agricultural Bank of Iran and the Ministry of Post, Telegraph and Telephone back in late 1930s. It was not until after the 2nd World War that management became to be realised as one of the crucial factors in economic and social development. As Drucker (1974) notes, at this period interest in management training and development spread rapidly throughout developing countries like Iran. The year 1955 marks the forming of the first management academic body in Iran, when Tehran University through a contract with the University of Southern California, established the Institute of Administrative Affairs later to be called the School of Public and Business Administration. This was the first step to train the government administrators of the country.

In 1962, the Industry Management Institute (IMI) was established and became responsible for managerial training for top management teams in industry as a whole. The Institute offered a four week residential senior management training programme which had been designed specially for top management in public and private organisations. Later in the mid-sixties, the National Iranian Oil Company (NIOC), with the co-operation of the above school launched a management training programme for five weeks. With the introduction of the State Employment Law in 1966, training was made a major function of the personnel management and provisions were made for pre-service and in-service training programmes of civil servants in various ministries and their agencies.

Consequently, in 1968, the government decided to establish a training centre responsible for the training of public administrators later called the State Management Training Centre. The centre has been actively involved in regular training of administrative and managerial cadres of the Government through its several branches in the country. Although the centre has a variety of training and research programmes, the design and conduct of senior management training programmes is still one of the most important challenges.

Along with these developments and specifically during the late sixties other universities in different parts of the country offered educational and training programmes in public administration and business management. Recent efforts include the introduction of a management curriculum leading to postgraduate degrees in management like MBA and PhD by a handful of universities and government affiliated management training centres. The prevailing style of management training and development in Iran has been to a great extent oriented toward the traditional approach. An evaluation of the effectiveness of such programmes has been provided by the State Management Training Centre. It is concluded that in spite of their partial usefulness for individual participants, such programmes are far away from being an effective vehicle for the development of competent senior managers (Zomorrodian, 1980). Furthermore, a review of a recent strategic management programme offered by IMI, indicates that the traditional emphasis is still being placed on cognitive learning and the acquisition of management knowledge apart from management skills and that the technical aspects of managerial work is generally emphasised more. Participants usually question the applicability of the training they receive and indicated that such programmes had been mainly academically oriented. Almost all such programmes lack the systematic assessment of the training needs of the

participants and the traditional prescriptive approach to programme design is usually a dominant practice.

4.9. Conclusion

Iran is potentially a rich country that has faced economic and social problems in the last four decades but has managed to survive all such misfortunes. Now that systematic attempts towards rebuilding the economy are underway, development strategies need to focus on strengthening the industrial structure especially those of capital good and intermediate industries. The car manufacturing industry seems to offer favourable opportunities for the industrial and economic development of the country. Although the development and future success of the industry as a whole mainly rests on its managerial effectiveness and capabilities, no systematic attempt has been made to train and develop managers to face this tremendous and serious challenge. Managerial effectiveness, management training and development must be incorporated into the overall development strategy if the car manufacturing industry is to survive and enjoy prosperity and success in the difficult years ahead.

The ultimate objective of managerial effectiveness and development planning can be generally stated as attempts to regularly raise the overall living standards of people and meeting the social, economic and cultural needs of the society. These programmes are expected to be dynamic so that they could encounter varying economic conditions. They should also consider the world conditions and the international market. Socio-political objectives should also become congruent with planning but what is probably more important than the programmes themselves is the degree of commitment to implement them. Programmes are usually analysed with regard to their progress as well as

possible changes which may occur during the course of their implementations. The role of senior managers, economists, statespersons and experts are important because they could hinder or facilitate the application of the programmers. In accordance with this very fact the level of economic as well as political development is in correspondence with the success or failure of a political thought and a governing strategy which is derived from it. In the next chapter attempts are made to explain the research methodology of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE: THE REASERCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The design of any research programme is of vital importance for a successful research study. Of course, other important factors contribute to any successful project such as the motivation, effectiveness, skills, eight parameters of managerial effectiveness of senior managers (Analoui's Model, 1999) and creativity of the researcher and the level of support. The type and context of the research study determines the strategy to be followed. As for data, we would like to emphasise that it is an essential input to any successful research not only in terms of quality but also in terms of quantity. For a research project that relies heavily on primary data sources, adequacy and validity of research finding will be affected by the quality and the quantity of the data. The quantity of data is also important for reliable and careful statistical analysis that needs to be performed with confidence. In this chapter, the objective is to describe the methodology that has been employed when exploring means and ways by which senior managers' effectiveness is increased and their performance is improved. To reach this purpose, first, in the general terms, the nature of the research will be looked at closely, as it relates to social and behavioural sciences and then different approaches will be discussed which might be adopted to generate the data relevant to the purpose of this study. A brief discussion on the research paradigms and their theoretical implication for research strategy and its methodological issues will follow, the choice of the method employed, and its relevance to this research will then be explained. Subsequently, and in particular, a brief presentation of the research design and a detailed discussion of the steps involved would be the next issues to be discussed.

5.1. Methodology in Management research

Perhaps before discussion on methodology of strategic management research in general and current research in particular, it is useful to define research methodology (Curran and Blackburn, 2001). Remenyi et al (1998) argued that, research methodology refers to the procedural framework within which the research is conducted. It describes an approach to a problem that can be put into practice in a research programme or process. Accordingly, it has been argued (Robson, 1997; Malhotra, 1999; Burns, 2000) that, methodology is understood to the general principles behind research, whereas methods are the practical techniques used to undertake research. From this point of view, methodology provides the link between technique and theory. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) defined a scientific methodology as a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. This system is neither unchangeable nor infallible. Rather the rules and procedures are constantly being improved; scientists look for new means of observations, analysis, logical inference, and generalization. The methodology of social science has evolved slowly. Within this evolution, the continuous interchange of ideas, information, and criticism made it possible to firmly establish, or institutionalise, commonly accepted rules and procedures and to develop corresponding methods and techniques. Methodology provides rules for communication. A major function of methodology is to help the blind man "see" to facilitate communication between researchers who either has shared or want to share a common experience. In addition methodology provides rules for reasoning (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

5.2 The Nature of the Research

This research describes heavily on behavioural sciences in general and organisational behaviour in particular for its theoretical foundations. Here, the question is what is organisational behaviour? It is the study of the social arrangement of people in organisations. It is concerned with the application of key disciplines such as psychology and the processes that are interwoven to form the context of organised society and how all these are reflected in the actions of organisations large and small. The twin themes of control and performance allow us to examine how the subject has developed. What follows is necessarily a very brief and broad outline (Rosenfeld & Wilson, 1999: 10). In other words, behavioural science approach is mainly based on three basic academic disciplines-psychologies, sociology and anthropology (the science of human beings with especial emphasis on their environment and social relations, cultures and cultural formations), all of which have made an important contribution to the field of organisational behaviour. Therefore, behavioural science is concerned with reconciling the needs of the organisation for the contribution of maximum productivity, with the needs of individuals and the realisation of their potential. While the contribution of relevant aspects of psychology, sociology and anthropology aid our understanding of the behaviour of people inside organisations, each have their differing perspectives, theories and methods. The research problems also differ from those experienced in the field of natural science. McNeill (1985) analyses the two distinct schools of thought that have been developed because of the characteristics of behavioural science research. The stability and ordered nature of the natural world was viewed as characterizing the world of human affairs. People actively create (or construct) social reality through social interaction, which then takes on the appearance of

existing independently and is perceived as influencing the same people's behaviour from the outside. It is important, however, at this point to gain more insight into the nature of social science in the context of alternative ways of approaching realities; paradigms.

Social research is carried out within a paradigm. The methodology that is employed by a social scientist, thus, reflects his / her views about the nature of science and of society. In identifying four paradigms in social theory, Burrell and Morgan (1993) suggest that social theory, in general, and organisational theory, in particular, could be usefully analysed in terms of four broad worldviews. These were reflected in different sets of meta-theoretical assumptions about the nature of social science and the subjective-objective dimension, and the nature of sociology, the dimension of regulation-radical change. They argue that four sets of assumptions with regard to ontology (relating to or studying the nature of existence), epistemology (the study of the nature and limits of knowledge), human nature, and methodology guides social scientists in their investigations. These assumptions provide a conceptual foundation on which the different approaches to social sciences are based. As Burrell and Morgan assert, in the realm of the functionalist paradigm, organisational scientists adopt an objectivist perspective which tends to be realist, positivist, determinist and nomothetic in their approach to investigate social realities. It encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding the role of human beings in society. Behaviour is always seen as being contextually bound in a real world of concrete and tangible social relationships (Burrell and Morgan 1993). The interpretive social theorist attempts to understand the process through which shared multiple realities arise, are sustained,

and/or changed. In examining the nature of the various research dimensions, it is concluded that the current research as Burrell and Morgan (1993) contend, somewhere in the far objectivist region of the functionalist paradigm, where it overlaps with the interpretive paradigm.

5.3 . Methodological Approach

The purposes of any research together with its nature lead the researcher to choose the policy that is most suitable for generating the required data. As stated by Harding (1987), methodology is simply 'a theory and analysis of how research does or should proceed' (Harding 1987: 3). Methodology, in general and methods in particular constitutes the central and inseparable part of any research activity (Analoui, 1989: 12). It is generally agreed that methods that are employed by researchers usually reflect their conceptual framework about the phenomenon that is under their investigation (Videtch 1969; Cuff and Payne, 1979). What this implies according to Ackroyd and Hughes (1992) is that research methods provide the linkage between theory and the empirical world. This crucial linkage is established 'through the generation of relevant data via the use of suitable methods of data gathering' (Analoui 1990: 10). Research methodology is always finding the middle ground between options and choices. Methodologies are the tools of inquiry, and the selection of an appropriate methodology mainly depends on a specific research problem (Downey and Ireland 1979). The choices are determined not by the nature of the topic being investigated but also by the availability of resources. It is generally agreed that there are limitations in each single method of data collection, which could affect the reliability of the findings (Denizen 1978; Jick 1979). Gill and Johnson (1991) appropriately argue that there is no ideal tool for research but rather

the most effective depending on many variables, including the nature of the study itself. Bell (1993), notes that different styles or approaches to research use different methods of data collection, but no single style applies nor directly discards any specific technique. The main approaches to methodology can be classified for example as ethnographic, qualitative, and experimental and so on. In fact, once a particular method has been selected, this does not stop the researcher from changing the methods usually linked with that style. Research methodology is always reconciliation between alternatives and choices that are often set by the availability of means (Gill and Johnson, 1991). Furthermore, as Leedy (1974) argues, the research methodology must always consider the parameters and the nature of the data required.

5.4. Data Collection

It has been argued that, there are two main survey data collection models: questionnaire and interview. The main purpose of research questionnaire is to obtain information that cannot be easily observed or that is not already available in written or computerised form.

5.4.1. Questionnaire

Evidence from the questionnaire survey is then used for one or more of the following purposes- description, explanation, hypothesis testing. Remenyi et al, (1998) argued that, the type of information sought when surveying individuals or objects, such as firms, usually include evidence on demographic and socio-economic variables. In addition, depending on the study, evidence may be sought on opinions or beliefs related to behaviours, experiences, activities and attitudes (Remenyi et al, 1998). The foundation of all questionnaires is the question.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) argued that the questionnaire must translate the research objectives into specific questions; answers to such questions will provide the data for hypotheses testing. The question must also motivate the respondents to provide the information being sought. The major aspects of the questionnaire, which have been considered in formulating questions of the postal questionnaire, consist of its content, measurement considerations, structure, and administration.

5.4.1.1. The mail questionnaire: advantages and disadvantages

The mail questionnaire is an impersonal survey method. Under certain conditions and for a number of reasons, an impersonal method of data collection can be useful. Nachiman and Nachiman (1996) discussed the main advantages of the mail survey as follows.

- *Low cost.* Economy is one of the most obvious appeals of mail questionnaire. The mail questionnaire does not require a trained staff of interviewers; all it entails is the cost of planning, sampling, duplicating, mailing, and providing stamped self-addressed envelopes for the returns.
- *Reduction in biasing error.* The mail questionnaire reduces biasing error that might result from the personal characteristics of interviewers and variability in their skills.
- *Greater anonymity.* The absence of an interviewer also provides greater anonymity. The assurance of anonymity with mail questionnaires is especially helpful when the survey deals with sensitive issue. On such

matters, a mail survey may elicit a higher response rate than a personal interview.

- *Considered answers and consultations.* Mail questionnaires are also preferable when questions demand a considered answers or if answer require consulting personal documents or other people.
- *Accessibility.* Finally the mail questionnaire permits wide geographic contact at minimal cost.

Although the mail questionnaire has different advantages, meanwhile, it has some disadvantages in compare with other survey methods. Nachiman and Nachiman (1996) listed the disadvantages of the mail survey as follows:

- *Required simple questions.* The mail questionnaire can be used when the questions are straightforward enough to be comprehended solely on the basis of printed instructions and definitions.
- *No opportunity for probing.* The researchers have no opportunity to probe beyond the given answer, to clarify ambiguous answer, or to appraise the non-verbal behaviour of respondents.
- *No control over who fills out the questionnaire.* With a mail questionnaire, researcher has no control over the respondent's environment; hence they cannot be sure that the appropriate person completes the questionnaire.

- *Low response rate.* Perhaps the most serious disadvantage of mail questionnaire is that it is often difficult to obtain an adequate response rate. Nachmias and Nachmias indicated that, “the typical response rate for a personal interview is about 95 percent, whereas the response rate for a mail survey is between 20 and 40 percent” (1996: 226).

From the listed disadvantages of the mail survey, the low response rate is crucial. In administering the survey, it is important to consider the factors affecting the response rate. The difficulty of securing an acceptable response rate to mail questionnaires requires the use of various strategies that can be taken to increase the response rate. Three factors are considerable. First, the sponsorship of a questionnaire has a significant effect in motivating a respondent to fill it out and return it. Therefore information on sponsorship must be included usually in the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire. Secondly, researcher must be appeal to the respondents and persuade them that they should participate by filling out the questionnaire and mailing them back. In this case providing some facilities such as self addressed and stamped envelopes will be very useful.

5.4.2. Interview

One of the most effective methods of gathering primary data in strategic management research is interview. The research interview has been defined as ‘a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific propose of obtaining research relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation’ (Cohen and Manion, 1980: 244). Cohen and Manion argued that as a distinctive research

technique, the interview might serve three purposes. First, it may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. Second, it may be used to test hypotheses or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. Finally, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking (Cohen and Manion, 1980). In the case of opinion and attitude questions especially if they are presented in an open-ended format, the interviewer has the opportunity to make sure that the respondent understands the questions. Interviews are increasingly being used in strategic management research through which in -depth information about peoples, attitudes and values can be elicited. The researcher gains an impression of the respondent, is able to explore issues in greater depth and clarify concepts and definitions. There are more obvious advantages in the use of interview (Kohn and Dipboye, 1998). The process allows the interviewer to encourage the potential respondent to interpret complex questions, to correct the respondent's misunderstandings and to keep track of the interviewee's attention (Judd et al, 1991).

Both questionnaire and interview are powerful instruments in collecting primary data. While for collecting qualitative data in management research, depth interview is considerable instrument. There are four types of interview. Based on research objectives, researcher uses appropriate type of interview. In the standardised or structured interview the wording of questions and the order in which they are asked is the same from one interview to another. The piece of paper, which is held by the interviewer, is the "interview schedule" and that word "schedule" seems to convey the formality of this type of interview (Gilbert, 1993). However, Gilbert has

argued that the second type of interview is Semi-standardised type; here the interviewer asks certain, major questions the same way each time, but is free to alter their sequence and to probe for more information. The interviewer thus able to adapt the research instrument to the level of comprehension and articulacy of the respondent, and to handle the fact that in responding to a question, people often also provide answers to questions we are going to ask later (Gilbert, 1993: 136). The third type of interview is unstructured or informal interviewing. In the case of difference between structured and unstructured interviewing It has been indicated that (Malhotra, 1999), what differentiates this form of interviewing from the structured or semi-structured interview is its open-ended approach. Based on a list of topics, which the interviewer wishes respondents to discuss, questions are flexible and phrased as the interviewer wishes. Context in this type of interview is very important. It is the most informal form of data collection and is often rich in content, which is why it is associated with a qualitative approach (Robson, 1997). Group interviewing is the fourth type of interview. Group interview have special value for those who want to assess how several people work out a common view, or the range of view, about some topic (Gilbert, 1993). In this type of interviewing the topic should be directed and it is up to the interviewer to maintain the focus so that the discussion does not deviate from the main topic. The researcher aims to encourage interaction in the group (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996; Robson, 1997). Group interviewing allow researcher to see how people interact in considering a topic, and how they react to disagreement. Generally, there is no single best way of collecting data. In this research as it will be discussed later, combinations of different types of interviews, more specially semi-structured for gathering the data have been used.

5.4.2.1. Personal interview: advantages and disadvantages

The interview is a kind of conversation; a conversation with a purpose (Robson, 1997). Interviews carried out for research or enquiry purposes are a very commonly used approach, possibly in part because the interview appears to be a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out. The main advantage of interview lies in the quality of data. Interviews are the best instruments when a small number of high quality and detailed responses are considered. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) argued that, flexibility in the questioning process; control of the interview situation; high response rate; and fuller or supplementary information are main advantages of interview. In contrast, higher cost; interviewer bias; and lack of anonymity are the main disadvantages of interview. The relative merit of the interview and the questionnaire has been illustrated in Table 5.4. Interviews offer more flexibility to the interviewer to probe for quality information. Personal interviews have a better chance of acceptance returns, with a low respondents-refusal rate. The sample is less distorted and much wider range of questions can be covered (Gorton and Dool, 1983; Curran and Blackburn, 2001). Robson (1997) argued that, face-to-face interviews offer the possibility of modifying one's line of enquiry, following up interesting responses and investigating underlying motives in a way those postal and other self-administrated questionnaires cannot. In contrast, interviewing is time consuming. In addition in some fields it appears to be increasingly difficult to obtain co-operation from potential interviewees (Robson, 1997).

Table 5.1**Evaluation of interview versus questionnaire**

Criterion	Interview	Questionnaire
Cost	High	Low
Response rate	High	Low
Control of interview situation	High	Low
Applicability to geographically dispersed population	Moderate	High
Applicability to heterogeneous population	High	Low
Collection of detailed information	High	Moderate
Speed	Low	High

Source: Nachmias and Nachmias, (1996: 245)

Interview is an unusual method in that it involves the gathering of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. In this sense, it differs widely from the questionnaire. All tools of research have their own strengths and weaknesses. It is commonly agreed that interviewing is time consuming and costly, nevertheless, the process usually produces a good response rate (Judd et al, 1991; Robson, 1997). It is held that interviewing allows flexibility and adaptability in the process of eliciting information from people (Robson, 1993). Although the interview allows more flexibility, at the same time such flexibility can lead to bias in the way questions are asked, prompts given, and answers recorded. Judd et al (1991), argued that the source of bias lies in the personalities of both interviewer and interviewee. And respondent may create large interviewer's effect and this can influence response. The problem highlights the difficulties in ensuring validity and reliability in the interviewing process.

5.5. Research Design

Social scientific research is characterized by some type of study plan. This plan is conventionally labelled the research design (Leedy, 1974). It is generally agreed that research design is the indication of existing plans that specify how data should be collected and analysed. This plan guides the researcher to follow certain steps in order that both process and outcome be considered valid. Such research therefore, has to indicate certain characteristics and has to follow specific steps. Leedy (1974: 5) considered seven discreet characteristics of an approach to the discovery of truth that we call research. He simply asserts that, 'the prevailing approach to research requires that researcher identify the problems, work out a few hypotheses (logical suppositions, reasonable guesses), gather the data and test the hypotheses in such a way as to prove or disprove them conclusively' (Leedy, 1974: 9). This approach to research has merits, and is a well-recognised way of looking at particular problems, and arriving at certain conclusions.

5.6. Purpose of the Research and the Research Question

In response to this apparent need, an in-depth investigation into the training and development needs of senior managers, in Iranian Car Manufacturing Industry was carried out. It must be noted that training and development needs of the senior managers is an important parameter (second) of their effectiveness. As explained earlier the skills and competencies required by the managers to be effective forms an assessment of their training and development needs. However, this can not be achieved unless, as explained earlier, an insight has been gained to all parameters of effectiveness of which training and development is only one. In this sense the identifications of eight parameters of managerial effectiveness (Analoui's Model,

1999) constitutes the main purpose of this research. It is believed that the above identified parameters including training and development are all responsible for increased effectiveness of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. In other words, the purpose is to assess the role and importance of eight identified parameters for effectiveness of the managers, in particular the second parameter namely managerial knowledge and skills, required for senior managers, as perceived by senior managers in different hierarchical positions in two major car manufacturing industry (CMI) complexes in Iran. In addition to above definition, the purpose was to investigate in the ways of increasing effectiveness of senior managers in 2 major car manufacturing industries in Iran. To achieve this Analoui's model which is consist of 8 parameters for effectiveness, within three context namely individual, organisational and external (environmental) will be used as based for exploring awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational standards, and motivation, degree of demands and constraints, presence of choices and opportunities effectiveness. Based on above suggestions will be made to improve the content and context of senior managers, work. Also implication of the result will be considered other developing countries, especially in the Middle East. These will involve policy implication such as HRD and HRM for government and co-operation involve. The main concern of this research is to explore ways and means by which it would be possible to improve the quality of the top management team in the car manufacturing industry, by assessing the required skills and knowledge, as well as identifying the factors such as interests, motivation, managerial, the need for managerial skills, organisational criteria, the degree of demands and constraints, presence of choices and opportunities for effectiveness, nature of inter-organisational relationships, dominant managerial philosophy, perception and

environment which contribute to the increased effectiveness of the senior managers at work. As a result, the outcome objective of this study is to propose strategic guidelines, policy measures for improving the quality, content of management training, development policies and programmes in the field of the car manufacturing industry in Iran. The outcome of this study to be expected therefore, that the present study will result in performance improvement of the top management team, the organisations and consequently the increased productivity of the CMI in Iran. The present research however, does not intend to evaluate the effectiveness of the past training efforts, nor, does it aim at attempting to measure the managerial effectiveness or performance of the senior managers within this sector. Its main objective is to improve the content, the context and identify the overall senior manager's assessment of the skills perceived to act as essential for their increased effectiveness at both personal and organisational levels. Ultimately, the purpose of this exploratory research is to find out what do the senior managers actually need and wish to receive, and what conditions should be created to make sure that they are more effective in their the training and development efforts are effective. In order to determine if there exists a relationship between the skills required for senior managers' effectiveness as described in the literature and as perceived by the practising senior managers within the car manufacturing industry in Iran, the following questions were explored:

1. Why has Iran suffered from the lack of effective senior managers to achieve the proposed objectives in the car manufacturing section?

2. What kind of skills and knowledge do the senior managers need and what is the outcome of these skills for their effectiveness?
3. What are the main parameters for managerial effectiveness and what are the motivation, obstacles and difficulties in the way of reaching high managerial effectiveness?
4. What personal, organisational, and environmental factors contribute to increasing effectiveness?
5. What is the nature of the relationships between these factors?
6. What HRM policies are required to sustain effectiveness of CMI of senior managers in Iran

The above questions form the bases for an empirical study into the strategy effectiveness of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. Ultimately, the investigation is concerned with the identification of personal, organisational and environmental factors (contexts) that affect the performance of top management teams as well as the constraints that are considered as the major impediments to their development in their organisations.

5.7. Research Hypotheses

The study of the senior managers within Car Manufacturing Industry is set out to empirically examine Analoui's model (Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness

with emphasis on the second parameter: managerial knowledge and skills as a basis for training and development) within the conceptual framework presented above (1991, 1993, 1995, 1997 and 1999). It is interesting to note that recent literature mostly considers senior managers as a homogenous group especially with respect to their training and management development needs. Thus, no significant attempts have been made to examine how various levels of senior management perceive the importance of their required skills, or how the need for skills may vary in accordance with the different demands and constraints experienced by a top management team. More important, there seems to be no clear indication in the literature as to how various managerial skills are interrelated. Katz's (1974) work provides some support for the argument that the hierarchical level in which managers function tends to influence their need for the three broad categories of technical, human, and conceptual skills. He believes that although all three sets of skills are important, they vary in relative importance at different managerial positions. Technical skills is said to be seen as more important by those who function at lower levels of the managerial hierarchy, where as human skills are thought to be essential at all levels. For top management however, conceptual skills become increasingly important. The classification of various managerial skills into three categories is mainly valid by definition. It has been noted that these skills are overlapping in many instance (Katz, 1974). Other writers have also paid attention to the importance of the complementary nature of managerial skills. For example, Whetten and Cameron (1991) conclude that critical management skills are interrelated and support one another. Kakabadse *et al*, (1987) assert that senior managers require a combination of skills for managing themselves, other people

and tasks. Based on the premises set in this framework, and in the light of the above contentions this research sets out to examine the following hypotheses:

1. The general hypothesis is made that senior managers at different levels of the hierarchy place different degrees of importance to a set of managerial skills and knowledge required for their increased effectiveness.
2. It is hypothesized that the perceived importance of the required categories of managerial skills, as the most essential attributes for effectiveness of senior managers (training and development), varies significantly according to the level within the hierarchy of the organisation in which managers are located and perform.
3. It is hypothesized that the higher senior managers climb on the hierarchical ladder the more important they will perceive the self and people related categories of skills for their effectiveness at work. In other words, managers at lower levels of seniority will perceive their effectiveness to be more dependent on task-related skills than on the other two categories.
4. It is hypothesized that there exists a common pattern of interrelationships between the identified set of skills required by managers, these may actually be different from what is theoretically suggested in the literature.

5. As managers are developed, new skills, attitudes and behaviours produce new outlooks, perspectives and orientations. These 'act back' on strategic goals and objectives of further change and develop the organisation.
6. Integrating management development processes with strategic business objectives has proved problematic in the past, in part because organisations have not been able to develop and articulate a coherent business strategy, but because the strategic significance of people has not been fully appreciated.
7. Finally, identifying, measuring and evaluating management development as a source of competitive advantage is a difficult task and few organisations really attempt it, preferring instead to rely upon an ideological commitment to development.

Based on the extensive review of the literature and with reference to the conceptual framework of the research presented earlier in chapter four, it would seem reasonable to expect that, other factors being considered equal, a manager's position in the hierarchy has a positive or complementary effect on the kind of skills and knowledge which are required for his/her effectiveness.

5.8. The Fieldwork

The researcher made some alterations to the process of administering the questionnaires. As it had been arranged the intention was for the researcher administer the questionnaires personally to the senior managers and managerial authorities in five distinct and separate car manufacturing plants so that so that these questionnaires can be completed in his presence. However, lately in accordance with the new governmental plans and policies all these companies have become incorporated, and as a result there are now only two major companies which have more or less the exclusive activities in this field of car manufacturing industry. Therefore, those 135 senior managers, executive directors, deputies, division heads, department heads, and who completed the questionnaires are now organisationally located in these two major companies and not the previous five as it was designated before.

The fieldwork and the data collection phase of the research began in early 2004 and included planning; two fieldwork visits to two major organisations, administering the survey questionnaire and conducting semi-structured interviews. A total of 80 per cent (N=135) was carried out during a fieldwork in Iran from February to April, 2004, spending 80 days in the two large car manufacturing industries plants (complexes) located in the city of Tehran. This provided the researcher with very useful opportunities. First, it was made possible for the researcher to gain some insight to the work of senior managers through direct observation. Second, the researcher was allowed to communicate directly with the respondents and assist them if necessary to complete questionnaire. Thirdly, it was possible to meet those senior managers who were willing to be interviewed and to lay the bedrock and

arrange for the subsequent interviews. Finally, through the fieldwork appropriate opportunities were created to make necessary contacts with those who had the influence to support the researcher with the valuable secondary data required for this research. In addition to what precedes the above, this process proved to be useful in creating the right kind of environment for carrying out the interviews and make requirements subsequent follow up of the questionnaires through formal and informal ways.

5.9. Choosing Car Manufacturing Industry Plant(s)

It is agreed that efforts, which are directed at improving managerial effectiveness and organisational performance, must first focus on a number of strategic organisations in developing countries (Kiggundu, 1989). We shall concentrate on the relationships between organisational strategy and its structure. Chandler (1962) was one of the pioneers in forging the link between strategy and organisational structure. He defined strategic organisation as:

“The determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals” (Chandler, 1962: 13).

Khandwalla and Rao (1987) points out that, Strategic organisations are defined as:

“Those macro-level organisations that are directly involved in promoting socio-economic development”, (Khandwalla and Rao, 1987: 290).

They also include organisations operating in specific sectors that have or take the responsibilities for the development of these sectors. When organisational and management improvement intervention are targeted at strategic organisations, and

when these are successful over a period, the country develops a critical level of national management infrastructure capable of initiating, implementing, and sustaining development programmes. Organisations develop or fail to retain strategic status depending on the overall importance of their tasks for the achievement of national plans and objectives. When a country makes major shifts in its national plans and priorities, there emerges a new set of strategic organisations. For example, before and after Pahlavi dynasty, Iran to certain extent has operated under different sets of strategic organisations (Kiggundu, 1989). However, the car manufacturing industry has maintained its strategic status in the industrial sector of the country since its establishment in 1961, and has even gained more strategic importance after the revolution. Ever since, car industries have been regarded as the most important employment attraction, and have managed, more than ever before, to contribute a substantial share on the economic development of the country.

5.10. Preparation and Method of Analysis

In order to fulfil the objectives of this research, the data collected had to be analysed correctly. Several methods of presentation and analysis of the data were used. The primary data required for this research is based on perceptions and opinions of the senior managers operating in the two organisations involved. It is generated mainly with a survey questionnaire that was designed and tested for this purpose. According to the strategy of the research, the survey questionnaires were then completed by a series of semi-structured interviews with some of the senior managers who were questionnaire respondents, as well as a number of active management trainers and educators. Furthermore, to these direct sources of data

and the researcher's observation in the course of the fieldwork, secondary data was also sought from various sources including the documents and publications of organisations, relevant statistics and literature regarding the industry, and many other sources. All this documentary and literary evidence have been used throughout the analysis stage and while examining the applicability and relevant of the hypotheses in relation to the results of this research. Detailed discussion of each of the above will follow later in this chapter.

5.11. Sampling Procedure

It was decided from the beginning that rather than carrying out a macro survey that would not yield the in-depth information required, it would be more effective to study the problem on a limited scale, but in more depth. It was also important that the sample should be a true representative of the population. Bearing in mind the overall objective of this research it was also important that the sample would come from a sector or an industry that has a substantial share in the economic development of the country. The car manufacturing industry offered the best choice for meeting these criteria. Mintzberg (1979) believes that the choice of a sample should be made in accordance with the research objectives. In this research, there were no sampling rules such as, random or quota sampling, applied since the group were clearly identified by their position in the organisations. As Casley and Kumar (1988) note;

"The selection of the individuals or groups may be done purposely and deliberately according to required characteristics rather than random from the population", (Casley and Kumar, 1988: 5).

The participants were selected therefore, to include all 108 (80 percent of the total 135) senior managers from the five main cars industries with extensive work experience in these organisations that were officially performing executive functions and at time were involved in the process of policy making at their posts. The assessment was carried out in both organisations by means of a six-part questionnaire that was designed and tested for this purpose (Appendix I). To ensure the validity of the data sought a combination of structured and a few open-ended questions were used throughout the questionnaire. In total 108 questionnaires were distributed amongst the whole population of senior managers in all organisations under investigation. The questionnaire was self administered and in many cases was offered to participants after an informal relationship had been established. As Ball (1984) suggests, making valid conclusions, a sample should possibly represent the population being considered. In this case, 108 a total 108 useable questionnaires were received which represents almost an 80 percent response rate. It is important to note that the initial number of 135 senior managers together account for the bulk of these cars industries in Iran which can be considered the whole population of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry. Thus, whenever reference is made to the sample of senior managers it refers to the number of the participants in the survey that is actually too large to be considered a sample. This sample of senior management included 2 chief executive directors, 27 deputy executives and divisional heads, 14 heads of department and 26 operation senior managers. Individual senior managers from all functional areas such as Personnel, Finance, Marketing, Purchasing, Research and Technology and Production were included in the sample. With respect to the limited number of participants in executive level, reference is made to the contention that Mintzberg

(1979) points out 'the choice of a sample clearly depends on what is to be studied and that there is nothing wrong with the small sample, which have often proved superior in providing in-depth data' (Mintzberg, 1979 : 583-4).

5.12. Categories of Managers and Hierarchical Levels

Williams (2002) points out that, 'along the vertical dimension, managerial jobs in organisations fall into three categories: first-line managers include: office manager, shift supervisor, department manager, non-managerial worker, and supervisor'. Middle managers include general manager, plan manager, regional manager, and divisional manager. Top managers include CEO (Chief Executive officer), COO (Chief Operating Officer), vice-president, and corporate head manager.

5.12.1. First-line managers or first-line supervisors

These managers are at the lowest level of the hierarchy who are directly responsible for the work of operating, non-managerial) employees.

5.14.2 Middle Managers

These managers are located beneath the top levels of the hierarchy who are directly responsible for the work of managers at lower levels.

5.12.3. Top Managers (Senior Mangers)

These managers are at the highest levels of the hierarchy who are ultimately responsible for the entire organisation. They are few in number, and their typical titles include 'chief executive officer' (CEO) or chief operating officer (COO), 'president', 'executive vice president', 'executive director', 'senior vice president', and

sometimes, and 'vice president.' Top-level managers are often referred to as executives, although the term 'executive' is also sometimes used to include the upper layers of middle managers as well. Top managers have direct responsibility for the upper layer of middle managers. They typically oversee and administer the overall planning for the organisation, work to some degree with middle managers in implementing that planning, and maintain overall control over the progress of the organisation. In other words, top managers have the following responsibilities.

First, they are responsible for creating a context for change. In fact, the CEOs of American Express, General Motors, Digital Equipment Corporation, Westinghouse, and Kodak were all fired within a year's time precisely because they had not moved fast enough to bring about significant changes in their companies (Fry & Srivastva, 1990: 42). Creating a context for change also includes forming a long-range vision or mission for their companies. As one CEO said, 'The CEO has to think about the future more than anyone'.

Second, top managers are responsible for helping employees develop a sense of commitment to the business.

Third, top managers are responsible for creating a positive organisational culture through language and action. Top managers impart company values, strategies, and lessons through what they do and say to others, both inside and outside the company.

Finally, top managers are responsible for monitoring their business environments. This means that top (senior) managers must closely monitor customer needs, competitors' moves, and long-term business, economic, and social trends.

5.13. Management at Different Levels

Fayol (1949) and Mintzberg (1973) had one thing in common—they both restricted and controlled their discussion of managerial behaviour to the highest level of executive leadership. Fayol was a CEO and Mintzberg structured his sample to include only CEOs (Duncan, 1999: 32). Interestingly, this focus on the top level of management has continued, and today there is a body of literature on the subject. In fact, the literature is so expensive that in the following discussion special attention has been paid to CEOs. First however, it is important to deal with the other levels of management.

Four levels of senior management were identified based on the secondary data extracted from top management charts of the organisations and management inventory sheets. These levels included:

1. Top management team such as chief executives, board members, and general managers;
2. Senior managers such as deputy chief executives, division heads, and senior staff officers;
3. Department heads and functional staff specialists;
4. Operation senior managers and area managers in charge of various technical operations and direct production.

The above classification not only served the research purpose, but also made it possible to avoid confusion and disorder of the various position titles.

5.14. Survey and Structure of Questionnaire

The term 'questionnaire' has been used in different ways. Some practitioners and specialists would reserve the term exclusively for self-administered and postal questionnaires, while others would include interview schedules (administered face-to-face or by telephone) under the general rubric, heading and title of 'questionnaires' (Oppenheim, 1996: 100). In a different way the word 'questionnaire' is sometimes used to distinguish a set of questions including perhaps some open-ended ones, from more rigidly and lacking flexibility constructed scales of tests. The use of questionnaires to gather large amounts of data statistically sampled from a given population is now widely accepted in social science research. The design of the questionnaire is the most important. The questionnaires employed in this research were developed with reference to appropriate research literature and amended and improved through the use of a review study. They were developed in six interrelated sections, and each section was designated to a set of questions aimed at generating different data with respect to the various dimensions of the research and the major questions addressed in its context and framework. In other words, the pertinent questions related to the parameters of the effectiveness and in particular the training and development and the three contextual factors appeared in all sections in particular section seven of the questionnaire. The initial draft questionnaire was finalized after being reviewed four times by the researcher and the project supervisor. Then this questionnaire was organised into a coherent framework, established on a logical and sequential flow of material and was structured into the following six main sections.

The section one contains questions that are intended to provide the kind of information on who actually responded to the questions and participated in the survey and later in the interviews. It consists of general background information about the respondent's ages, positions, qualifications, work experiences and employment that are usually called 'demographic data'.

Section two seeks information about the senior managers' job and consists of six questions about their span of supervision, number of superiors and their managerial roles and responsibilities. Two additional questions about the importance of communication and the demanding aspects of their jobs are also included.

Section three contains fourteen questions dealing with the respondents' attitudes regarding their training experiences, their expectations, and the impact of such trainings. Additional questions are related to the appropriateness of the training contents, methods and resources. The last question in this section is designed to identify the major obstacles to development of senior managers in their organisations.

The section four is related to the core of managerial effectiveness. It includes twenty one items used as main measures in this study to assess the importance of the required managerial skills, as perceived by senior managers to be important for their effectiveness. An additional question is asked to measure the importance of the three broad categories of skills as they relate to respondents' career development.

The section five consists of a series of 21 items relating to a set of needs and incentives of the participant senior managers. These needs and incentives will explain what actually motivates senior managers at work and helps to maintain their quality performance at their jobs.

Section six seeks to elicit data relating to those factors that may have contributed to the satisfactory performance of senior managers. Three final open-ended questions are also added to identify what range of personal, organisational, and environmental factors have affected senior managers' effectiveness. The closed arrangement was mainly used throughout the questionnaire in all sections. This kind of arrangement was employed to measure those attitudes, knowledge, and skills that are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers. Different forms of the closed-ended questions were designed to match the nature of the data sought. They were designed to provide 'tick' responses; yes/no/don't know answers and questions that asked respondents to rate their response against a five or three point in Likert scale. For example, having identified the extent of influence of various openly understood factors on effective performance, participants were then asked to name some personal attributes, organisational and environmental factors which contribute to their effectiveness and enhance their good performance. The open-ended questions were used mostly in section two and in the closing of section six. Where appropriate, at the end of each set of closed-ended questions, one open question was also posed. To ensure the validity of the instrument the questionnaire was then presented to five senior managers who at the time were attending a training workshop at the Industrial Management Organisation. The questionnaire was then administered in the following manner:

1. As access to the organisations required substantial negotiation, prior to origination of the fieldwork, permission was obtained from the Iranian Ministry of Industry and Trade through correspondence with the firms and introducing the researcher to the training departments of the concerned organisations (Five important cars industries in Tehran).
2. Several letters were also sent to the chief executive of five organisations, explaining the purpose of the research and asking for their permission and co-operation in this regard.
3. Before visiting the organisations, influential agents were asked to provide the right opportunities for seeing the right people. It was interesting to learn that knowing informal contacts plays an important facilitating role in research of this kind.
4. In response to the above-mentioned letters, referral had been made by one of the chief executives to the company's research committee that they should invite the researcher to attend one of their meetings so that they can learn about the objectives of the study and make the necessary arrangements for the survey to precede. Upon the approval of this committee, a research officer of the company was assigned to help the researcher throughout this phase. A list of all senior managers was then obtained and in many instances, the questionnaire was personally offered to the senior managers while the researcher was being introduced by the company's research personnel. A connection was made possible in a way that provided excellent opportunities for the arrangement of later interviews. In the cases where senior managers worked in the plant, questionnaires were distributed through company's internal mail system.

5. Other remaining companies were approached with the help of academic contacts who were at the time engaged in some other research projects in those companies. With their assistance, the researcher was introduced to the senior manager in charge of the training department and the questionnaires were administered and distributed in exactly the same way as described above.
6. Two weeks were spent in each organisation and the participants were informed that they should contact the researcher in case they needed help to understand all questions. During this time, the respondent senior managers were visited for arrangements of later interviews. Through these contacts the possible misinterpretation of the questions was kept to a minimum and the quality of the data as well as the high response rate was ensured.
7. A follow up exercise was carried out after two weeks to check the return of the remaining questionnaires that had not yet been sent back. This decision substantially increased the rate of return.

The section seven of the questionnaire is related to the eight major clusters of influences, referred to here as "parameters", of managerial effectiveness, namely: the senior managers' perception; skills and knowledge; organisational criteria; motivation for effectiveness; constraints and difficulties; choices and opportunities; inter-organisational relationships, and finally dominant managerial philosophy are discussed briefly. Based on the analysis of the above, relevant conclusions are reached and the need for further research and the adoption of a holistic approach to public sector reform as a means of achieving increased managerial effectiveness are emphasised. In this respect, the researcher tends to examine and tests eight

parameters of managerial effectiveness in field of the five major car manufacturing industries in Iran. To do this Analoui's model for effectiveness eight parameters has been used as based for exploring awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational standards, motivations, degree of demands and constraints, presence of choices and opportunities effectiveness and so on.

Based on above suggestions have been made to improve the content and context of senior manager work. Also implication of the result will be considered other developing countries, especially in the Middle East. These will involve policy implication such as human resources development and human resources management (HRD and HRM) for government and co-operation involve. Ultimately, the analysis of the finding will be resulted in the identification of groups of causal and behavioural influences, independent as a category but interdependent on one another. Each revealed one aspect associated with managerial effectiveness. The subjects of the research are subsequently referred to as "parameters" of managerial effectiveness. Analoui (1999) points out that, "These parameters pointed to individual but also internal and other external contextual factors which as a determined the senior managers' effectiveness" (Analoui, 1999: 367). These parameters have been discussed in chapter two (Literature Review).

5.15. The Process of the Research Interviews

Face-to-face interviews that were conducted in Iran during the period of June and September 2003 provided valuable information. Eighty-eight individuals from diverse backgrounds were interviewed. The duration of each interview varied from 60 minutes to one and half hours depending on the depth and requirements of the

discussions. The researcher originally expected to conduct 88 interviews during the period of this study, but due to difficulties in timetabling only two interviews were possible to be covered in a week. Contacts were made by telephone, fax and E-mails in order to schedule the interviews. According to the preceding precepts, to enhance the quality of the survey questionnaire; a number of semi-structured interviews were also carried out with five groups of people; the most important was with a number of respondent senior managers, management training and university management educators.

The selection of senior managers from five different levels of the organisations that were related to car industries in Iran was carried out with a view that five or more senior managers from each level should be interviewed in each organisation. The other remaining groups were selected on the basis of their experience, for example, active participation and direct involvement in the designing and teaching formal and informal management development programmes at five leading management schools in Industrial Management Organisation and also an expert from car manufacturing industries namely, Iran Khodro, Saipa, Bahman, Zamyad, former Iran Kaveh, and Deeyar Khodro. In total eighteen interviews were conducted with both groups which were later classified according to the seniority levels of participant senior managers.

Given the work pressure and the tight timetable of senior managers, it was anticipated to limit the interviews to a maximum duration of one hour. Having made proper arrangements through informal channels and personal contacts, the respondents were persuaded to participate in interviews. Making sure in advance

that the interviewees completely agreed with the procedure and felt free to express themselves, a tape recorder was also used to record the content of the interview.

1. Views of senior managers about their perceived need for self and career development.
2. The importance of management training, its status, and its overall assessment.
3. The requirements of managerial effectiveness and improved performance.
4. The nature of managerial skills, their diversity and the managerial positions.
5. The criterion of managerial success and how it can be achieved.
6. The nature of their jobs and the aspects of their managerial responsibilities including inter-organisation relationships and its impacts on their effectiveness.
7. Problems and obstacles of management development.
8. The overall factors contributing to quality performance.
9. Assessment of the organisation's policies and culture.

The interview process usually started with the researcher first briefing the interviewee about the background, importance, and objectives of this kind of research for the development of senior managers and their organisations. It was also clear that the academic background and experience of the researcher have helped to talk about their beliefs and attitudes, particularly in those instances that the interview was arranged through the assistance of informal contacts. However, almost all interviewees seemed to be very much interested in the subject of discussion. Many participants were enthusiastic about the issues raised and

commented that it was the first time ever that a research was based on a real issue which directly related to their development. Although the main topics of the interviews were written down on the interview sheet, they were not necessarily discussed in the same sequential order.

Regardless of the interruptions caused by unexpected phone calls and visits, the willingness of the senior managers to discuss their views, revealed valuable information. Therefore, before the time of an interview was terminated, the interview schedule was reviewed to ensure that all questions had been asked and answered. After that, each completed interview programme was checked by the researcher soon afterwards before fresh interviewing began. However, if the interviews had been focused on fewer topics that directly related to the main questions of the research, more in-depth information would have been elicited from the limited time of the interviews. Nevertheless, the semi-structured arrangement allowed more flexibility while at the same time increased the reliability of the data by assessing the interviewee's views against the same measures (questions) in almost all interviews. As to the quality of the data collected, it must be emphasised that every effort was made to collect data without fail. As a result, a major reason for these interviews was to check on the respondent's understanding of our questionnaire and on our understanding of their answers.

5.16. The Data Measurement Consideration

Questionnaire responses can be qualified by assigning numbers to the responses according to a given set of rules. This is what is understood by measurement (Cohen and Holliday, 1982). In this regard, operationalization of a concept refers to

the whole process of selecting a working definition, choosing a unit of analysis, deciding on the variable name, and finally deciding on a level of measurement for that variable. It has been argued (Miller, 1991; Malhotra, 1999) that, level of measurement describes the degree of accuracy and detail in a variable's possible value. Measurement can be made at three levels: nominal, ordinal, and continuous (interval and ratio). Table 5.5 illustrates some of example of the current research variables which have been measured in three levels. Nominal scales, which are the least sophisticated level of measurement, are used to place variables into categories with respect to some characteristics. In this research some of variables such as gender, and firm activity measured by nominal scale. For example, numbers were assigned to categories, '1' for male and '2' for female. Also respondents were asked to indicate having written business plan by indicating '1' for yes and '2' for no. More importantly ordinal scales were used when the respondents were asked for responses in the form of rank ordering. In ordinal scale while the evidence is put into categories, the numbers assigned indicate the ordering of the categories. However, while there is order in the numbers assigned, the intervals between the numbers have no meaning (Remenyi et al, 1998). For example, respondents were asked to rate the degree of emphasis for each of following indicators within their organisations: mission statement, short term plans, long term plans, competitor analysis. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The third and final level of measurement is called the continuous, ratio, or interval scale. Remenyi et al, (1998) argued that, 'rating scales' are strictly speaking ordinal. However, in practice, especially in the management area, these are treated as being measured at the interval level' (Remenyi et al, 1998: 153). Evidence based on interval scales can be analysed by virtually the full range of statistical procedures such as the mean,

standard deviation, and Pearson's correlation coefficient. In practice, although, survey generally made most use of evidence at the ordinal level, some of the variables were measured in continuous scales. Variables such as number of employees of the firm, amount of turnover of the firm, duration of business plan preparation are examples of the variables which measured in continuous scale.

5.17. Analysing the Research Data

The first stage in the analysis of a new data set is usually to get the 'marginal frequency distributions', (Gilbert, 1997: 241). Therefore, taking into consideration the purpose of the research, one can say that it seemed necessary that the best relevant evidence should be collected, especially when there are descriptive statistics available for analysing research results (Carver, 1978). In this respect, the statistical analysis is seen as one of the most fear-provoking and mysterious (some would even say 'mystified') stages of the survey research process (Gilbert, 1997: 239). In other words, in considering the nature of the data, the descriptive statistics, therefore, provide the best possible tool for the analysis of the data. In this regards, the first stage in the analysis of a new data set is usually to get the population of the senior managers within the car manufacturing industry. According to the nature of this study, the researcher decided to use two statistical procedures, descriptive statistics and factor analysis technique. In both cases, the responses to questions generating quantitative data were loaded on the most commonly used computer software for survey analysis is SPSS (the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The emerging results were then presented in tabular and sometimes graphic forms. The analysis in this chapter focuses on the combination of the data of the whole sample.

Descriptive statistics such as percentage, means, and standard deviation were widely used and the results were presented in tabular forms. The analysis of the data is therefore, best approached by comparison of ranked means of the perceptions of senior managers as a whole and at five different levels concerning questions relating to their training and development needs with respect to various managerial skills as well as their opinion about the importance of management training and development, their motivational factors, their development obstacles, and those factors which have contributed to their effective performance at their jobs. Ultimately, the examination of the research hypotheses was also made possible through the use of descriptive statistics. The results derived were later used to test the research hypotheses. Where one item response was required, these have been listed in terms of numbers and percentage of their incidences across the whole sample. In addition, the few questions that required selections from alternatives provided, for example the preferred methods of management development, the number of respondents in each level and the percentage in the sample are listed. In questions where responses had to be stated in order of their significance, the results have been ranked by number of their occurrence.

5.18 Problems and Limitations

The co-operation received during the fieldwork from all people involved (senior managers, specialists, educators and experts) were exceptional. However, as it is in the case of all researches such as this study, a few problems and limitations were confronted. In addition to the shortage and nature of research literature and the availability of primary data, such as interviews, postal questionnaires, content

analysis of records, observational techniques and so on; the following problems created themselves during the fieldwork of this research:

1. The plants were located some thirty to forty Kilometres away from city of Tehran which posed the problem of transportation, and thus, forcing the researcher to be constantly on the move and to start the work, by catching the staff transport of those organisations as early as possible.
2. Bureaucratic hindrances were time and energy consuming, especially in the case of getting access to documentary information. However, through the assistance of informal contacts, many of them were eliminated.
3. The extra pressure and demands on senior managers, which caused limited the number and length of the interviews, but also led to a great waste of time behind closed doors, and even the cancellation and postponement of some interviews.
4. Meeting environment was sometimes problematic due to interruptions by unexpected phone calls and visits. Although the time of interviews were normally scheduled for 40 to 60 minutes, in some cases, the researcher spent several hours with the interviewees listening to the phone conversations and observing his actual behaviour in dealing with the unexpected.

5. Limited time also caused great pressure and concern for the researcher. If it were not because of the informal channels, this level of co-operation would have not been achieved.
6. Translation of relevant literature and secondary data proved to be an even more time-consuming task than expected and put extra pressure on the researcher in almost all phases of the research.

The researcher's 28 years of experience with policy design in car manufacturing industries, and his professional background, familiarity with the culture, and the exceptional support of all the parties involved made it possible to overcome many of the above problems.

5.19. Conclusion

This chapter has presented a description of the methodology, data collection and method of analysis that greatly depends on the subject matter, discipline base, research objectives and research design for the analysis this would in turn form the empirical main body of the analysis. A more general approach was adopted upon distributing a large number of questionnaires, accompanied by follow-up interviews and detailed firm's records. In this respect, two car manufacturing industries represented the majority of Iranian firms as main subject matters.

Many factors had to be considered. The most important one is the nature of the study and the purpose of the research. When the purpose is to obtain a real perception of what people actually do and to find out what their needs are, a single method would not ensure the generation of sufficient and relevant data. In the case of the present research, a multiple method strategy offers many advantages and allows each method to compensate for the weakness of others, and therefore

enhancing the validity and reliability of the required data. However, the qualitative data gains more importance and the fieldwork is proved essential in studying the perceptions of senior managers about the factors that contribute to their effectiveness and the things that enhance their performance. According to the strategy formulated, the quantitative data produced by the survey is in some respects a means of validating qualitative data and vice versa, and any difference of opinion which occurs between the two will identify areas for future research. The fundamental idea underpinning and base the approach on outlined here is that attention must be given to all aspects of the questioning process if a satisfactory response rate and valuable data are to be obtained. As the nature of the research requires questionnaires and interview schedules should be tested, revised and edited several times before being used for the survey. As the analysis of questionnaire-based data relies essentially on the interviews and on the consensus of replies, the researcher is satisfied that the procedure outlined above has minimised such prejudice and bias.

Next chapter will review the development of an overview of the finding and analysis.

CHAPTER SIX: MAIN FINDINGS AND DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents a descriptive analysis of the primary data which was mainly generated through the applications survey questionnaires in relation to views and perceptions of senior managers about the main questions of the research. Following the same sequential pattern as in the questionnaire, the analysis of the collected data which has been classified and tabulated will be presented in seven sections. In section one the analysis of the demographic profile of the participant senior managers is introduced. This section focuses on what is usually called demographic data. These include their age, gender, qualification, work experience, employment and their roles and responsibilities in their present jobs. In addition to the above, the perceptions of the senior managers about the importance of communication and what are the most demands aspects of their job is also included. Section two concentrates on the nature of the senior managers' roles in car manufacturing industry in Iran. The data related to the nature of managerial work, importance of communication in managerial work, and so on are analysed and presented in details. In section three, the data related to the parameters affecting managerial effectiveness are analysed. These include managerial perception, managerial skills, organisational criteria, motivation, the degree of demand and constraints, presence of choices and opportunities for effectiveness, inter-organisational relationship, and dominant managerial philosophy. In this section factors affecting performance are also analysed. In the section four management training and development as a central issue in ICM will be addressed. Then collected data related to the training

and improved performance, staff career development, need for training in ICM, participation in management training and other related issues will be analysed. Finally the chapter ends with a summary and conclusion.

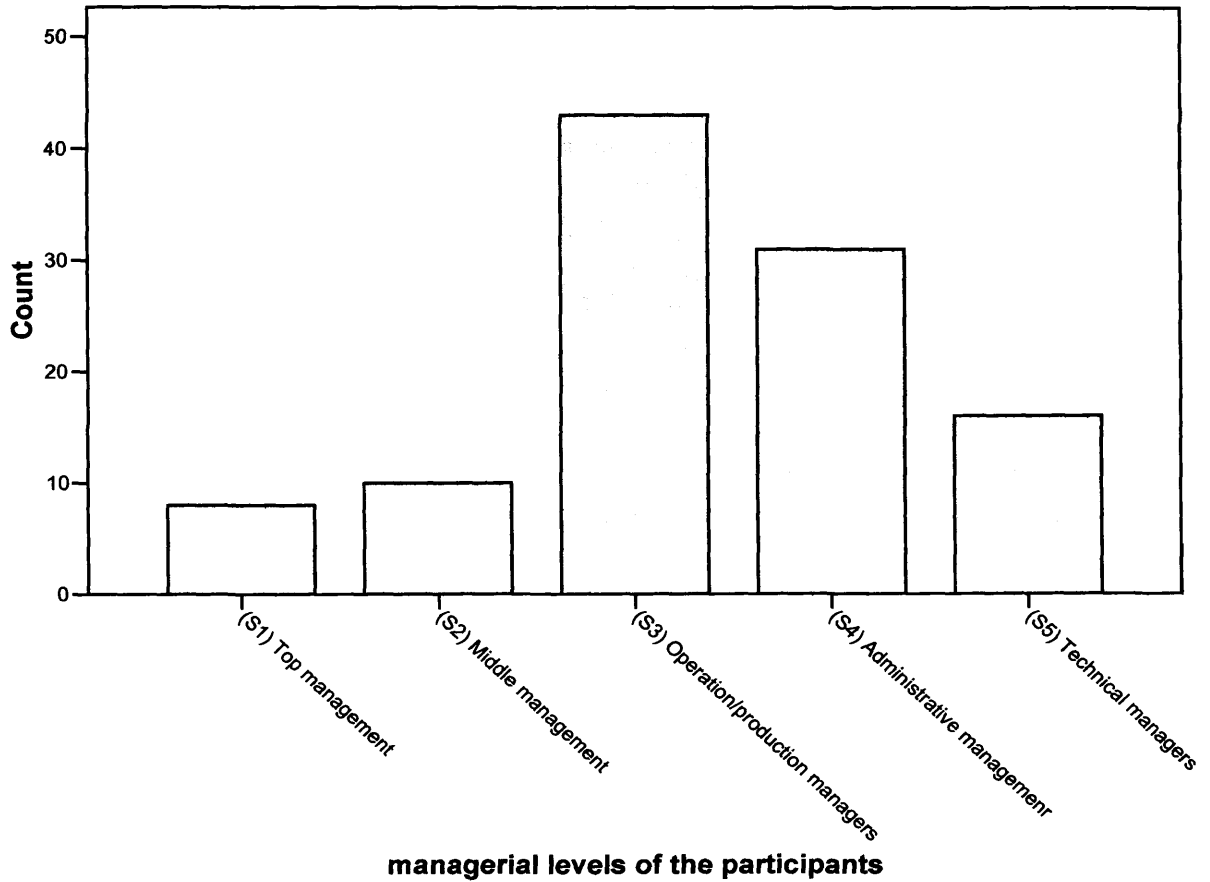
6.1 Research Population and Demographic Data

To draw a correct profile of the senior managers within Car Manufacturing Industry, a number of interrelated questions were asked in section one of the survey questionnaire relating to the respondents' qualifications, ages, work experiences and employment. Demographic data provided valuable information concerning who took part in the survey and later participated in the interviews. The analysis of the data and the relevant findings are discussed in brief.

6.1.1 Respondents' Positions in the Organisations

As pointed out in the previous chapter, from a total number of 135 senior managers in main car manufacturing companies who were targeted for this research received the questionnaire, 108 useable questionnaires were completed and returned to the researcher, which brings the response rate to 80 per cent (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1
Distribution of the Senior Managers by the Level of Hierarchy



From a sample of 108 senior managers, eight (7.4%) respondents were the top management (S1); ten (9.3%) respondents were the middle managers (S2) of the studied firms. The largest group in the survey were operation/production managers (S3) (N=43, 39.8%). A number of 31 (28.7%) respondents were in charge of different administrative (S4) duties and responsibilities within the studies car manufacturing firms. They were sitting on the board of directors who are in charge of making the strategic decisions for the firms. The last groups of participants were 16 (14.8%)

senior technical managers (S5) in charge of the engineering and production departments from the studied firms.

6.1.2 Respondents' Age

As shown in table 6.1, the ages of the senior managers were widely spread between the youngest aged 31, to the oldest aged 60. It has been found that, the first group of managers (30-39 years old) is the largest group in this study. The age group between 40 and 49 is the second largest group in the studied firms. Adding these two groups together, will bring a number of 96 (88.9%) for the first two groups. In other word, in car manufacturing industry in Iran, the ages between 30 and 49 are the dominant age groups of the managers. This may also suggest that in recent years a movement towards recruiting a younger generation of senior managers has already taken place. In general a total number of 11 respondents, representing approximately 10.2 percent of the senior managers were in the 50-59 age grouping. As noted earlier, the majority of senior managers (N=63) which represent 58.3 percent of the respondents were in the age group 30-39. In contrast the smallest (N=1, .09%) number of senior managers were in age group of 60-69.

As shown in table 1.6 the relatively high number of senior managers in the older age groups does not necessarily suggest that the more experienced the senior managers the more likely they are to occupy the most senior positions in the organisation. On the contrary, cross tabulation of the age group of respondents by their positions in the hierarchy both organisations seems to suggest that the

majority of managers in the older age groups are actually occupying less senior positions than expected.

Table 6.1
Managerial levels of the participants' age of the respondents Cross tabulation

Categories of Participants		age of the respondents				Total
		30 - 39 years old	40 - 49 years old	50 - 59 years old	60 - 69 years old	
managerial levels of the participants	top management	3	2	2	1	8
	middle management	8	2	0	0	10
	operation/ production managers	23	15	5	0	43
	administrative management	19	11	1	0	31
	technical managers	10	3	3	0	16
Total		63	33	11	1	108

This is possibly due to the recent movement in the structure of the management system in the automobile manufacturing organisations in Iran. For instance, the universities have been contributed into increasing the number of graduates in the fields of management. It seems that car manufacturing industry has been influenced by this movement, and consequently, the younger managers with high management qualifications been recruited by the firms. As it will be discussed later,

some of the firms in car manufacturing industry promote managers from the internal resources of the organisation. In such circumstances, possibly the specific management techniques such as succession planning would be beneficial. As Mozina (1982) argues the explanation for such instances is reported to be the inadequate recruitment policies and insufficient promotion system within the public enterprises in developing countries (Mozina, 1982).

6.1.3 Professional Work Experience

Two interrelated issues are the focus of question 5 and 6 in the first section of the questionnaire; a) The number of years of experience in present post; and, b) The total length of service in the organisations. The data presented in table 6.2 indicates that the number of years in their present posts amongst the respondents were in the range of one month to a maximum of fifteen years with both cases being in B organisation which is incidentally a much older established organisation and the first of its kind in the country.

Table 6.2

Distribution of Total Respondents in Terms of Years of Experience in their Present Posts in Both Organisations A & B

Category	No. in A Org.	Percentage %	No. in B Org.	Percentage %	Total Number	Total Percent
Less than A year						
1-3	1	2	1	2	2	2
4-6	8	14	6	12	14	13
7-9	5	8	4	8	9	8
10-12	35	58	22	46	57	53
13-15	11	18	15	32	26	24
Total	60	100%	48	100%	108	100%

Analysis of the data revealed that the average number of years of managerial experience in their present posts for senior managers for both organisations is 5.18 years. Table 6.4 indicates that on the whole 14 respondents (13 percent) have 1-3 years and 9 respondents (8 percent) have 4-6 years of managerial experience in their present posts. Further analysis of the data also suggests that almost 13% of the respondents (N=9) have only up to nine years experience in their jobs. Also that just under half of those senior managers (N=14) who have nearly completed their third year in their present posts would not be able to keep them for a longer period.

Furthermore, from those senior managers who have already kept their jobs by the end of the third year, more than half (N=9) will presumably be able to hold their posts up to six years, and only 5 will continue to hold their positions for up to twelve years. It is interesting to note that the majority of those senior managers who

hold their positions for a period of more than three years belong to either the third (S3) or fourth (S4) levels of senior management. Comparison of two organisations with respect to the above phenomenon seems to indicate fairly similar pictures, except that in the categories of 10-12 and 13-15, the numbers of senior managers are more than double in the organisation B. Cross tabulation of the age of the respondents with their number of years in the posts (see Table 6.3). Table 1.5 shows that the promotion of the respondents to senior management positions usually starts at the age of 36 which is normally 10 to 12 years after their recruitment and that the older senior managers tend to hold their position for a longer period of time. Thus, for new recruits, who are generally selected from college graduates and begin their professional career as a technical specialist, to climb up to the senior management levels, ten to fifteen years of work experience is required. This promotion pattern is basically based on the level of work experience and both formal and professional qualifications. Further investigation, however, suggests that the above measures are not always the only criteria taken into consideration in the process of promotion and recruitment of the senior managers in these organisations.

Table 6.3

Cross Tabulation of Age of the Respondents by Their Years of Experience in Third Present Posts

Categories	Years in post					Total	
Age group	Less than one year	1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15	
30-39		3			13		16
40-49		1	5	2	20	10	38
50-59			8	5	12	4	29
60-69			1	4	12	8	25
Total		4	14	11	57	22	108

The data also indicates that there is a direct relationship between the seniority level of the respondents and their average numbers of years in the post, meaning that the permanent status of the post increases as senior managers are lower down in the hierarchy. Thus, the appointment of managers to senior positions are often determined by the outcome of the frequent changes which take place in the political arena, and will some feeling of job insecurity in the incumbents which in the past has usually been remedied for through wider support by ministers. It is also interesting to know that further analysis of the data indicated that in seven instances, the tenures of senior managers equal their number of years in service.

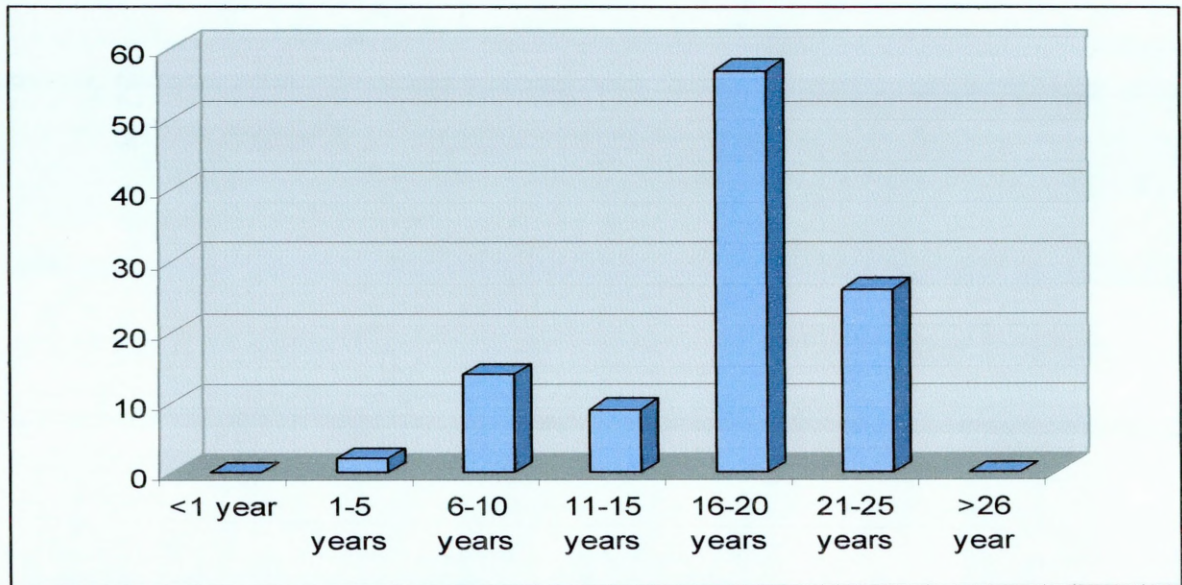
6.1.4 Years of Service and Organisational Status

Analysis of the data reveals that (see Figure 6.2) the average number of years in service for the total number of senior managers in both organisations is 15.5 years.

This figure tends to decrease to 11.9 years for the senior managers in organisation A, whereas, it increases to 18.4 years for the senior managers in organisation B. Considering the data presented above and comparing the average number of years in post 5.18, with the average number of years in service 15.5 may perhaps indicate that the usual time span for a college graduate recruit of 25 years old who has already completed two years of compulsory military services, in order to get to senior management position requires a minimum of ten years experience. Further analysis of the data indicated that the number of years in an organisation varied from eight months to a maximum of 26 years in service; both cases were in organisation B. As shown in table 1.5, thirty nine respondents (54.8 percent) have more than fifteen years in service of which thirty two respondents (82 percent) are in organisation A. Another specific feature of organisation B with respect to its senior manager's length of service is that there is not a single senior manager in between the two middle categories of 6-15 years in service.

It is important to note however, that in public enterprises such as these, promotion to senior management positions is usually not entirely based on the result of the systematic and objective assessment of the individual's work experience, job performance and qualifications but, rather it is based on subjective merit appraised by their immediate superiors.

Figure 6.2
Distribution of the Respondents in Terms of number of Years



Thus, the individual's level of obedience and their respect for authority is reported to have considerable influence on the promotion decisions within public enterprises and government service organisations. The data indicates that quite a number of senior managers have been rapidly promoted to higher levels of management. The danger in this kind of promotional approach is that the senior managers who, irrespective of their qualifications and experiences, have reached a senior position in their early forties may well perform their job with limited scope and authority. Most likely, senior management positions especially those in the higher ranks must be reached as a terminal position, especially when these top positions are limited in number and senior managers are in their fifties or even older so that they can always look up to them as a career challenge. What emerges from all this is that poor implementation of personnel policies especially in the areas of selection and

promotion may well pronounce the existence of a crucial problem confronting effective managerial performance. Thus, the need for thoroughly planned recruitment policies that will ensure the development and growth of human resources cannot be overemphasized.

6.1.5 Educational and Professional Qualification

The data on the educational qualifications of the senior managers are presented in table 6.4. As expected the majority of the participant senior managers (N=41, 39 percent) have specialized in engineering fields followed by social and natural sciences including economics, law, physic, and computer (N=16, 16 percent), as well as, other disciplines mainly management (N=7, 6 percent), accounting and finance (N=6, 5 percent). It is important to note however, that either the first or the second level participant senior managers (N=14, 11 percent) from both organisations (A and B) have been specialized in management subjects. Only two senior managers whose first degrees are in management are from B organisation, and the other five are from organisation A. This is perhaps due to the notion that the professional status of management has been increasingly recognized both in industry and academic arenas over the past ten years, providing for a greater number of university management graduates to be recruited in younger establishments such as organisation A. The analysis of the results indicates that 93 (86%) senior managers in both organisations have possessed at least a first university degree in various subjects. The remaining (N=15, 14%) have been categorised as high school graduates or the other non-university qualifications. Further analysis of the data seems to suggest that a graduate degree is the minimum educational qualification

for the recruitment of the professional staff in the car manufacturing industry (CMI) in Iran; although a post graduate university degree is preferred in some cases.

Table 4.6.
Educational Qualification of the Senior Managers.

Respondents' Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
Non-University qualifications	15	0.14
BA in Management	7	0.06
BA in Accounting-finance	6	0.05
BS in Engineering	41	0.39
Other BA Degrees (Social/natural sciences	16	0.16
MBA	5	0.04
MSc in Industrial management	6	0.06
MA in Finance	1	0.01
MSc in Engineering	8	0.07
PH.D in engineering	1	0.01
Ph.D in Management	2	0.01
Total	108	1

The data further indicates that most of the senior managers have also acquired their Masters prior to their recruitment, the majority of which have MSc in engineering (N=8, 7%), followed by MSc in industrial management (N=6, 6%), Master of Business Administration MBA (N=6, 6%), and one senior manager who has earned

an MA in finance (1 percent). There are also 2 senior managers (1 percent) with a Doctoral Degree in management and 1 participant who had a Ph.D. in engineering. Moreover, those senior managers with formal education in management are actually in the third level of the hierarchy of both organisations. This may well be an indication that the standard job specifications of senior management posts in the higher levels of the hierarchy do not necessarily demand formal management educational qualifications from their incumbents. This is further verified when the current job specifications are considered, where it is found that even though the jobs are managerial in nature and are designed to be management positions in the structure of the organisations, little emphasis is placed on this important and demanding aspect of these jobs. Figure 6.3 illustrates the distribution of the qualifications of the respondents.

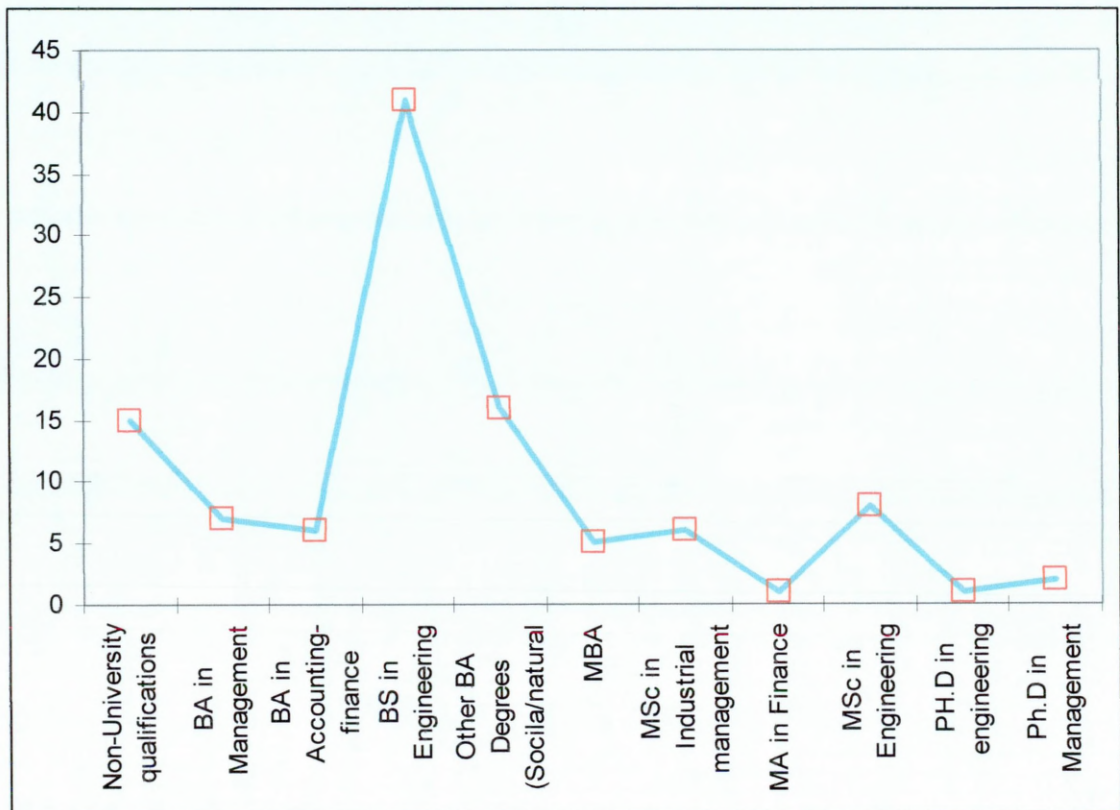
In contrast to the above, the analysis of the most demanding aspects of the senior managers' job revealed that effective performance of the jobs depended very much on a high level of managerial knowledge and skills. In conclusion as far as the educational background of senior managers is concerned, 93 of the respondents were university graduates with at least a first degree, predominately in engineering 41. Graduates in Business Administration are few and far in about 14, and there is a new trend and recent infusion in non-production areas like marketing, personnel or corporate planning.

6.2 The Nature of Senior Managers' Roles in "CMI"

As it was important to learn what senior managers think of their roles and responsibilities which constitute their managerial jobs? A number of questions in

section two of the questionnaire referred to their span of supervision, number of superiors, managerial roles and their responsibilities. (See the figure 6.3)

Figure 6.3
Distribution of the qualifications of the respondents



To understand what constitutes senior managers' job and what aspects of the really important to the managers when carrying out their overall managerial responsibilities, additional questions were asked about the importance of communication and the demands of their jobs. The overall purpose was to ascertain what kind of knowledge, skills and attitudes are most needed in relation to those

important demands. Analysis of the relevant results and the major finding are discussed below.

6.2.1 Span of Supervision

“How many people are directly under your supervision”? This question was asked from senior managers to determine of the average number of subordinates under their direct control at four different levels. The intention was to determine the span of control of senior managers at various positions within the hierarchy in their organisations.

Table 6.5
Distribution of the Respondents and their Number of Direct Subordinates

Categories of direct subordinates	No. of subordinates in the Organization A	Percentage subordinates in the Organization A	No. of subordinates in the Organization B	Percentage subordinates in the Organization B
1-5	31	52	20	42
6-10	14	24	11	23
11-15	9	15	8	16
16-20	4	6	7	15
21-25	2	3	2	4
Total	60	100	48	100

Table 6.5 shows the distribution of respondents and the number of subordinates directly responsible to them analysis of the data shows that all 108 respondents

reported that they had a number of subordinates who worked under their direct supervision along the chain of command. Table 6.6 shows the average number of subordinates by the seniority level of the senior managers in both organisations. These averages are based only on all reported cases which do not exceed 25 subordinates.

6.2.2 Senior Managers' Role and Responsibilities

In the form on an open-ended question, respondents were asked to provide a brief description of their job responsibilities in their present posts. The majority perceived their responsibilities as being incorporated in various functions of the job as authorized in their job descriptions. The intention was to draw up a clear picture of the work activities of the respondents in terms of both the content and characteristics of their jobs.

Table 6.6
Average Span of Control of the Senior Managers at Different Levels

Management level	Average number of direct subordinates	
	Organization A	Organization B
S1	3	4
S2	6	13
S3	14	15
S4	16	19
S5	22	24

But due to the varied and broadly stated role descriptions, the task seemed to be impossible. Even in some instances respondents reported that their responsibilities in their present posts are the same as what is already included in their job descriptions. The results however, suggest that it was easier for senior managers to describe their responsibilities in terms of common managerial functions. Many senior managers thus, reported that their work involved performing functions such as planning, coordinating and controlling. Many saw themselves as being responsible for the entire operations and the final economic results of their divisions, departments and of the whole organisation. This is a distinctive characteristic of senior managers irrespective of their functions in the organisations. Overall, the results indicate that managerial work is predominately seen as involving both managing task and people.

6.2.3. Demanding Aspects of the Senior Managers' Jobs

“What do senior managers perceive to be the most demanding aspects of their jobs”? This question was asked from the respondents in an open-ended format in order to determine what kind of knowledge, skills and attitudes are most needed in relation to those important demands. Interestingly, it was disclosed that planning, decision making, coordination, and controlling are considered as the most demanding aspects of the managerial job. Although administration does not seem to be a challenge for senior managers, it is however considered to be a time consuming task. It was also found that much of a senior managers time is spent in meetings and unexpected activities.

Overall, a combination of people and task-related aspects are perceived by all senior managers as being the most tangible and demanding aspects of their jobs, although, dealing with people seemed to be the dominant practice. It is also interesting to discover that dealing with personnel problems also emerges as a demanding aspect of the work for senior managers at the lower levels of the hierarchy. This recruit indicates that dealing with personnel and their problems becomes more of a demand as the number of subordinates' increases. It is also notable that senior managers in lower positions have become less involved in policy making. Instead, policy implementation emerges as a more demanding aspect of their job. What emerges from all this is that the demanding aspects of the managerial job is contingent not only upon the managerial position in the hierarchy, but also on the functional requirements of the job as well as the situational factors.

6.2.4 Importance of Communication in Managerial Work

Senior managers were asked to what extent they think communication is important in the satisfactory discharge of the responsibilities in their posts. The results are shown in table 6.7.

Although the extent and the nature of communication are to a great degree influenced by the nature of the job, no one seems to have underestimated its importance. The majority of the senior managers N=90 (83 percent), viewed communication as highly important for the satisfactory discharge of their duties. All senior managers in level S1, S2, S3, S4, and S5 placed high importance for communication to their being effective.

Table 6.7
Importance of Communication in the Satisfactory Discharge of the senior Managers’
Responsibilities

Degree of importance	Number of respondents in each level					Percentage	
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	Total	%
High	7	10	35	28	10	90	83
Average	1	0	8	3	6	18	17
Low	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	8	10	43	31	16	108	100

Only one senior manager in Level S1, eight senior managers in level S3, 3 senior managers in Level S4 and finally 6 senior managers in level S5 regarded it as being of average importance to their successful operation in the job. The overall result may seem to suggest that managerial work activities depend largely on effective communication for their smooth operation.

6.2.5 Perceived Nature of Managerial Work

In order to see the extent to which senior managers were aware of the nature of their job and how they identified with the main areas of their work, they were asked to indicate their managerial roles with respect to the two predominate aspects of their jobs namely people and operations. The result shown in table 6.8, indicate that 46 percent of senior managers (N=49) viewed their managerial roles as that of managing people more that operation. An equal number of senior managers viewed their roles as that of managing operations more than people. On average about 20%

(N=22) of the respondents perceived their roles as being responsible for managing both people and operations.

As illustrated, all respondents could easily make a distinction between the two aspects of 'people' and 'task' management and recognized the overlap between the two. It is interesting to note how these views tend to change with respect to senior managers positions in the hierarchy. Chief executives saw their jobs as being equally responsible for managing people and operations. Less than half of the senior managers in level S2 (N=6) felt that their jobs involve the same degree of people and task management.

Table 6.8
Senior Managers' Perception of Their roles and Responsibilities

Categories of managerial roles	Number of respondents in each level						Percent
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	Total	%
Managing people	6	3	3	21	4	37	34
Managing operations	0	1	30	8	10	49	46
Both	2	6	10	2	2	22	20
Total	8	10	43	31	16	108	100

From this group, only 1 perceived their role as managing task more than people and 3 senior managers thought of it as managing people more than operations. At the seniority level S3, three senior managers felt that his job involved managing people more than operations (N=3). A large number of senior managers (N=30) in this level

viewed their jobs as involving task management more than people management. The number of 10 senior managers in this group however, saw their work as consisting of managing both task and people equally. At the seniority level S4 (administrative senior managers) majority of the respondents (N=21) believed that managing people was their main managerial role within their organization. Eight (N=8) respondents viewed their managerial role as managing operations more than people. Only two senior managers in this group however, saw their work as consisting of managing both task and people equally. Despite the fact that all senior managers in level S5 were in charge of technical departments, the overwhelming majority (N= 2) viewed their managerial roles as being equally of both managing people and operations. Ten senior managers referred to his job as being management of task more than people, and two perceived their role as of managing people more than operations. Although a few senior managers put more emphasis on the people aspects of their job, it was generally felt that the operational aspects of the job were seen to be more value in the work place.

6.3. Eight Parameters Affecting Managerial Effectiveness in "CMI"

To sum up the data analysis so far, attempts were made to generate a list of parameters which are most likely influencing the senior managers' effectiveness in Iranian car manufacturing industry. According to Analoui (2003) these parameters are referred to the senior managers' perception; skills and knowledge; organisational criteria; motivation for effectiveness; constraints and difficulties; choices and opportunities; inter-organisational relationships, and finally dominant managerial philosophy are discussed briefly. Ultimately, the analysis of the data resulted in the identification of causal and behavioural influences, independent as a

category but interdependent on one another. Each revealed one aspect associated with managerial effectiveness. These pointed to individual but also internal and other external contextual factors which as a whole determined the senior managers' effectiveness. These parameters will be discussed below.

6.3.1. Managerial Perception (first parameter)

The senior managers and officials are asked to consider, "How would you describe an effective manager?" This query is aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager shall possess. The responses provide ranged from "ability to supervise", "being a good leader", to being concerned with "deadlines", "honest", "experienced" and "able to deliver goods on time". The description also varies according the type of organisation the managers belong to. Such perceptions also represent the characteristics of a manager whom they often refer to as "ideal". In this respect the question is; do managers say something about themselves or do they describe an ideal manager? Analysis of data, in CMI in Iran as the whole, indicated that the following ten groups of attributes, in their order of priority, were stressed as the most important qualities (see Table 6.9).

Table 6.9
Effectiveness Perception in the firms studied

Priority and description	Total response
1. Set and achieve results/output/objectives/being output orientated	107
2. To organize and achieve objectives/results, task within time limit	102
3. Get work done through teamwork/participation/relating well to people	98
4. Ability to delegate	93
5. A good motivator of people/inspiring	87
6. Hard working and disciplined	85
7. Ability to supervise/leadership	76
8. Initiator, pro change, innovative, making things happen, solve problems	71
9. Perform tasks satisfactorily, promptly	69
10. Meet objectives, targets, demands of the job	93

On the whole, the qualities which were described portrayed a manager who is able to both carry out the task and deal with people at work. However, most emphasis seems to have been placed on the need to understand subordinates, and motivate and lead people at work. It was also noted that managers felt that they ought to be able to perform tasks with little or no supervision all. When they were asked whether this is their expectation from their subordinates or were it that they felt that they were constantly being supervised, most expressed the former rather than the latter.

6.3.2. Managerial Skills (second parameter)

In section four of the survey questionnaire one essential question was asked so as to explore the views and perceptions of senior managers concerning the importance of

a set of 21 skills (items) which have been identified in the literature as being the most salient behavioural skills required for managerial effectiveness. The objective was to ascertain how the senior managers in each level of the hierarchy perceived the importance of different managerial skills for their effectiveness. For this purpose, senior managers were asked to rate the importance of those skills which they felt were required to perform the managerial functions which affected their effectiveness, using a five point Likert scale where a score of 1 meant that the skill item was of low importance, whereas score 5 meant it was of great importance. To analysis the perceptions of senior managers, the mean value of the ranked scores was used. Subsequently, to rank the importance of each of the predetermined categories of skills, the average mean scores of the skills within each category were calculated and used for the comparative analysis.

Table 6.10 represents the rated importance of the 21 skills ranked by the mean value of each specific skill. (See the table 6.10)

Table 6.10
Importance of Managerial Skills Required for Increased Effectiveness of Senior Managers

Description of skills	Mean	St.D	Rank Order
Managing change	4.37	.85	1
Effective communication	4.30	.74	2
Creating organisational climate	4.30	.82	3
Effective time management	4.21	.84	4
Effective motivation of people	4.18	.90	5
Work planning	4.17	.99	6
Team working and participation	4.15	.98	7
Delegation and resource allocation	4.08	.87	8
Improving one's overall effectiveness	4.04	.93	9
Managing stress at work	3.96	.96	10
Problem solving	3.96	.06	11
Effective appraisal system	3.86	.78	12
Managing conflict	3.73	1	13
Decision making	3.72	1.02	14
Developing one's own potential	3.65	.99	15
Organisational analysis	3.63	.93	16
Working with computer	3.63	1.03	17
Maintaining effective interaction system	3.46	.98	18
Managing one's career development	3.44	1.03	19
Counselling subordinates	3.24	.92	20
Managing financial aspects of work	3.18	1.21	21

These results establish a list of hierarchical list managerial skills required for the effectiveness of senior managers as a whole. As shown, the mean value of the least important skills (Mean=3.18, Std.1.28) is still rated above the mid-point on a five point Likert scale, meaning that senior managers, as a whole, placed considerable importance on all the skills dimensions for their increased effectiveness.

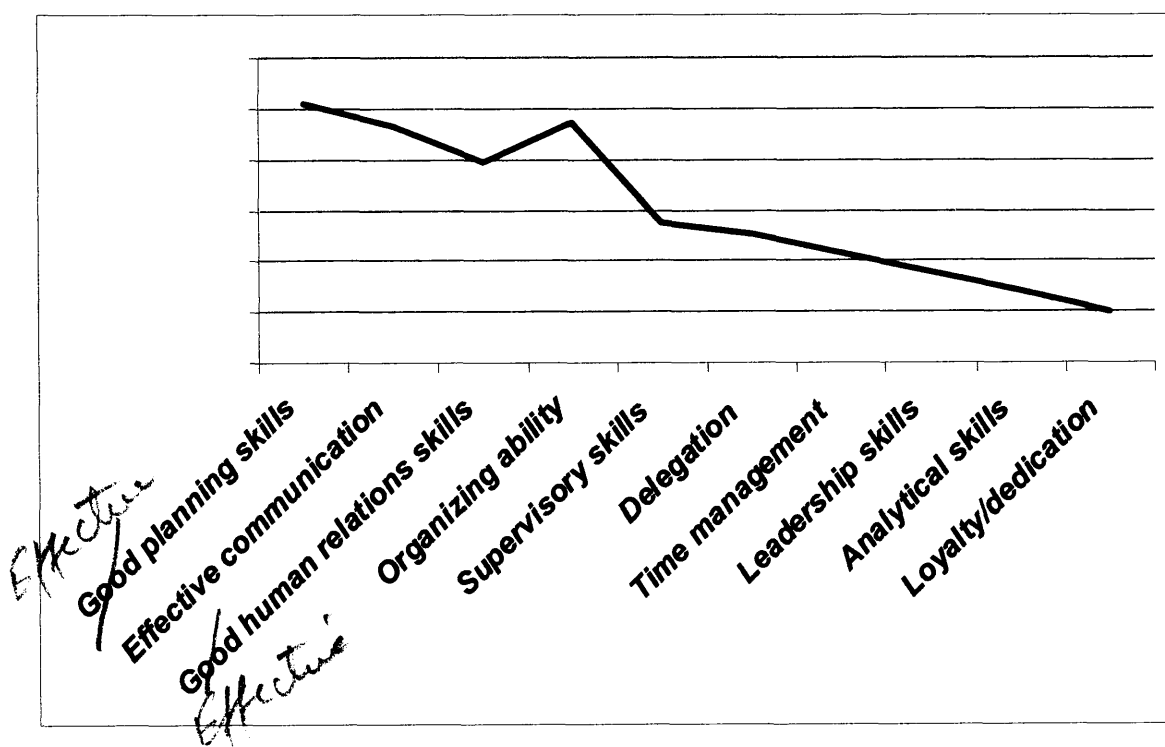
The results also indicate that there is a set of nine skills which are perceived as being of high importance for senior managers' increased effectiveness. Based on the ranked importance, these include managing change (with mean value of 4.37), effective time management, effective communication, effective decision making, and effective motivation of people, effective planning of the work, managing team work and participation, delegation and resource allocation, and improving one's overall effectiveness (with mean value of 4.04). As an overall managerial skill "creating the right organizational hierarchy" is ranked as the most important for the effectiveness of all senior managers involved in the study. Along with communication skill, time management has been rated as the next most important skill by the total number of senior managers. In terms of importance it is ranked third on the list, although it is safe to give it the same importance as communication.

6.3.2.1. The Need for Managerial Skills

Senior managers and executives are asked to suggest ten managerial skills, in order of priority to them, which in their view are essential for ensuring the increase of effectiveness. Analysis of questionnaires show that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities which will be reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important ones are associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones. Figure 6.4 illustrates the priority of managerial skills required for increased effectiveness in the studied firms.

The responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in developed and developing countries. Senior managers become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because awareness is gained that one cannot be effective unless he or she can work with or through people, namely colleagues, peers and subordinates.

Figure 6.4
Priority of Managerial skills required for increased effectiveness



6.3.2.2. Managerial Skills and Education

The main theme of this research is based on the assumption that increased effectiveness of senior managers depends more on their ability to manage people effectively. As mentioned earlier the category of people-related skills has emerged

as the most important set of managerial skills which is required for increased effectiveness of senior managers. The result shown in the above table once again supports the main hypotheses of the research. It is interesting therefore, to see that human skills are perceived as a more important factor than functional skills (mean value of 4.10, 3.93 respectively). This finding also complements Bandura's contention that competent functioning requires not only the skill but a feeling of confidence in one's own abilities to do the job effectively. Analysis of the data indicates that self-efficacy is more important to a senior manager's performance and increased effectiveness (rank as second), compared to human skills and functional skills (ranked as third and fourth respectively). Furthermore, there is a clear indication that a relevant educational background and management training and experience are perceived as less important factors than behavioural skills. Nevertheless, this result indicates that a relevant educational background and management training and experience are considered as highly influential factors in the performance and increased effectiveness of senior managers. It was also revealed in the course of the interviews that senior managers have high regard for managerial experience and its importance in terms of increasing their effectiveness at work.

6.3.3 Organisational Criteria (third parameter)

Managers are asked about the criteria for effectiveness in their organisations. As expected, in each organisation a list of factors are produced which are not exactly the same as those from the other organisations. Evidently, each organisation (A and B) because of their cultural specifications derived from the nature of their work, its history, size and the like, tend to support the basis for a particular way of working

and standard with which effectiveness will be measured. Criteria such as “Self-discipline” may appear to be unusual as the second most important factor for determining effectiveness from an organisation’s point of view. Other criteria such as good achievement and self-motivation as well as managing time and punctuality and quality in terms of report writing were seen as important criteria and were indicative of the expectations from top managers of their subordinates. Table 6.11 shows the priority and description of the organisations’ criteria for increased effectiveness in the studied firms. Top management is concerned, about a tendency on the part of the senior managers and executives to identify with the core values of the organisation and what is observed in the car manufacturing industries, in improving managerial effectiveness at work and also in organisational goals.

Table 6.11

Frequency and value of organisations’ criteria in the studied firms for increased effectiveness

Priority and description	Total response
Meeting targets	102
Self-discipline	96
Good achievement	91
Planning abilities	85
Time management	83
Good and punctual report writing	74
Training	69
Increased productivity	67
Self-motivation	65

6.3.4 Motivation (forth parameter)

As suggested in the earlier, in order to understand effectiveness, attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, particular the motive behind the actions undertaken by managers. The analysis of the quantitative data revealed, not surprisingly, that the motivators were those factors which were not already present at work. Motivators, such as “recognition from superiors”, “job satisfaction” and “training and self-development” will be reported as the main motivating factors towards effectiveness. Thus, these and other remain factors such as “promotion” and good teamwork seem to be symptomatic of the following issues (see Table 6.12).

Table 6.12

Main factors as frequency and value which motivate effectiveness in both Organisations

Motivational factors	Total response
1. Remuneration	106
2. Recognition from superiors	104
3. Job satisfaction	99
4. Training/self-development	86
5. Provision of resources	75
6. Promotion	71
7. Good teamwork	63
8. Contribution to development of institute	61
9. Reward for good/hard work	56
10. Achieving set goals	42

It was interesting to note that what was expressed as the motivators were indeed the problem areas and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. Devaluation of the currency, inflation, a substantial decline in the

purchasing power of the managers together with organisational structural reform adds to the worsening situation as far as the motivation for effectiveness is concerned.

6.3.4.1. Motivation for managerial performance

The nature of managerial behaviour and performance is essentially complex. The performance of an individual manager is also jointly influenced by his ability and motivation. In this study the senior managers were asked to rate the importance of a number of factors considered to have substantial influence on their satisfactory performance. The underlying assumptions which guided this part of the research were this important contention that performance is generally a function of not only the individual's will, but also a function of abilities and situational factors.

As shown in Table 6.13 the most important factor contributing to the satisfactory performance of the senior managers as a whole is commitment to the objectives of the organization' (Mean Value = 4.58). This is followed by the 'self-efficacy factor' referred to in the table as 'confidence in own capabilities'. The next item in the list is the 'human skills' factor with a mean score of 4.10. The analysis of the results once again indicates that people-related skills are perceived as considerably more important than functional or task-related skills. (See the table 6.13)

Table 6.13
Importance of Factors Contributing to Satisfactory Performance of all Senior Managers (N=108)

Contributing factors	Mean	Std
Commitment to the objectives of the organization	4.58	0.67
Confidence in own capabilities	4.34	0.89
Human skills	4.10	0.80
Functional skills	3.93	0.95
Motivation and job satisfaction	3.93	0.93
Relevant educational background	3.66	1.04
Management training and management experience	3.63	0.99
Internal support to enhance self-efficacy	3.37	1.02
Formal authority	3.35	1.04
Facilities and opportunities for self and career development	3.25	0.97
Managerial tools	3.13	1.09
Meaningful linkage between training and career development	2.82	1.20
Formal management education	2.65	1.21

These results complement the earlier findings of the research where the people-related category of skills emerged as being the most important category perceived to be required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers as a whole. These results however, indicate that functional skills, motivation and job satisfaction are seen as relatively more important than having a relevant educational background, management training and management experience. The factors which were perceived as the least contributing factors to senior managers' effective performance are formal management education and the linkage between management training and career development. Nevertheless, these results can be considered a hierarchical list of factors which are important in improving the performance of senior managers. Some respondents also qualified their responses by adding other

factors which they thought are equally important in contributing to the satisfactory performance of senior managers.

One important factor which affects job performance and tends to increase morale and motivation is the employees' commitment to their organisations. As noted earlier, commitments to the objectives of the organisation is rated as the most important factor (mean value of 4.58) which contributes to the satisfactory performance of the senior managers as a whole. Commitment is a willingness of senior managers to give their energy and loyalty to the organisation and to be attached to its goals and values.

As illustrated, all respondents could easily make a distinction between the two aspects of 'people' and 'task' management and recognized the overlap between the two. It is interesting to note how these views tend to change with respect to senior managers positions in the hierarchy. Chief executives saw their jobs as being equally responsible for managing people and operations. Less than half of the senior managers in level S2 (N=6) felt that their jobs involve the same degree of

The effect of self-referent thoughts in the psychological functioning of people is very substantial. As Bandura (1986) notes perhaps no other aspect of self-knowledge is more importance to people's motivation and behaviour than the conceptions of self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy is central to the functioning of human beings. It operates as a generative capability which involves cognitive, social. And behavioural sub-skills organized into integrated courses of action. The way people judge their capabilities therefore, largely determines their level of performance. As Bandura states:

“Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to attain designated types of performance. It is concerned not with the skills one has but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses. Knowledge, transformational operations and constituent skills are necessary but insufficient for accomplished performance. Competent functioning requires both skills and self-beliefs of efficacy to use them effectively” (Bandura, 1986: 391)

According to Bandura (1986), self-beliefs determine the quality of performance and have diverse effects on people’s choice of behaviour. Accurate appraisal of one’s own capabilities is, therefore, an important issue in personal development which may eventually lead to improved performance. As indicated in the table above, confidence in one’s own capabilities is considered as the second most important factor (See Table 6.13) to improved performance of senior managers (mean value of 4.38).

As explained earlier, one assumption underlying the content theories of motivation is that the satisfaction of motivational needs have a direct effect on performance. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation. Job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state, whereas motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction. There are many dimensions to job satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction thus, varies considerably with respect to different individuals, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors (Mullins, 2003). Individual factors consist of a number of personal attributes and characteristics such as personality, education and skill. Social factors are present in different kinds of interactions involved in the individual’s work situation. Cultural factors are the individual’s beliefs, values, and attitudes. Organisational factors are associated with different aspects of the work

organisation such as organisation structure, policies, leadership and working conditions. Environmental factors are beyond either the organisational or individual's control and many have substantial influence on job satisfaction. Economic, social, political and technological factors are the major environmental influences.

Although the satisfaction of motivational needs may well lead to improved performance at work, as emphasized above, the willingness to work however is only one determinate of good performance. Accordingly, they argue that job satisfaction is more dependent upon performance than performance is upon job satisfaction. Other personal and situational factors must also be taken into consideration. This important issue has been the focus of much attention in the present study. In addition to the factors in the above table indicated, the participant senior managers were asked to report on individual, organisational and environmental factors which they perceived to have had influence on their performance. Through the use of open-ended questions, senior managers clearly described in order of priority the three most important factors with respect to the above three dimensions which in their experience have influenced their performance. The relevant finding will be discussed later in this chapter.

6.3.4.2. Factors Affecting Motivation

This study set out to examine what important forces are behind the senior managers' attitudes to work and more particularly what factors determine senior managers' motivation in maintaining quality performance in their jobs. Thus, section five of the survey questionnaire was designed to obtain relevant data for

this purpose. The respondents were asked to rate the importance of 21 factors which they considered to be a motive or need in relation to maintaining their quality performance in the job. The identified factors have been drawn primarily from those clusters already described in the content theories of motivation. As shown in Table 6.14 almost all the identified motivating factors were perceived to have more than average (mid-point) importance in motivating senior managers to maintaining quality performance in their jobs. The analysis of the results show that the 'having an understanding superior' with a mean score of 4.76 was considered the most important and having control over others people's job with a mean score of 2.76 was viewed as the least important factor by senior managers in motivating them to keep up the good work.

The analysis of the results also indicates that for senior managers as a whole, the 'recognition of good work', well respected and high status job' and 'a job with a valuable purpose' which all are in fact job related motives have considerable importance in their motivation to work. These results correspond with the analysis of the senior managers perceptions of managerial work. Because the job is viewed as important to senior managers, the skills and knowledge; and task and people related aspects of their work, were perceived as enabling them to become more effective. Two essential factors can be considered as the most influential factors in motivating senior managers at work. The result of this study indicates that the senior managers in the studied firms are best motivated to work effectively when they have an understanding superior who possess the right style of leadership and holds a high regard for their good work (mean value of 4.76 and 4.46 respectively). Various factors such as job security, opportunity for advancement, job autonomy and freedom to exercise control over one's own job are highly influential and seem

to be of equal importance in a senior manager's motivation (mean value range from 3.92 to 3.94).

Table 6.14

Motivational Factors Influencing Senior Managers Performance

Motivational factors	Mean	St.D	Rank Order
Understanding superior	4.76	0.48	1
Recognition of good work	4.46	0.72	2
Fair appraisal system	4.39	0.77	3
Well respected and high status job	4.18	0.89	4
Pleasant work relationships	4.15	0.79	5
Job with a valuable purpose	4.07	1.05	6
Good and fair personnel policies	4.06	0.85	7
Participation in policy making	4.06	0.85	8
Good working condition	4.04	0.99	9
Job security	3.94	1.08	10
Job autonomy and freedom	3.92	0.74	11
Opportunity for advancement	3.92	0.86	12
Good salary	3.87	1.03	13
Opportunity for development	3.72	0.87	14
Authority to make decision	3.70	0.93	15
Participation in MD programmes	3.66	0.97	16
Self-fulfilling job	3.56	1.05	17
Vast amount of responsibilities	3.45	0.91	18
Well rewarded job	3.41	1.09	19
Variation of the tasks in the job	3.34	0.97	20
Control over other peoples job	2.76	0.99	21

It is also interesting to see that having a fair and just appraisal system, which is actually a 'hygiene factor', is considered to be a highly important factor in

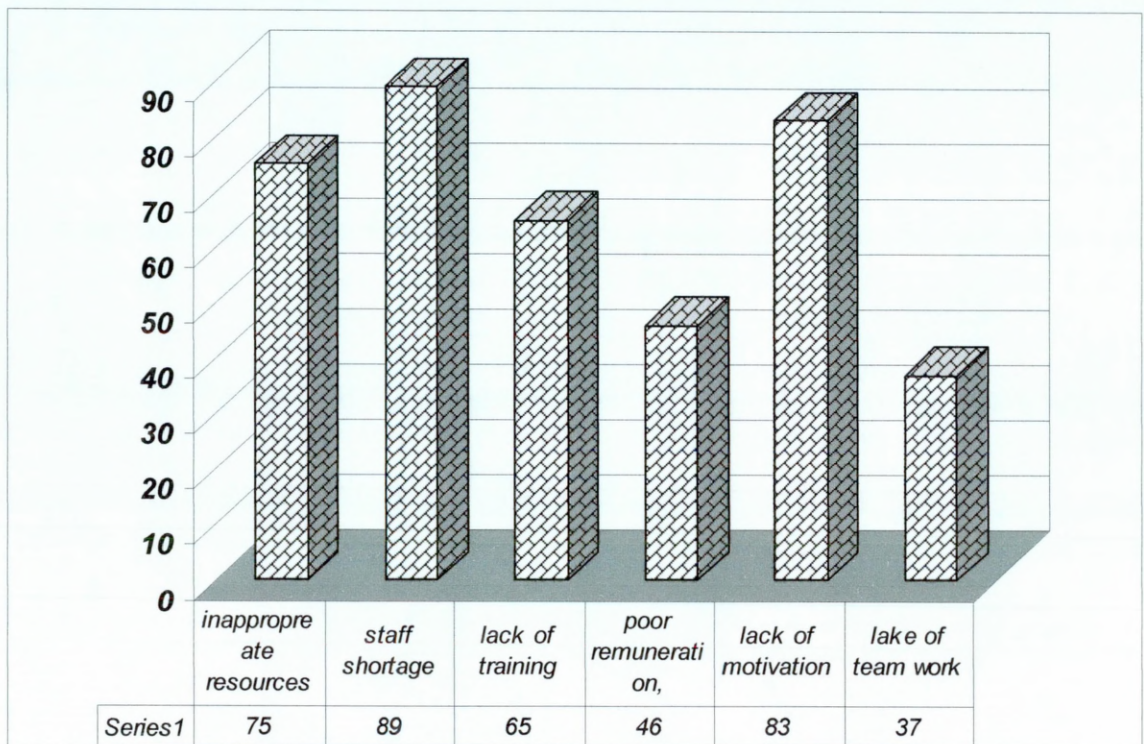
managerial motivation and job satisfaction (mean value = 4.39, ranked as 3rd). It is important however, to note that the rated importance of these entire factors does not necessarily mean that any of them have actually enhanced job satisfaction. When this result is compared with the result obtained concerning management development obstacles, it is very interesting to see that the same hygiene factor (fair and just appraisal system) is ranked as the most severe obstacle to the development of senior managers in their organizations, having a mean value of 2.52 in a scale of 1 to 3. The same seems to be also true about the importance of good and fair personnel policies on motivation and job satisfaction of senior managers (mean value = 4.6, ranked as 7th). This factor is again perceived to be the fourth existing severe obstacle to the development of senior managers (mean value of 2.21 in a scale of 1 to 3). Whereas the importance of the same motivating factor is ranked in seventh place in the above table (mean value = 4.06). This situation seemingly indicated that although the above factors are viewed as very important factors by senior managers, they have not been sufficiently provided by their organizations. Furthermore, this result can be taken as evidence to indicate the existence of some degree of dissatisfaction with respect to the above policies amongst senior managers.

6.3.5. The Degree of Demands and Constraints (fifth parameter)

In line with an open system approach towards understanding managers, their works and effectiveness, the managers are asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work. In this respect, the data analysis led to provide a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse effect on the effectiveness of the managers, though managers in each organisation naturally experienced different

sets of difficulties. These difficulties are: inappropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/inappropriate training, poor remuneration, lack of motivation, lack of teamwork (see Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5
Managerial perception of obstacles at work in the firms studied



The constraints and demands, whether those identified and briefly have been introduced or those which will be never mentioned, such clusters of demands at an individual, organisational and a wide social level, leave the managers with very little chance to determine their own level of effectiveness.

6.3.6 Presence of Choices and Opportunities for Effectiveness (sixth parameter)

After analyzing the data, it has been found that, choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. In this respect the relevant factors to the choices available have been identified, from which the ten most important ones are listed: training (self), (1) on-the-job training, (2) part-time study, (3) necessary resources/equipment, (4) teamwork/co-operation, (5) better remuneration, (6) funding, (7) more appropriate staff, (8) visit other units/establishments, (9) effective/regular communication, (10) and relevant literature/ library. The responses of the senior managers point to solutions and ways of dealing with the present situation in order to become more effective. The opportunities were in a sense related to demands and constraints. It appears that the presence of the constraints and demands will be forcing senior managers to think of a “way out”. In most cases through interviews, senior managers revealed that training, either part-time or full-time study, visiting abroad including attending seminars, conferences and other scientific venues will be seen as ultimately enabling the senior managers to be promoted to the strategic apex within the organization and consequently being able to be involved in strategic decision making and developing long term plans rather than being involved in day-to-day activities. It was clear that the presence of “role-culture” and lack of motivation “has forced” some managers “to think of themselves”. Therefore, the exploration of choices will be perceived as being available to them indirectly showed the presence of a strong belief in what will only be regarded as the main reason for “person-cultures” in both organisations.

6.3.7. Inter - Organisational Relationship (seventh parameter)

Nowadays, it is recognised that not only work organisation but also its management do not operate in a vacuum. Organisation is related to one another and so are the managers in different organisations. Interestingly, enough managers at levels pointed to the importance of establishing relationship between their own and other organisations. Senior managers were asked about the importance of the inter-organisational relationship for their effectiveness at work. From the interviews carried out 34 specifically responded to this question and commented on the importance and need for constantly intensifying these connections. In Organisation A 21 managers including the CEO made specific comments to this question. Most managers seemed to see the inter-organisational relationship as “inevitable”. The managers in organisation B (N=13) however, seemed to be marginally less concerned with inevitability rather they emphasised that “it is a must for managers” The qualitative data generated through conducting interview further showed that managers are aware of the need for establishing relationships with others even at section, departments and the organisation as the whole. As one senior manager from Organisation B commented;

“It is unavoidable; you have to make connections with others. Sometimes these connections make all the difference for our survival. I have seen those who failed to make connections between their plant and even organisation with others and soon found them lonely and vulnerable. When the change comes you need to rely on these connections”

Most managers referred to the need for using the information gathered from these inter-organisational relationships for formulating the organisation policies or introducing changes to the present ones. This also reflected the managers’ awareness and their some extent their insecurity about the changes in their environment.

“You got to be on your toes all the time. I suppose what you class as inter-organisational relationships sounds to me as a form of listening to the changes out there... Things are changing fast... You got to be on the ball and change with them. Especially, with the politics and politician. In a way, we create a trust relationship and that matters if you want to get results”.

Senior managers in both organisations A and B clearly indicated to need and importance for relating to other organisation as means for future prospects and career development. The CEO of organisation A said:

“It goes without saying that senior managers’ effectiveness is also seen as their ability to manage their career... We (CEOs) are expecting change and move all the time, you got to make the connection before the 11th hours”.

On the whole, all managers showed awareness of this parameter for their effectiveness both at individual and organisational levels. However, as expected, the higher the position of the senior managers in the on the organisation hierarchy level the more intensive their efforts to establish and exploit inter-organisational relationships.

6.3.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (eighth parameter)

It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organisation does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed, and generally it influences the flow of information and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organisation. The leadership of the organisation provides the standard for the patterns of behaviour and therefore has proven to be decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the

organisation. The data, whether in qualitative or quantitative form, have been tainted by the presence of this influence of the managerial philosophy in the studied firms. The traditional preference for “politically correct administration” as opposed to management has resulted in many instances in the ineffectiveness of the individual managers and the organisations as a whole. Ultimately, the degree to which the executives and senior managers will be adhered to traditional management, or to correct administration principles vary from one organisation to another. In this respect, results point out that ‘apart from a few top senior managers and executives who did feel that there is a need for change of attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training and the adoption of the participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work. Perhaps this is because of the dominant role culture in the studied firms.

6.3.9. Contextual Factors Affecting Performance (individual, organisational, and environmental)

As stated earlier, effective performance is not only the function of one specific parameter for effectiveness. Indeed, the parameters of the effectiveness should be considered in context of above factors. For example motivation or managerial skills, also form function of the individual’s abilities and organizational as well as environmental factors. This point has been explored in literature review however, it may be important to reiterate as Analoui (1999) aptly argues the overall assessments of the influence of the identified parameters have to consider in individual, organisational, and environmental contexts. To explore what personal attributes and qualities are considered as influential in terms of senior manager’s

effectiveness, the respondents were asked, to name three of the contributing factors in order of importance to them. As shown in Table 6.15 apart from those factors already identified, senior managers effectiveness is also influenced by a number of personal attributes and qualities. These include their personal qualities, attitudes, beliefs and values.

Table 6.15: Personal Attributes Affecting Performance

Personal attributes	Score
Interest in work	98
Good relationship	87
Functional expertise/relevant education	79
Hard work	75
Positive attitude towards people	65
Confidence in own capabilities	61
Fairness	58
Analytical skills	55
Team work and participation	50
Decision making skill	46

This result is complementary to the previous findings of the research which suggested that senior manager's feeling of responsibility toward their work and organization was an inflectional motivating factor for their effectiveness. Interestingly, it is found that the managerial job is seen as a challenge for senior managers, thus many works related factors are considered very important for their effectiveness. Overall, taking together all these influences, it is clear that personal drive, determination and commitment, as well as, practical experience and hard work are seen as major factors for senior managers effectiveness. However, interpersonal skills such as communication and the ability to understand and work

with people in order to build a workable relationship based on mutual trust and respect still remain as major factors for the effectiveness of senior managers.

In close relation to the above question, the respondents were asked to name in order of priority to them three organizational factors that enhance their effective performance at work. Many organizational variables are reported which can influence senior managers' degree of motivation and job satisfaction, which ultimately may result in good performance. As shown in Table 6.16 a combination of organizational factors seems to account for senior managers' effectiveness.

Again the above results complement the previous findings of the research, where it was found that senior managers' perceptions about their superior and the quality of their work relationship were the most influential factors in their motivation. What these findings may seem to prove is that the quality of leadership and the level of competence of the top management team greatly influences the performance level of their immediate subordinate managers. These features seem to exert more influence on the organization effectiveness as the whole than do other identified factors. On the other hand, the findings of the present study also reach some conclusions which suggest that personal qualities and the leadership ability of senior managers appear to create the supportive organizational climate which is conducive for good performance at all levels of the organization.

Table 6.16

How Senior Managers Rate the Impact of Organisational Factors to their Effectiveness

Various organisational factors	Score
Good relation with top management/benefit of their support	105
Competent superior/ understanding boss	97
Systematic work organisation	93
Clear lines of responsibility and sufficient authority	86
Capable and potential personnel and subordinate	84
Team work and participative environment	76
Good working relationships/friendly environment	72
Clarity of objectives	69
Good technical training system	64
Feedback of their result	54

Also, the results indicate that many organizational factors which seemingly influence performance are in fact related to personal factors which senior managers bring to work. It is these factors which eventually result in the creation of a sound management system.

In addition to personal and organisational variables, senior managers' effective performance is also influenced by existing factors in the environment. To explore these factors, senior managers were asked to indicate three environmental factors which have affected their performance in their job. As shown in table 6.17 combinations of socio-economic and political factors are identified in Iranian car manufacturing firms.

Analysis of the results indicates that economic and social factors can either positively or negatively affect the performance level of senior managers. Those constraints which are usually created by excessive laws and regulations do in fact limit managerial choices. Interestingly, analysis of the data suggests that labour market issues, good reputation and economic status of the organisation at regional and national level are viewed as considerable factors for good performance of senior managers.

Table 6.17
Environmental Factors Affecting Performance

Various environmental factors	Priority
Lack of talented human resources and specialists (labour market issues)	1
Dependence on foreign technology	2
Ministerial support	3
Good co-operation with other organisations	4
Rapid change and inconsistency of national policies	5
Political problems	6
Economic and social status of organisation in society	7
Links between industry and academic institutions	8
Lack of competition in national and international markets	9
Limitations of governmental laws and regulations	10

As the results indicate, the degree of co-operation and the quality of existing relationships with other organisations at regional and national levels affect senior managers' performance. Other factors, such as ministerial support and meaningful linkage between their organisation and academic institutions seem to have some

effect on their performance. The least mentioned factor however, is limitations of governmental laws and regulations in car manufacturing industry.

6.4 Management Training and Development

In section three of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked a number of interrelated questions with regard to the importance of management training and its impact on managerial effectiveness and performance. The main purpose was to ascertain whether senior managers believed that managerial skills (see discussion on second parameter above) can be acquired through training and would they help to increase their effectiveness.

6.4.1 Management Training and Improved Performance

Senior managers were asked if they considered management training as a process that would help them or their colleagues to further improve their job performance. The objective of this question was to ascertain whether the respondent believed that there is a positive relationship between management training and increased managerial effectiveness. Data analysis shows that 96 percent of senior managers (N=104) believed definitely that management training is a process which can help to increase their effectiveness. Furthermore, the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data highlights the evidence which reveals that senior managers strongly believed that managers are developed and not born and that training and development is the most promising approach to their increased effectiveness.

6.4.2. Management Training and Self and Career Development

It was also important to ask senior managers if they consider management training as an effective means for personal and career development. Data analysis shows that 98 percent of senior managers (N=106) viewed management training as an effective means for self and career development. This result indicates that almost all senior managers believe that through management training and development and the acquisition of the necessary skills self development and their career progress can be ensured.

6.4.3 The Need for the Training and Development of Senior Managers

Almost all senior managers positively believed that there is need for training and development in their present jobs (98.6 percent). The majority of senior managers, however, qualified their answers by adding that learning is and should be regarded as a continuous process, because for human beings learning never stops and that there is always room for personal improvement. Many of the participants believed that learning new knowledge and skills becomes inevitable when there are an ever increasing job demands and environmental forces. Because senior managers are overburdened with work, there is always a tendency to lose track of new developments in the management profession. In both organizations, the lack of formal management education and training is evident and experience is not enough and can not fill the gap, therefore continuous development through systematic training is seen as essential for senior managers' effectiveness.

6.4.4 Areas of Training Interest

Senior managers were asked to indicate in order of priority the three most important areas where a management training and development program would help to increase their effectiveness. It was assumed that senior managers are able to identify what areas of training are most useful for their effectiveness. Although the responses do not allow for any clear classification, nevertheless, it is evident that the subject area is contingent not only with the senior managers' position in the hierarchy but also with the demands of a particular job in many aspects. For example, for the chief executives, the strategic issues, such as system management and general management principle are viewed as the most important training areas for their effectiveness. However, issues such as human resource management, human relation, and modern concepts of management, leadership, motivation and communication are considered as very useful training areas for the increased effectiveness of all senior managers irrespective of their level of seniority.

6.4.5 Aspects of Required Management Training

Respondents were asked what aspects of management training or expertise they considered as important to their effectiveness at work. As shown in Table 6.18 senior managers, perceived the task-related aspects of management as an important training component for increasing their effectiveness at work.

Table 6.18
The Need for Three Areas of Training and Expertise for all Senior Managers

Different areas of expertise	Mean Value	Std. Dev.
Task-related aspect	4.56	0.71
People-related aspect	4.47	0.68
Self development aspect	3.79	0.99

Task-related aspects of the work were described to them as a set of functional skills such as determining objectives, forecasting and organizing. People-related aspects of management training are seen to be almost as important and as worthy of attention for their increased effectiveness. In comparison, self-related management training is viewed as considerably less important than the other aspects (mean value = 3.79).

2.4.6 Participation in Management Training

Respondent senior managers were asked if they have participated in management training programs organizations by their organization. The majority of senior managers 91 percent (N=98), recalled that they had attended such programs. At the same time 9 percent of senior managers (N=10) reported that they had not participated in such programs at all. The management training efforts which have been carried out in the organizations basically took the form of one day seminars or short lectures which many believed to be inappropriate, irrelevant and even

ineffective. Respondents did not consider such efforts as planned formal training programs which are usually designed based on the systematic assessment of needs and specific statements of clear management training and development objectives.

6.4.7 The Influence of Training on the Three Aspects of Managerial Work

Senior managers were asked to express their views about the usefulness of those training programs in helping them to manage the different aspects of their jobs. The purpose of asking this question was to ascertain whether these programs have helped senior managers to acquire the three types of skills, people, task and analytical as being necessary for their effective management of their jobs.

As shown in Table 6.19, with regard to the overall ratings, those senior managers who had participated in these programs do not regard them as being of much use to them in carrying out their overall managerial responsibilities. The survey result indicates that current management training activities have not played an influential part in developing senior managers to deal with the people aspects of their jobs more effectively. It is important to note that most training and development courses which are carried out in all organizations are technical in nature thus, emphasizing the technical aspects of the senior managers' jobs. The senior managers, however, believed that these programs have been of some use in helping them to manage the task-related aspects of their work.

Table 6.19
Senior Managers' Perceptions about the Importance of the Training Programs in the Three
Aspects of their Managerial Job

Different aspects of management	Mean Value	Std Dev
1. Managing people	3.33	0.86
2. Managing tasks	3.53	0.94
3. Managing self and career development	3.39	0.86

6.4.8 Recommended Content of Management Training Programmes

The respondents were asked to explain what content they would suggest for an effective training program for senior managers in their organization. Although the statements of their responses do not lend themselves to any specific classification, many suggested that they would like a management training course to cover general concepts and theories of management, in particular those dealing with the subject of organizational behaviour and human resource related issues. In the course of the interviews many senior managers commented that they regarded management as a field of study and a discipline which needs to be studied and that they are very much interested in acquiring the knowledge and the skills not only out of necessity and because of the requirements of their job but for their own interest and development. The majority of senior managers however, showed a high interest for people management and human relation subjects and believed that they need them more than any other areas.

6.4.9 Preference for Management Training Methods

The data indicates that on the whole the 'group discussion method' is the most preferred approach for senior managers training irrespective of their seniority levels in the organization. The next method is the seminar, followed by the case study, workshop, role-play, lecture and job rotation in that order. The methods perceived as the least important are: role playing and lectures.

The results however, indicate that three management pedagogical methods namely group discussion; seminar and case study are viewed as the most useful methods by majority of senior managers. A summary of these results shown in Table 6.11 also indicates the ranked importance of the preferred methods in different level of the senior management hierarchy in the organization. The results of this investigation support the above empirical evidence, and may be taken as further evidence that the learning styles are culturally specific. The senior managers in this study have shown a high preference for specific learning methods which are essentially participatory and are basically auditory. As shown in Table 6.20, the top five preferred methods of instructions were:

- (1) Group Discussion,**
- (2) Seminars,**
- (3) Case studies,**
- (4) Workshops, and**
- (5) Role playing,**

All of which are essentially based on active participation and practice, (Burgoyne & Stuart, 1991).

Table 6.20
Preference of Training Methods by Managerial Levels

Training methods (ranked)	Levels of senior management					Total
	(S1)	(S2)	(S3)	(S4)	(S5)	
1. Group discussion	1	7	31	10	30	79
2. Seminars	2	7	25	8	28	70
3. Case studies	1	6	21	9	20	57
4. Work shops	1	6	13	5	18	43
5. Role playing	1	4	12	4	15	36
6. Lectures	0	1	8	4	10	23
7. Job rotation	1	3	5	2	12	22

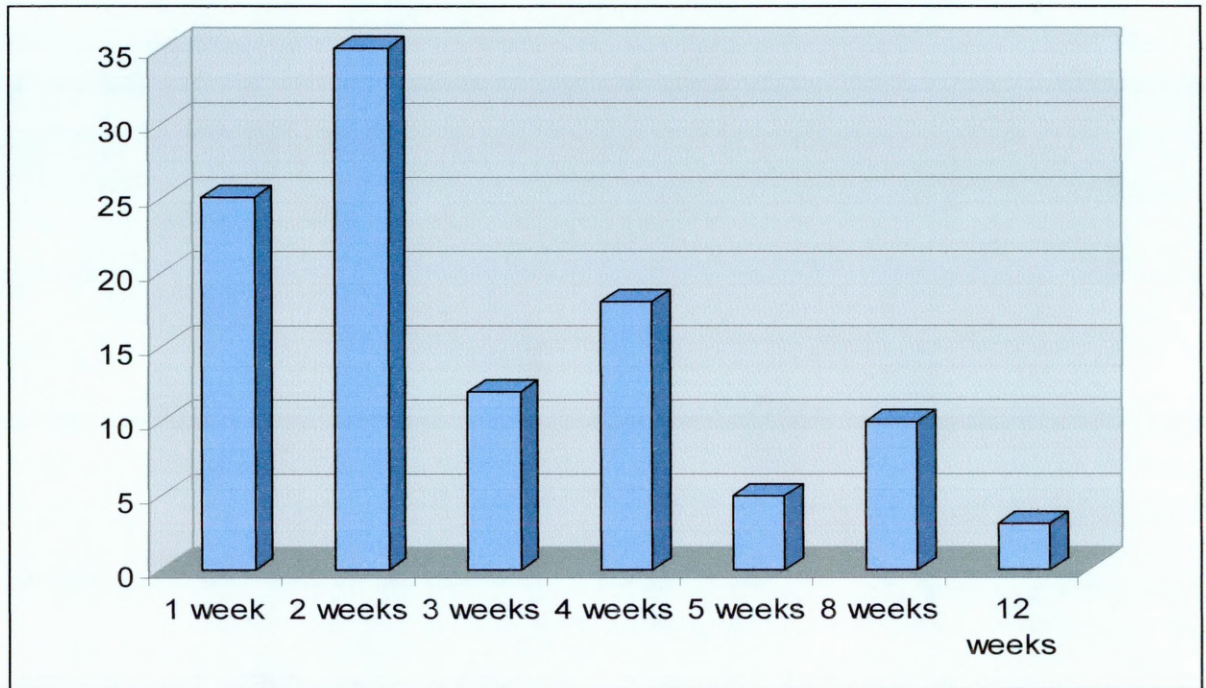
6.4.10 Preferred Length of the Training Course

Senior managers were asked to express their opinion about the appropriate length of the training program. As shown in figure 6.6, nearly 32 percent of participants (N=35) thought that a two weeks program is the most appropriate time for a training course specially designed for senior managers.

A total of twenty five senior managers (23 percent) preferred a one week program, while 18 respondents (17 percent) believed in a longer period of four weeks. At the same time 12 senior managers all from all management levels selected a three weeks program, whereas three preferred a twelve weeks period.

Figure 6.6

Senior Managers' Perceptions about the Appropriate Length of the Training Course



6.4.11 Preference for Training Resources

The issue of management development was further probed so as to ascertain senior managers' preferences regarding. Senior managers were therefore, asked if they had any preference for management training and development to be carried out by their organizations. The professional management centres (N=30, 28%) been viewed as the main type of development resources. As shown in Table 6.21, the next item 'management schools' scored with 26 percent response (N=28), followed by 'management consultant' 17% (N=18), government training centre 11 percent (N=12) and other resources with on equal number of responses. The results indicate that in-

house company training with a considerably high reliance on local professional management training institutes is preferred.

Table 6.21
Types of Management Training and Development Resources Perceived Suitable by All Senior Managers

Type of development resource	Number of Responses	Percentage in total %
Professional management training centre	30	28
Faculties of Management	28	26
Management consultants	18	17
Government management training centre	18	17
Other resources	12	11
No response	2	1
Total	108	100

6.4.12 Obstacles to Management Development

Senior managers were asked to rate the degree of severity of the various obstacles to management development in their organizations a scale of 1 to 3, where the score of 1 meant slight and 3 meant severe obstacles. From eleven obstacles ranked in the table below none seems to have been perceived as a severe obstacle to the process of management development. Six obstacles namely 'inappropriate appraisal system', 'lack of time/pressure of work', 'lack of suitable program', 'inappropriate personnel development policies', 'absence of career planning' and 'lack of vision' were perceived as being moderately severe obstacles in the way of management

development. Five problems were viewed as less than moderately severe. These were; 'low priority', 'lack of information', 'lack of recognition', 'low commitment' and 'finance/cost'. However, the inappropriate appraisal system is ranked as the first obstacle with a mean value of 2.42 (close to mid-point) in a three point scale and the least severe are the cost and financial problems involved. A few respondents also qualified their answers by adding a number of obstacles to the above list mainly in relation to inappropriate organization culture, centralized organization structure, and insufficient management tools as well as inconsistency in the implementation of organizational policies in the area recruitment, training and promotion.

6.5. Conclusion

In this chapter an attempt has been made to analyse the collected data using different descriptive statistical methods. The main idea was to get a clear picture of the nature of the data collected from car manufacturing firms in Iran. Systematic management training in field of managerial effectiveness programmes which provide for a balance combination of managerial knowledge and skills are vital for the increased effectiveness of senior managers. The research indicates that planned management development efforts are much desired and are seen as an essential means for personal and career development. The finding of this research as they relate to the main questions of the present research so far suggest that a combination of a diverse set of managerial skills are perceived as essential for the effectiveness of senior managers. From the research results it is clear that senior managers attached different degree of importance to the various managerial skills. The most significant conclusion reached relates to the presence of the parameters and identification of the behavioural and causal influences as their constituent components. In this respect, factors point to the significance of the role of the senior managers as individuals, the organisational context and dominant managerial philosophy in operation as well as the socio-economic, cultural and political influences. Overall, in addition to the senior managers' abilities and motivations, it is found that senior managers view personal characteristics as more important for their increased effectiveness than organisational and environmental factors. The conclusion of study reached is that effectiveness should be defined in terms of a function of awareness, self and other organizationally shared values, preferences, constraints, demands and choices and the ability to get the necessary jobs done. This view places the individual managers, in this case the senior officials and executives,

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the research in the context of the managerial effectiveness; eight identified parameters of managerial effectiveness, strategy for human resources development, including the training and development for the senior managers of CMI in Iran. The study aimed at identifying the casual and behavioural influences which determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in Car Manufacturing Industries in Iran. Here the main research questions which have been formulated are examined in details against available quantitative and qualitative data. The results point to the presence of factors which constitute “parameters” of effectiveness at work. The findings of this research support the findings of the other major researches in the field of managerial effectiveness (Gummesson, 1991; Analoui, 2002). In the case of present reach, these influences, referred to as “parameters” of managerial effectiveness (Analoui, 1993) include training and development (see Chapter 5) which constitutes one of the major aspects of this research. They pointed to individual but also internal and other external contextual factors which as a whole seemed to determine the senior managers’ effectiveness. These parameters have been discussed below, however, because of the significance which has been attached to the discovery of training and development needs of the senior managers for the increased effectiveness, the discussion below on second parameter (managerial skills) will include a detailed discussion of the training and development and related issues such as importance of communication, time management, decision making and the like.

Because of the importance of these particular parameters, a discussion on categories of managerial skills and its perceived importance are also presented in this section. These discussions will be followed by the remaining six parameters.

7.1. Managerial Perception (first parameter)

The senior managers and officials are asked to consider, "How would you describe an effective manager?" This query is aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager shall possess. The responses provide ranged from "ability to supervise", "being a good leader", to being concerned with "deadlines", "honest", "experienced" and "able to deliver goods on time". The description will provide also varied according the type of organisation the managers belong to. Such perceptions also represent the characteristics of a manager whom they often refer to as "ideal". In this respect the question is; do managers say something about themselves or do they describe an ideal manager? The data collected and analysed, indicate that on the whole, managers have in mind an image of an effective manager whom they wish to be or more importantly who they wish their superior to do. It is particularly interesting to discover that in situations where the managerial control is complete and which leaves little room for expression of discontent, the managers use such occasions to describe how they feel about their organisations and their immediate superiors.

The more senior the managers, the easier they find it to provide a description of who and what they think an effective manager shall be. However, no respondent

ever directly criticized their superior, but suffixed their answers with comments such as “we could do with a few of these people in this organisation”.

Analysis of the data, in the car manufacturing as the whole, indicated that the ten groups of attributes, in their order of priority, were stressed as the most important qualities as shown in table 6.18 in the chapter six. On the whole, the qualities which were described portrayed a manager who is able to both carry out the task and deal with people at work. However, most emphasis seems to have been placed on the need to understand subordinates, and motivate and lead people at work. It was also noted that managers felt that they ought to be able to perform tasks with little or no supervision all. When they were specifically asked whether this is their expectation from their subordinates or were it that they felt that they were constantly being supervised, most expressed the former rather than the latter.

Despite the impression given that effective managers require qualities which are more people related, the terminology used to describe these qualities, such as planning, organizing, scheduling, disciplining and the like, are indicative of the functional image of the manager as described by early management theorists (Analoui, 1999). Managers' perception (first parameter) revealed the overall conclusion that it is not enough to be able to get the job done, simply because managerial positions also require the ability to work with people. The fact that most managers were critical of the way they were being managed or the way things are in their organisation is indicative of their frustration and dismay with the present system within the public sector.

7.2. Managerial Skills (second parameter)

Senior managers and executives were asked to choose between ten managerial skills, in order of priority to them, which in their view are essential for ensuring their increase of effectiveness. The responses collected were weighted according to their corresponding order of priority. A total of 32 levels of skills and expertise were identified. The different descriptions of skills depending on the priority assign to them by the senior participants are then categorized into ten major skill categories for each organisation.

Further analysis shows that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities which have been reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important ones are associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones as shown in Figure 6.5 in chapter six. Skills such as delegation, being a good planner, organizing ability, good human relations and leadership skills are indicating that, as expected, senior managers are more in need of “interpersonal” and “analytical skills” rather than “informational” and “decisional” as has been described in the available literature. Two important issues have emerged from his data. These are:

1. There seems to be a similarity between the characteristics attributed to an effective manager and the skills which are required to remain effective. This consistency in the responses given has important implications for the way managers perceive themselves and others, in particular their superiors.

2. People-related and analytical skills seem to be the most important skills required by managers for their effectiveness at work. While most skills tend to equip the managers to become more successful in their interaction with others, the self-related skills seem to be needed in order to compensate for the lack of attention and supervision expected by them.

Again the responses were partly expressing the managers' expectation of others, in particular the leadership of the organisation, and partly providing what they thought were the main ingredients for being effective. Data generated through interviews indicated that in most cases respondents felt that possession of these skills would "helpfully" lead to more effectiveness at work but in reality they felt that the situation may never change. The responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in developed and developing countries. Senior managers become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because awareness is gained that one cannot be effective unless he or she can work with or through people, namely colleagues, peers and subordinates. It is probably not surprising to report that senior managers require as much if not more "management development" than "management".

Within the framework of the research one major objective of this investigation was to find out what categories of skills and knowledge were seen as necessary to perform the managerial roles and functions as well as the degree of influence which the respondents attached to these skills and knowledge as determinants and reasons of their effectiveness. More specifically, it was assumed that senior

managers view people-related and self-development categories of skills as more important for their increased effectiveness, and that the importance of these categories of skills increases as senior managers' move higher up the hierarchy. Overall, the findings of the study support the idea put forward in the research that senior managers place considerably more importance on the people-related, analytical and self-related categories of managerial skills for their effectiveness. This major finding is complemented by the results obtained from another part of the survey where senior managers were asked to name and accordingly rate the importance attached to factors which they thought have contributed to their satisfactory performance. Here again, senior managers, as a whole, perceived functional skills as being less important than human-related ones as determinant factors for achieving results at work.

The finding supports the related research propositions that the categories of people-related skills is generally viewed, by senior managers, as the most important set of skills for increasing their effectiveness, more remarkably, regardless of their positions of seniority. This finding is complemented by further analysis of the results and also the importance of the category of people-related skills emerged clearly as the most influential pattern of managerial skills required for the effectiveness of senior managers.

Additionally, the survey results support the theory that demand for technical skills decreases as managers rise through the hierarchy of the organisation, the results of this research indicate that the need for people skills remains generally higher than task-related skills for senior managers at different levels of the

hierarchy. It has already been learnt, from other studies, that most of a senior manager's time is spent in contact with other people (Carlson 1951; Copeman; 1963; and Stewart, 1967), and that managing people is being increasingly considered as constituting a more significant aspect of any senior manager's job (Bolton, 1979; Kotter, 1982; Margerison, et al. 1987). These findings are also in line with the results of other studies which are reported from developing countries (Analoui, 1990, 1995, 1997 and 1999) involving and implying that the senior manager's effectiveness is, to a lesser or greater extent, a function of competences shown in working with people and that people-related skills, such as communication, interpersonal skills, leadership and conflict resolution are perhaps the most vital attributes for their success. The analysis of qualitative data generally supports the view that the higher the position senior managers occupy the more they need to be able to deal with the political processes which are inherited in their job and consequently the greater need for improving their interactive, interpersonal and decisional skills.

The results also indicate and point out that the senior managers in both studied organisations (A and B) attached different degree of importance, depending on their level and position of seniority, to the category of analytical and self-related skills. Self development is considered to be an important part of a manager's job and one which requires knowledge and a specific set of new skills (Drucker, 1974). Thus, there is an ever increasing awareness among managers that their effectiveness is largely dependent on their ability and desire for their own personal growth and development. This group of senior managers ranked the 'analytical and self-development' category as the second most important set of

skills required for their effectiveness. It is also noted that senior managers in level S3 perceived a much greater need for the self-related skills as opposed to task-related skills. The same also seemed to hold true for senior managers at level two four and five (S2, S4, and S5). Although the felt need for analytical and self-related skills and knowledge were high among all the respondents, it was evident that the need for acquisition of these skills was emphasised more at the lower levels of the managerial hierarchy than the higher ones. Although the grouping of the skills into three predetermined categories may seem arbitrary, nevertheless, it appears that the people-related skills together with the analytical and self-related categories of skills are generally perceived as more important than that of task-related ones. Overall, the findings of this research so far provide partial support for Analoui's model of management development which suggests the presence of a hierarchy amongst the categories of managerial skills (Analoui, 1993).

7.3. Organisational Criteria (third parameter)

Managers are asked about the criteria for effectiveness in their organisations. As expected, in each organisation a list of factors are produced which are not exactly the same as those from the other organisations. Evidently, each organisation (A and B) because of its cultural specifications derived from the nature of the work, its history, size and the like, tend to support the basis for a particular way of working and standard with which effectiveness has been measured.

Periodically projects were discussed and targets were set. Most senior and executive managers expressed the opinion that the most important indicator to

them of their effectiveness was that their staff were achieving targets. However, it became clear that targets were often “set” for the subordinates, with little degree of involvement in the setting of those targets on the part of the employees concerned. The relevant findings of the data can be seen in chapter six Table 6.19.

In spite of the difficulties, demands and constraints with which managers were faced, the organisation expectation was an ability to “get on with it” and “get the job done”. Most work which was carried out in these departments took the form of projects and programmes, therefore, the ability to prepare the research report and providing it in time were seen as being of the most importance.

Reports and other written documents were seen as the means of verifying the achievement of targets. Managers are expected to plan, self-motivate and achieve targets. These were expectations very similar to the characteristic used by the managers to describe an effective manager. It could be argued that all managers were aware of what was expected from them and that their views and opinions concerning managerial effectiveness has been partly, or even to a large extent in some cases, formed by the dominant value system of the organisation.

Top management is concerned, as shown in the literature review, about a tendency on the part of the senior managers and executives to identify with the core values of the organisation and what was observed in the car manufacturing industries, in improving managerial effectiveness at work and also in organisational goals.

7.4. Motivation (fourth parameter)

As suggested in the earlier in chapter six, in order to understand effectiveness, attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, particular the motive behind the actions undertaken by managers. The analysis of the quantitative data revealed, not surprisingly, that the motivators were those factors which were not already present at work. According to Analoui (2002) 'all managers reported that their effectiveness is adversely affected the low level of remuneration since they had to "think about" how to compensate and balance for the lack of it, and/or spend time outside of the organisation, often on "projects of some sort to feed their family' (Analoui, 2002). This reveals that top management show deep dissatisfaction with the "worsening situation". "How can we [senior managers] motivate our employees? We have no control over it at all" It is therefore understood that employees from time to time need to "earn some money"; therefore, their absence from the organisation is not complained about seriously (Analoui, 1999: 374).

Considering the findings of this research (see Table 6.20) on average, it has been reported that the monthly salary of a managers will only "take care of third of [our] monthly expenses. Almost all managers will supplement their monthly remuneration with some sort of second earning, which in many cases will take them away from their workplace and even periodically their country.

The most interesting point, however, is one which goes beyond "remuneration" or in this case the lack of it. Motivators, such as "recognition from superiors", "job satisfaction" and "training and self-development" will be reported as the main

motivating factors towards effectiveness. Thus, these and other remain factors such as “promotion” and good teamwork seem to be symptomatic of the following issues:

1. The reward system within the “CMI” in Iran acts as a demotivator and adversely affects their effectiveness at work.
2. Managers particularly in operation/production (S3) and technical (S5) levels, feel that they do not receive recognition for work well done.
3. The managerial style adopted by the top management is responsible for this.
4. Job satisfaction, especially among scientists, seems to be the most important motivator for remaining in their posts.
5. Achievement of targets set also added to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acted as motivator in their work. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work found the challenge to be motivating and the main reason for their effectiveness at work.
6. Provision of resources and teamwork will be suggested to work as motivators.

It was interesting to note that what was expressed as the motivators were indeed the problem areas and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. Not surprisingly, these findings are similar to the findings of the other researches in this field. For instance, Analoui (1999) in his work pointed out that, "Devaluation of the currency, inflation, a substantial decline in the purchasing power of the managers together with organisational structural reform adds to the worsening situation as far as the motivation for effectiveness is concerned" (Analoui, 1999: 374).

7.5. The Degree of "Demands" and "Constraints" (fifth parameter)

It is difficult if not impossible to deal with the issue of effectiveness at work without considering the "constraints and demands" with which managers are faced. Realistically, managers are not free floating agents, allowed to do what they desire. In almost all organisations, there are inhibiting forces which slow down the progress and need to be managed, removed or negotiated. In line with an open system approach towards understanding managers, their works and effectiveness, the managers are asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work. Analysis of the data provided a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse effect on the effectiveness of the managers, though managers in each organisation naturally experienced different sets of difficulties. Inappropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/or inappropriate training, as shown in Figure 6.6 in chapter six. Despite the differences between the organisations and the difference between the degrees of emphasis placed on the identified factor, a cluster of factors tended to be shared between two organisations (A and B). These difficulties are: inappropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/or

inappropriate training, poor remuneration, lack of motivation, lack of teamwork. The constraints and demands, whether those identified and briefly have been introduced or those which will be never mentioned, such clusters of demands at an individual, organisational and a wide social level, leave the managers with very little chance to determine their own level of effectiveness.

7.6. Presence of “Choices” and “Opportunities” for Effectiveness (Sixth parameter)

Stewarts (1982; 1991) suggests that choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. According to Analoui's work (1999: 380), he argues that 'a total of 35 factors related to the choices available have been identified, from which the ten most important ones are listed as follow:

- *training (self)*
- *on-the-job training,*
- *part-time study,*
- *necessary resources/equipment,*
- *teamwork/co-operation,*
- *better remuneration,*
- *funding,*
- *more appropriate staff,*
- *visit other units/establishments,*
- *effective/regular communication, and*
- *relevant literature/ library.*

The responses of the senior managers point to solutions and ways of dealing with the present situation in order to become more effective. As one explained, “This is not the ultimate to training and improving the working condition as much as

possible". Almost all departments and organisations considered training as one of the most important factors for increased effectiveness. This was particularly evident in both studied organisations A and B where the main proportions of the staff were top management. They generally believed that training would increase their effectiveness, though most qualified this by adding that, "but not by CMI institutions". It was interesting to see that most senior managers showed very little confidence in the effectiveness of the training which is provided locally, in particular the Centre for Management Development (CMD). It was widely believed that the course (content and structure) and the trainers were not able to meet the needs and demands of the senior managers. Examples provided by both organisations illustrated this point.

There was some damning evidence as to the ineffectiveness of the present training facilities and opportunities. As one explained, "I took a course at CMI two years ago, I have kept the training material and even the timetable." Most senior managers sought training abroad as one of the possibilities rather than opportunities open to them to become more effective. These seem to be an implicit order and schedule for staff to take "foreign visits". The absence of an appropriate evaluation system meant that opportunities were generally shared and often, instead of training, senior staff was sent away on Masters' and even PhD programmes abroad. The most realistic view was that, in the absence of external opportunities for that a combination of part-time study, on-the-job training may provide better value, a point which was not acceptable by all.

There were two other major factors which were regarded as opportunities for improving effectiveness: one was referred to as resources, better working conditions and equipment, and the other was referred to as the organisational and managerial processes. Most senior managers, especially those at the top management team in CMI in Iran, felt that "their effectiveness could be almost double, if they had more resources". The point which was frequently mentioned was that a more equitable distribution of resources could improve the work of the car manufacturing and the effectiveness of its staff.

Organisational and leadership processes such as, communication, delegation, incentives, team management and the like were mentioned as solutions rather than opportunity. "If only we could..." suffixed most such suggestions. Wherever, there was a discussion concerning effectiveness, training and availability of opportunities, it was repeatedly mentioned that: "Those who really need the training for increased effectiveness are the very top management of the CMI in both studied organisations. "They are the policy makers, strategic decision makers ..." a point which some top management agreed with and some resented strongly.

The opportunities will be in a sense related to demands and constraints. It appears that the presence of the constraints and demands will be forcing senior managers to think of a "way out". Unfortunately, in most cases and only in interviews, senior managers will reveal that training, part-time study and full-time secondment, visits abroad including attending seminars, conferences and other scientific venues will be seen as ultimately enabling the senior managers to move up, move away or one day be able to work for international agencies. It was clear that the presence of "role-culture" and lack of motivation "has forced" some managers "to think of

themselves". Therefore, the exploration of choices perceived as being available to them indirectly showed the presence of a strong belief in what could only be regarded as the main reason for "person-cultures" in car manufacturing industry.

7.7. Nature of Inter-Organisational Relationships (Seventh parameter)

Implicit and explicit remarks have been frequently made where the overall subject of managerial effectiveness will be being discussed. All respondents saw their effectiveness as being affected, if not determined, by the overall effectiveness of the organisation. It was evident that the respondents were aware that there is a two-way relationship between their effectiveness and the organisation that was determined partly by their organisation's relationship with other organisations and agencies, both nationally and internationally. Moreover, they felt that establishing inter-organisational relationships with other organisation is not only "inevitable" but also a "must" for the senior managers. It is this aspect which influences their organisation effectiveness as well as their very own.

In the CMI, the co-ordinating headquarters seems to be the focus of attention for senior managers from other organisations. It was generally believed that for a variety of reasons, thus, the strategy in the policy maker department of car manufacturing industry tends to influence the potential for effectiveness of the other departments. In other words, there was a widespread belief with the purpose of that the insufficiencies of the policy maker department become uncertain blocks for the studied firms and related organisations. Interestingly, amongst the firms, there seemed to be little problem in terms of identification of the level of the desired action, but it was the procedure that once the policy maker department

became involved, delays and other related problems tended to occur. As discussed in chapter six, there were a significant relationship between changes on the environmental factors and managerial effectiveness in the studied firms. For instance increasing uncertainty and ambiguity on governmental policies in car industry positively decreased the managerial effectiveness in the studied firms.

During the last few years there has been a shift of policy on the governmental departments such as Ministry of Industries (MI) and Industries Development Organisation (IDO), which have diverted funds to projects and/or directly to car manufacturing firms in public sector. The government has provided funds and loans to different agencies of the CMI. Senior managers are aware that their initiative in creating and maintaining relationship with other organisation in the environment not only helps to formulate strategy but also makes them aware of changes before they adversely effect their own and their organisation effectiveness.

7.8. Dominant Managerial Philosophy (Eight parameter)

It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organisation does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed, and generally it influences the flow of information and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organisation. The leadership of the organisation provides the standard for the patterns of behaviour and therefore has proven to be decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the organisation.

The data, whether in qualitative or quantitative form, have been tainted by the presence of this influence of the managerial philosophy and style of top executives of the car manufacturing industry and its related departments. The traditional preference for “politically correct administration” as opposed to management has resulted in many instances in the ineffectiveness of the individual managers and the organisations as a whole. However, this ought to be seen in context in that, all executives in charge of the departments and the directorates of the two studied organisations (A and B) which have been appointed as opposed to being specifically employed or selected. In both organisations, there seems to be a tendency on the part of management for centralization, top-down management, overemphasis on control and managerial decision making. In most cases it was observed that executives did not delegate and therefore in their absence major decisions could not be made, there were some exceptions to this general rule among the executives. Ultimately, the degree to which the executives and senior managers will be adhered to traditional management, or to correct administration principles vary from one organisation to another. In this respect, Analoui points out that,

“Apart from a few top senior managers and executives who did feel that there is a need for change of attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training and the adoption of the participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work” (Analoui, 1999: 386).

It can be concluded that, the eight parameters of effectiveness within CMI in Iran and public sector organisations also point to a mirror image of the characteristics of each dimension. That is to suggest, what forms the motivation for greater effectiveness is also indicative of what the constraints and demands are which

control, inhabit or completely paralyse the individual concerned. The perception of the individual managers of their own and their colleagues' effectiveness is also related to the skills and abilities attributed to the effective managers. And, most important of all, the organisation's expectation of its managers is reflected in the nature of the criteria for effectiveness which is held by the organisation. The finding of this research also support the related research hypothesis and the finding of other studies (Mintzberg, 1973; Katz, 1974; Pavett and Lau, 1983, Analoui, 1990, 1993, 1995, 1997 and 1999) and therefore suggests that the relative importance of parameters of effectiveness also vary with respect to the positions of senior managers in the hierarchy of the organisation.

7.9. Conclusion

The findings of this research appear to indicate that people-related skills have the highest influence on the effectiveness of senior managers; more attention needs to be paid to developing competence in people skills at all levels of senior management. These results also suggest that the senior managers' own development and growth must be given a high degree of priority in the formulation of the human resource development policies and strategies, while at the same time some efforts need to be directed towards eliminating those obstacles which are hindering senior managers' development. It should be pointed out that the relative degrees of importance attached to such skills are likely to change with respect to circumstances.

One interesting issue which has emerged from all this is that in reality the identified managerial skills are so overlapping that it is difficult to make a clear-

cut distinction between the three categories, the line of differentiation there, can only be drawn theoretically and only for the ease of analytical purposes. Furthermore, there is clear indication that senior manager irrespective of their seniority, require a comprehensive range of managerial skills for their increased effectiveness.

Recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the public sector to the realisation of the growth and development of the senior managers in the manufacturing sector. Analoui's eight parameters framework has been employed to study the managerial effectiveness and management development issues in CMI sector in Iran. The aim and analysis of the eight parameters of managerial effectiveness is to identify the causal and behavioural influences which determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the CMI sector.

The eight parameters of effectiveness within public sector organisations also point to a mirror image of the characteristics of each dimension. That is to suggest, what forms the motivation for greater effectiveness is also indicative of what the constraints and demands are which control, inhabit or completely paralyse the individual concerned. The perception of the individual managers of their own and their colleagues' effectiveness is also related to the skills and abilities attributed to the effective managers. And, most important of all, the organisation's expectation of its managers is reflected in the nature of the criteria for effectiveness which is held by the organisation.

In the next chapter therefore, attempts will be made to draw relevant conclusions based on the findings of the research and hence explore the likely implications for further research and its application within the manufacturing sector in Iran.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Management is a science: successful management is an art.

Introduction

This study was mainly concerned with assessing the impotence of the required the increased managerial effectiveness, managerial knowledge, skills, and eight parameters as perceived by senior managers, for their increased effectiveness within the Car Manufacturing Industry “CMI” in Iran, which has been investigated. The research therefore, aimed at identifying what range of managerial effectiveness and skills form the most influential factors on senior managers’ effectiveness.

In other words, the question of what contributes to the increased managerial effectiveness has received much recognition and attention in developing countries and states such as Iran where there is a growing need for competent and effective managers. This first time study explores ways and means to identify and improve the managerial effectiveness of and competencies top and senior managers, at personal and organisational levels, in the car manufacturing industry in Iran. To achieve this, the model for “Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness” has been used as basis to explore the awareness and perceptions, skills, organisational criteria, constraints and opportunities and motivation, improve the content and context of senior managers’ work. More over, a myriad of individual, organisation and environmental factors such implications of the study for Human Resources Development (HRD) and Human Resources Management (HRM) in car industries and for government and co-operation agencies have been included. The required empirical data were generated from a unique sample of 108 senior managers at five levels of hierarchy by the means of

survey questionnaires and sample interviews through a fieldwork in two major car manufacturing plants of the country. It was found that the effectiveness of senior managers as a whole is perceived as being a function of a hierarchy of various sets of skills and competencies. Also, the degree of importance attached to the required skills is relative to the senior managers' position at different levels of the organisation as well as being contingent upon other circumstances in which the managers find themselves. It is concluded that the most important set of managerial skills which are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers are a combination of 'analytical and self development', 'people and task related' skills. However, these findings should be determined in a wider context of parameters of their effectiveness. These have paramount implication for the state of (HRM) and the government policies to ensure the increased effectiveness of the senior managers as the whole and in the Car Industries in Particular in Iran.

In the review of the literature, in an attempt to gain a deeper insight to the core issue of the research: to considerate the categories of skills and knowledge actually needed by senior managers for their increased effectiveness, a review over three interrelated issues in three different parts is presented. First to discuss fundamental issues which are associated with the concepts of development of management and the nature of the managers jobs. Second, debates are provided to explore what approaches are specific the development of senior managers in developing countries. Third, a comprehensive review of literature related to the concept and the importance of managerial effectiveness is provided. The review of the literature puts forward the matter that the participant senior managers are generally well aware of the importance of management development training and the achievement of managerial skills as the most appropriate means for intensifying their managerial effectiveness.

According to the analysis of the data and empirical findings of the research which are firmly related to the methodology chosen, the objective is to describe the methodology that has been employed when exploring means and ways by which senior managers' effectiveness is increased and their performance is improved.

The empirical findings of the research provide partial support for Analoui's eight parameters of managerial effectiveness model (1999) of management development and show that the notion of hierarch of skills holds some validity, suggesting that as senior managers move higher up in the organisation, they tend to have greater need for people-related, analytical and self-related skills in order to perform their job effectively.

The research has identified the most salient managerial effectiveness and skills which are seen to be associated with the increased effectiveness of senior managers in the car industries in Iran. It has also examined the degree of their importance at different senior management levels, and has been successful in exploring the degree of importance of the categories of skills and knowledge actually needed by senior managers for their increased effectiveness on the hierarchy of their organisations. Based on the results which have emerged from the various phases of the research valuable implications are drawn. It is intended therefore, to present the relevant conclusions and draw specific implicating on the basis of the theoretical and impractical evidence available.

This chapter starts with a review of the importance of the car factories for economy and role of senior managers and their effectiveness in car industry in Iran.

Then the key findings in order to summarise the main issues rise in this thesis. Next the contribution of the research to knowledge and the implications of the study in theory and practice, with particular focus on management development, are explained. Finally, the limitations of the study are assessed and suggestions for further research are made.

8.1. The importance of the car industry for Iranian economy and role of senior managers and their effectiveness in that industry In Iran.

The car industry is a major component of Iran's economy. It constitutes nearly 10% of the country's GNP (The Annual Statistical Reports of Iran, 1994-2003). Half a million of the country's three and half million labour force are directly employed in this industry and it is estimated that an equal number earn their living through related activities to the car industry. With the vehicle and spare parts trade, retailers, maintainances and the other directly or indirectly related areas, it is estimated that some five million Iranian's living are one way or the other related to the car industry and its accessories (Ibid).

When in the late 1950s and early 1960s the Iranian authorities decided to lay the foundation of the car industry, little did they thought that one day, some five million Iranians livings would be dependent on this industry. There are three important factors which have led to the expansion of the car industry in Iran. First is the sheer size of the country. The scattering of hundreds of towns and cities throughout Iran creates a huge potential for car as an appropriate and relatively economical means of transport. The second factor is lack of an effective public transport. Iran has one of the least developed railroad system. Although there has been some improvement since the 1979 revolution, there are virtually no railroad system connecting major cities in Iran let alone hundreds of small

towns scattered through thousands of kilometres across the country. Apart from the capital, where during the past five years an underground metro system has become into existence, there is virtually no intercity railway system. The entire underground lines in Tehran, a city with some 12 millions inhabitants and an estimated area of 500 sq km, are less than 70 km (Sharq Daily news papers, 2004). This huge capital's municipal authorities have provided only 5000 buses for the entire city's public transport. The picture in other cities and towns only gets worse. With such a huge shortage of public transport, vacuum has to be filled with privately operated small vehicles. Hence, one can understand the huge growth to the car industry during the past decades.

The third reason for the rapid growth of the car industry in Iran is the relatively cheap prices of petrol and diesel. The current petrol price is 5 Pence on per litre or less than 20 pence per Gallon. This has turned Iran into one of the most fuel-consuming-per head country in the world. The per-capita fuel consumption in Iran is 12 times higher than India and 10 times higher than that of China (Hamshahry, news paper, 2004). The current daily petrol consumption is 70 million litres per day. More than one third of the consumption has to be imported which makes Iran one of the largest importer of car fuel in the world despite the fact that it is the second largest members of the OPEC producers exporting 2.5 million barrels a day (Ministry of oil, 2004).

It is against this background that the significance of the car industry for the Iranian's overall economy must be appreciated. It was therefore not surprising that Iran was amongst the earliest country in the region as well as the Asia which began to establish a car industry. Historically, Iran was the second country in Asia which established a proper car assembly line after Japan, around 1960. The first car which was actually produced (assembled) in Iran came out in 1963. It was a small Fiat which was jointly produced by the Italians.

There is another way which one can appreciate the importance of the car industry in Iran. By the turn of the 1980s, less than 10,000 cars were produced in Iran. A decade later the figure had reached to 100, 000. In 2003, the figure approached 500,000 and it is estimated by the end of the Fourth-Year Plan (2003-2006) it will surpassed the one million mark (Planning and Management, 2004). One hundred folds increase in less than twenty five years. No other industry including the oil and petrochemicals which constitute the back borne of the country's economy, has enjoyed such a huge growth.

The strength of the car industry in Iran's economy, as well as its long history, lead any observer to conclude therefore that it must be one of the best developed industry in the country. The reality is however very different. South Korea established its car industry nearly two decades after Iran and in 2004, its export earnings from vehicle industry were \$ 40 billions. Turkey established its car industry nearly two decades ago and it exported nearly \$ 10 billion worth of vehicles and spare parts to the EU alone in 2004 (Planning and Management, 2004). In spite of its 50-years old existence, the Iranian car industry has not been able to establish any foothold outside it country.

The inadequacies of Iran's car industry have largely been blamed on the fact that since its birth in 1960, the industry has been established, owned and operated under firm state control. There have been some attentions by the private sector to penetrate in the car industry both before and after the 1979 revolution. But these attempts have not been able to establish a genuine private sector car industry. Various government departments, agencies, laws, regulations as well as restrictions have prevented the entrepreneurs from flourishing and growing in the car industry. The private sector has only recently been able to establish a

limited foothold in spare parts and car accessories. But even in these areas they have not been very successful largely due to intense competitions from the Chinese manufacturers.

The role of the state in preventing the Iranian car industry to reach the stage which it naturally deserves has prevented the other factors to receive much attention. Moreover, the analysts and scholars have assumed almost by the definition that the state control ultimately results into failure. An assumption which in theory at the least lacks the scientific foundations. In other words, the analysts have always taken for granted that this factor has basically been responsible for the car industry's lack of fundamental development. The underlying assumption is that the state control ultimately leads into failure and being uncompetitive.

Whilst it is true that the state-operated enterprises have seldom succeeded, there is no reason to assume that state control must lead inevitably to failure. Whether or not such an assumption is a universal truth and always holds, the fact remains however that the other factors which play significant role in the success or demise for a particular industry to go unnoticed.

One such factor which has grossly been ignored is the role, or the significance of senior management in the success or failure of a state operated industry and subsequent investigation of these factors form the lay-out this research. The main question pursued in this research is: what are the significance and the role of senior managerial skills and effectiveness in the ultimate success and the development of the car industry. How can the managerial effectiveness in the car industry in Iran be measured in the first place and be improved subsequently. It is for the first time that such a research has been undertaken about the car industry in Iran.

There are of course several major obstacles in carrying out such a research and to demonstrate the relevant empirical relations between the successes the car industry on the one hand and the development in the managerial effectiveness of on the other. First of all, the literature on the study of the managerial effectiveness is not very wide spread because not much imperial research has been carried out in this area. There has been some recent work notably the research conducted by Analoui, but on the who this area is not known for the richness of the data. This problem exacerbates further when the study involves the developing countries including Iran. As mentioned above, the literature and the precedent of similar research are very rare in Iran particularly in the car industry. The collection of empirical data and design an effective and practical research methodology is the second problem.

These problems however, didn't deter the undertaking of the research.

8.2. Review of the Key Findings

The key finding of this research relates to the presence of eight parameters of managerial effectiveness and the identification of the behavioural and causal influences as their constituent and essential components. These parameters point to the significance of the role of the senior managers as individuals influenced by organisational, socio-economic, cultural and political environments in which they operate. It is argued here that the demanding aspects of managerial work are contingent upon the managerial position in the hierarchy, and the functional requirements of the job as well as the situational factors. It is therefore concluded that eight parameters of managerial effectiveness and management development programme must be considered as an integral part of the process of organisational development.

The results of this research lead to making suggestions on how to improve leadership styles, delegation and human relations in the organisations studied. Managerial work is complex and requires the managers to master the knowledge and skills which enables them to deal effectively with various aspects of their job. It is argued here that the work of senior managers and managerial effectiveness are predominately seen as involving both managing task and people. However, in broad terms, the conclusions reached go some way to verify the commonly accepted view that, managers, in spite of the cultural context in which they operate have to deal with people and people-related issues in their organisations. Senior managers felt that the effective management of people is also a key to effective management of task and that effective management of people plays an important role toward increasing the effectiveness of the organisation.

Concerning the importance of communication, this study concludes that that in the case of most senior managers, satisfactory delegation of managerial responsibilities and the smooth operation of managerial effectiveness at their works depend largely on the ability of managers to communicate effectively with others. Communication as a main aspect of managerial skills, a parameter of managerial effectiveness, is seen as a key factor for effective management in its whole diversity.

It has been also found that senior managers in the car manufacturing industries of Iran, regardless of the nature of their job, their formal qualifications and the position in which they operate, felt that they could benefit from managerial effectiveness, management training and development. Senior managers definitely believed that with the ever increasing changes in the job and its environment, managerial effectiveness, management training and development are inevitable requirements for their sustained effectiveness. The planned

management development efforts are much desired and are seen as an essential means for personal and career development. Senior managers view management training as the most effective means of acquiring managerial knowledge and skills. It is believed that systematic management training programmes which specifically cater for a balanced combination of managerial knowledge and skills are vital for their increased effectiveness. The conclusion reached goes further to suggest that managerial effectiveness, management training and development must be regarded as a continuous learning process which is not only concerned with increasing the effectiveness of all managers, but with the improvement of organisational effectiveness as well. Undoubtedly, a systematic approach towards the development of managerial capacity is consistent with the ultimate goal of economic or national development through the effective improvement of management.

The areas and the content of a given managerial effectiveness and management training programme for managerial effectiveness are in many aspects contingent upon position, demands and constraints of the managers' activities. However, management training programme which place more emphasis on the people-related aspects of the managers training and development needs are generally viewed as more suitable for senior managers and are highly valued for their increased effectiveness. The identified categories which are considered most useful for the increased effectiveness of all senior managers are: human resource management; human relations, leadership and communication. Moreover, the content of managerial effectiveness, management training and development programmes must be designed in such a way as to acquaint the senior managers with modern management concepts, theories, functions and techniques.

Senior managers as a whole would expect management training programmes to result in self-development and the acquisition of people-related and task-related knowledge and skills. Nevertheless, when comparing people and task related categories of skills, training in the self-development area is less emphasised. There is a continual need for the development of organisational members, managers and senior managers in particular. In order to ensure the overall effectiveness of all employees, a clear strategy towards increasing managerial effectiveness and management development policy which is based on true and up to date assessment of individuals, group and organisational development needs, must be adopted. However, it is concluded that for managers to be effective it is not sufficient to provide only for their additional education and experience through training, it is also important that those obstacles which relate to managerial effectiveness, management training and development programme are as much as possible identified and removed by the organisation.

Senior managers felt that the existence of the obstacles such as the presence of inappropriate appraisal system, pressure of work, lack of suitable training programmes, inappropriate human resources development policies, lack of career planning, lack of vision and the low priority which is given to managerial effectiveness, management training programme and development activities in the organisations are the main blockage to management development in their organisations.

All the above findings should have important implications for managerial effectiveness, management education, management training programme and development in Iran. The creation of an organisational environment in which people work willingly and effectively is the most important factor by which senior manager's effectiveness may be assessed. The senior managers within the

car manufacturing industries in Iran chose from a series of managerial skills which were presented to them, four in particular as being the most important for their increased effectiveness. These include:

- (1) the ability to communicate effectively with other people;
- (2) the ability to manage one's own time and use it effectively;
- (3) the ability to make decisions and resolve work related problems; and
- (4) the ability to lead and motivate employees at work.

Therefore it has been argued in this thesis that the most crucial set of managerial skills which are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers, as a whole, are indeed a combination of 'analytical and self development', and 'people and task related' skills. Senior managers are expected to demonstrate a high level of competence of various skills, although people skills have emerged as more decisive influence for their effectiveness at work. The relative degree of importance attached to each set of managerial skills varies with respect to the senior managers' position and may also be contingent upon other circumstances in which the managers find themselves. The results of analysis, therefore, should be taken to be most relevant to the car manufacturing industries. For this reason, managers from the two organisations with different sizes and from different regions within the country (Iran) may have different perceptions of the importance of their required knowledge and skills.

The classification of various managerial skills into different categories may be valid to some extent. It is noted however, that the identified skills are overlapping in many instances. Thus, the question of interrelationships between these skills becomes a matter of importance. This however, suggests that managerial skills should be viewed as a whole and examined in its entirety.

Given consideration to the three aspects (self, task and people) of managerial work and responsibilities, it may be concluded that managers need to acquire a mix of three categories of skills for their effectiveness at work namely 'people-related', 'analytical and self-related', and 'task-related' skills. However, the research results clearly show that the degree of importance attached to the above skills may vary according to the position of the managers and the demands of their particular jobs. For the development of senior managers, the implications of the presence of a hierarchy for different categories of managerial skills are many.

Since the degree of importance attached to various skills is relative and therefore, is likely to change with respect to senior managers' position as well as the demands of their job and the constraints that are present in various situations, consequently, the average perceived importance of the three categories of managerial skills varies for managers at different levels of seniority. However, the emerging pattern of variations and the forming of distinct categories of skills show that senior managers perceive their effectiveness to be more a function of people-related and analytical and self-related categories of managerial skills than task-related ones. Therefore, it can be tentatively claimed that the people-related category of skills is relatively the most important category for the increased effectiveness of senior managers, irrespective of their position in the hierarchy. The main reason for this is that, senior managers are expected to acquire a high level of competences in dealing with a variety of people in and out side of their work environment so that they can exert influence on the behaviour of others for the sake of achieving organisational objectives. Since managing people is being increasingly considered as constituting a significant aspect of any senior manager's job, their effectiveness to a greater extent, viewed as a function of competence which is shown in working with people and that people-related skills, such as communication, interpersonal

skills, leadership and managing conflict are perhaps the most vital attributes for their success.

The findings of this research provide partial support for Analoui's eight parameters of managerial effectiveness model (1999) of management development and show that the notion of hierarchy of skills still holds some validity, suggesting that as senior managers move higher up in the organisation, they tend to have greater need for people-related, analytical and self-related skills in order to perform their job effectively. This does not, however, suggest that task related aspects of the job of senior managers in higher positions holds little or no importance for their effectiveness. In this study, senior managers felt that to have an understanding superior (leader) who possesses the right style of leadership and has a high regard for their good work tends to act as the two most influential factors in motivating them at work. Intrinsic factors seem to dominate senior managers' motivation, although extrinsic factors do have considerable influence in terms of motivating managers toward better performance at work. Although some variation can be detected in motivational pattern at different levels, the similarities in need preferences of senior managers are much more pervasive than the differences.

Moreover, the senior managers, generally, felt that their commitment to the organisation and its objectives, their confidence in their own capabilities and their competencies in human skills, hard work and experience are the most influential factors for their satisfactory performance at work. Their managerial work is largely seen as a challenge thus, many work related factors such as recognition of good work, the high status and valuable purpose of the job are considered to be very important for their satisfaction at work. Moreover, the senior managers' personal drive, determination and commitment, as well as, their practical experience and hard work are also seen as major determinants of

their success. However, communication skills such as interpersonal skills and the ability to understand and work with people effectively in order to build a workable relationship based on mutual trust and respect still remains a single major factor for ensuring the effectiveness of senior managers in the Car Manufacturing Industry (CMI) in Iran.

Therefore it can be concluded that evidently, any organisational variables can influence senior managers' motivation and job satisfaction and may eventually affect their performance. Senior managers' perceptions of their superior and the quality of their work relationships with them as well as the quality of leadership and the level of competence of a top management team greatly influences the performance of their immediate subordinate managers. The conclusion reached goes further to suggest that personal qualities and the leadership ability of senior managers appear to create the supportive organisational climate, which is conducive for improved performance at all levels of the organisation.

8.3. Contributions of this Research to Knowledge

This research contribution to the field of managerial effectiveness and management development has been three folds: theoretical contribution, policy implications and managerial implications. Each of these will be discussed in details as follows.

8.3.1. Theoretical Contributions

The individual findings associated with each of the research objectives have been discussed in the chapter seven. The interpretation of these findings in relation to existing academic theories has been dealt with in chapter seven. Some of the findings yielded support to the work of other scholars and researchers; some modify and further elaborate existing concepts proposed in the literature, while

other findings provide contradictory evidence to the limited empirical research available in the field of managerial effectiveness and management development in Car Manufacturing Industry in Iran. In this research an attempt has been made to discuss the findings of the study and answer to the research questions.

The concept of managerial effectiveness specifically remains one of the main topics that continue to be of interest for management scholars, researchers and practitioners. In this study a contribution has been made to further investigate the concept in relation to a number of related managerial issues. Much has been written about the importance of managerial effectiveness, management development and managerial skills, but there are still relatively few empirical studies which consider the real needs of managers for increasing their effectiveness. However, one reality seems to persist that there is no general agreement on the relative degree of importance attached to the various managerial effectiveness, management development and managerial skills. It is likely that their importance may change with respect to circumstances. It is believed that there is little agreement on the ideal approach for defining or measuring management effectiveness. Nevertheless, a need for continual research into managerial effectiveness is deemed essential. The research has based its framework on the concept of “parameters of effectiveness” originally developed by Analoui (1999, 2003). Theoretically this research builds on the assumptions and findings of his work within public sector organisations in developing countries and attempts to explore the implications of the model in car manufacturing industry in Iran.

8.3.2. Policy Implications

Fortunately, in recent years, there has been a great deal of interest shown in the field of management training and development in Iran. There is an increasing

realisation that management training and development can result in increasing managerial effectiveness, and management skills can be acquired by ways other than experience. In Iran the demand for better quality managerial competence and performance has been recognised as an important objective along with the overall aim of socio-economic development of the country. Promotion of management training and development activities, appointment of trained competent managers to management positions, and the recruitment and placement of those who already possess university management education throughout the country are the relevant policies which have been adopted by the government in the fourth Five Year Development Plan (1999-2004).

It is however, evident that the impact of management training and development on the overall development of the car manufacturing industry is underestimated. It was found that the development strategy for the car manufacturing industry in Iran was formulated without any real consideration being given to management training and development. As a consequence, the development strategy at organisational level was also formulated without any attention being paid to enhancing the senior managers' development and increasing their effectiveness as a result. Based on the conclusions reached, the following implications for the car manufacturing industry and the Iranian government are worthy of consideration. Therefore, in light of the findings of this study, it is strongly recommended that the government should lay down a clear national policy for management development in the car manufacturing industry. Also, such a comprehensive implementation strategy should be developed accordingly and supported in order to provide a definite commitment for the allocation of the required resources. Such a policy should reflect the recognition of the imperative nature of management training for this sector on the part of government. Such a management development policy should then be integrated

into the overall human resource planning and development policies and strategies of the car manufacturing industry. The development and growth of senior managers must also be given a high degree of priority in the formulation of human resource development policy. Management training and development policies should be incorporated into the human resource planning and development policies of the organisations as well in order to receive top management's support and commitment.

At the organisational level, management training and development must be linked systematically to other activities of human resource management to form an integral part of the total organisational effort to improve managerial and institutional effectiveness. Management development efforts should be backed up by an effective system of selection and appraisal, career planning, organisational planning and structure and the presence of an improved management information system. It is important that a set of realistic criteria for recruitment, selection, placement, and promotion and career succession activities are established and thoroughly adhered to by the personnel departments at both organisations studied.

Moreover, the absence of planning for management development at corporate level is apparent in both organisations. Management training and development does not seem to be considered as a matter of concern. The findings show that managerial strategy in corporate level should support the HR practices. This may give way to the conclusion that management development in the car manufacturing industry is created on an ad hoc basis. Without explicit, deliberate and realistic planning for developing managers in general and senior managers, in particular, the smooth operation and realisation of the organisational plans and strategies would seriously be hampered and

consequently impede the development of organisations and the industry as whole.

In order to promote the status of management training, changes need to be introduced to the organisations in general and in the training and developments programmes in particular. Organisations need to consider the strategic importance of management training and provide an appropriate environment in order to take advantage of the great interest and support of the senior managers for active participation. These concerns should be clearly reflected in the relevant policies and religiously adhered to in order to ensure increased effectiveness at work. Also since the commitment of the organisations to management training and development is seen an essential element for the overall success of the relevant training programmes, it is important that the necessary resources are allocated and it is ensured that they are used effectively while professional help and support is received from experts and authorities on management development from outside the organisation.

8.3.3. Implications for Management Development

One of the aims of this study has been the identification of general management competencies of the senior managers involved. It is hoped that useful contributions have been made towards the understanding of the nature of managerial skills and knowledge which in turn can results in the increased effectiveness of top management teams. The findings provide the scholars and practitioners in Iran with an insight into the areas of management training and development and the training needs of senior managers in the car manufacturing industry and similar enterprises in Iran. It provides a conceptual framework based on which further investigation into the importance of self-management as the core of managerial effectiveness would be made both

possible and desirable. This research also opens some avenues for further investigation into the pattern of interrelationships amongst different categories of managerial effectiveness, managerial skills, and the missing gap in the empirical studies in this field.

In terms of managerial implications, this research provides for educators and scholars in the fields of managerial effectiveness and managerial training, a clearer direction as to the effective delivery of the appropriate skills required for managers in Car Manufacturing Industry. It will also help the organisations to develop appropriate programmes for the training and development of senior managers. The findings of this research suggest that there seems to be a perceived need amongst managers for more people-related, analytical and self-related skills which are vital for increasing the effectiveness of senior managers. Furthermore, they point out to a real need for balanced knowledge and skill based on management development programmes in order to cope with the ever increasing complex demands of organisational problems in developing countries.

8.4. Limitations of the study

A research limitation exists when a community is frustrated from achieving some recognised need due its lack of knowledge, abilities and skills. This need could involve both theoretical and practical concern. The managerial effectiveness and management development in Iran is hampered by numerous barriers, which could be related to economic, administrative, political and also religious factors. On other words, generally speaking the research suffers from two limitations. The main limitation of the research is the focus of the study. The focus of this research is upon senior managers' perception of their effectiveness

in the Iranian Car Manufacturing Industry" "CMI". Therefore, it may be recognised that the findings of this study may not be fully generalised to the wider population of the other industries in Iran. However, throughout the empirical research, care was taken to ensure that the findings reported were statistically robust. In particular, a tow companies was chosen for interview purposes to ensure that confidence could be placed in the validity and generalisation of the research findings.

The second limitation of the study is methodological. As discussed previously, each research methodology has its own advantages and disadvantages. In chapter five, the advantages and the disadvantages of alternative research techniques were highlighted and the researcher sought to counterbalance the inherent weaknesses of any specific procedure by combining methodological approaches. Such methodological triangulation was judged to enhance the validity, reliability and generalisation of research findings. In spite of this, some limitations of the research methodology are noted. As both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered by means of survey techniques, the research suffers from the possibility of non-response bias, however much effort was made to reduce the possibility of non-response bias. During the primary data collection process, the researcher was dependent upon the vagaries of interpretation, self-observation and the eagerness of the respondents to please. In other words, the data generated may be viewed as being subjective and impressionistic in nature. While every effort was made to ensure the validity and reliability of the data through meticulous research design, it is unrealistic to assume that all of these problems can be avoided.

Some of the experienced limitations during the data collection are listed below:

1. Limited time also caused great pressure and concern for the researcher. If it were not because of the informal channels, this level of co-operation would have not been achieved.
2. The extra pressure and demands on senior managers, which limited the number and length of the interviews, and also led to the waste of the researcher's time behind closed doors, and even the cancellation and postponement of some interviews.
3. At times, certain events became problematic due to interruptions by unexpected phone calls and visits. Although interviews were normally scheduled for 40 to 60 minutes, in some cases, the researcher spent several hours with the interviewees listening to the phone conversations and observing the actual behaviour of the respondents in dealing with the unexpected events.
4. Translation of relevant literature and secondary data proved to be an even more time-consuming task than expected and put extra pressure on the researcher in almost all phases of the research.

The researcher's extensive knowledge of policy in terms of the car design in car manufacturing industries, and his professional background, familiarity with the culture, and the exceptional support of all the parties involved made it possible to overcome many of the above limitations and also problems.

8.5. Suggestions for further research

Future research should concentrate may be on all levels of the employee, it should consider other factors may the perception, skills, organisational criteria,

motivation, the degree of demands and constraints, choices and opportunities, nature of inter-organisational relationship and dominant managerial philosophy etc.

As for making suggestions for further work in this area, there are a number of subject upon which more research can be carried out. Consideration of the role of managerial effectiveness and eight parameters in other conflicts and comparing the main factors in each case, as has been attempted in this study, can specify the conclusions and provide the researchers in this field, with a much deeper and better approach towards the management development parameters for managerial effectiveness in the Iranian car manufacturing industry and its process of decision-making in overall organisations for a good productivities.

Considering the research findings and limitations of the study, some of the further research strategy and possibilities are suggested as below:

First, as it has been mentioned in the research limitations, this research focused on the car manufacturing industry. Therefore, a replication of this research encompassing a sample from a wider industrial base would be valuable. This could be carried out to explore further the notion of how managerial effectiveness and, management development and eight parameters can be formulated.

Second, this research focused on exploring the senior managers' perception of the managerial effectiveness and management development in the car manufacturing sector in Iran. Accordingly further research could be carried out to investigate the nature and methods of management development both in national and international levels.

Furthermore, it seems to be a good idea to carry out research strategy on how can decrease the lack of the managerial effectiveness and management development in the Iranian car industry "CMI" and how to improve the overall effectiveness of organisational members in all levels and how getting the good productivity in all over the organisations. In this regard, the impact of factors such as the perception, skills, organisational criteria, motivation, the degree of demands and constraints, choices and opportunities, nature of inter-organisational relationship and dominant managerial philosophy etc, and the findings of this research, which will be important implications for managerial effectiveness, management development, management education and management training in future research need to be suggested. These strategy will be scrutinized and required are: what are the ways and means of making the governments think about the suffered from the lack of effective senior mangers and improve them, the required of skills and knowledge and abilities do senior managers need, the necessary of personal, organisational, and environmental factors contribute in increasing managerial effectiveness and finally, the need of human resource management policies are required to sustain the effectiveness of senior managers which will be in future strategy and suggestion. ultimately , it is surprising to see that whilst one research project attempts to answer unanswered questions it, in the process, gives rise to more issues which require future research in the car manufacturing industries in Iran.

Ultimately, in this concluding chapter we have suggested a few possibilities for the future. They are offered here as they sustain our belief that managers progressively need to develop senior managers that will enable them to be effective in a wide variety of situations, becoming less organisationally dependent and self-sufficient. In the other words, managers will need organisational knowledge and a set of operational managerial skills of the type,

managers' own perception, which influence the degree of effectiveness of the individual senior managers and executives and arguably their organisation and nations as a whole that we have described in this thesis.

It is concluded that the most important set of managerial skills which are required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers are a combination of 'qualitative, quantitative' and also skills. However, these findings should be determined in a wider context of parameters of their effectiveness. These have paramount implication for the state of (HRM) and the government policies to ensure the increased effectiveness of the senior managers as the whole and in the Car Industries in Particular.

Further research could fruitfully extend the findings of the present of the study to other DCs.

Bibliography

- Ackroyd, S. Hughes, J. (1992), *Data Collection in Context*, Second Edition, Essex: Longman Publication.
- Adams, J.S. (1963), 'Toward an Understanding of Inequity', *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 67, pp.422-436
- Ahls, B. (2001), 'Organizational Behaviour: A Model for Cultural Change', *Industrial Management*, Vol. 43, No. 4, pp. 6-9.
- Akhavan, Amir Nasser. (1995), *Technology Transfer to Developing countries: The Iranian Experience*, Management Centre, University of Bradford, Thesis.
- Albanese, R. (1989), 'Competency-based Management Education', *Journal of Management Development*, Special Issue, Vol. 8, no. 2 pp.66-76.
- Al- Madhoun, M. and Analoui, F. (2002), 'Developing managerial skills in Palestine', *Journal of Education and Training*, Vol. 44, No 8/9, pp. 431-42.
- Amuzegar, J. (1992), 'The Iranian economy before and after the Revolution', *Middle East Journal*, No. 46, summer. pp. 413-423.
- Amuzegar, J. (1993), *Iran's economy under the Islamic Republic*, I. B. Tauris & Co. Ltd, London.
- Analoui, F. and Kakabadse, A. (1989), 'Defiance at Work' A Research Monograph, *Journal of Employee Relations*, Vol. 11, no. 3 June, MBC.
- Analoui, F. (1990), *An Investigation into Management Training Development Needs of Senior Officials in Zimbabwe*, Research Monograph, no. 2, Development and Project Planning Centre, University of Bradford.
- Analoui, F. (1990), 'Managerial Skills for Senior Managers' *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 3, Part 2, pp. 26-38.

Analoui, F. and Kakabadse, A. (1991), *Sabotage: How to Recognise and Deal with Defiance at Work*, W.H. Allen Publishers, London.

Analoui, Farhad. (1991), 'Project Management in Context of Change', in Kirkpatrick, C. (ed.), *Project Rehabilitation in Developing Countries*, Routledge, London.

Analoui, F. (1993), 'Skills of Management', in Cusworth, J.W. and Franks, T.R. (eds), *Managing Projects in Developing Countries*, Longman Scientific & Technical, UK.

Analoui, F. (1994), *The Realities of Managing Development Project*, Ashgate Publishing Ltd Gower House Croft Road Aldershot Hants. GU11 3HR England.

Analoui, F. (1995), 'Management Skills and Senior Management Effectiveness', *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 52-68.

Analoui, F. (1995), 'Managerial Effectiveness', Paper Presented at 25th International Conference, DPPC, University of Bradford, UK.

Analoui, F. (1997), *Senior Managers and their Effectiveness*, Avebury, Aldershot, UK.

Analoui, F. (1998), 'Behavioural and causal influences on individual managerial behaviour', *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 10 No.2, pp.299-313.

Analoui, F. (1998) (ed.), *Human Resource Management Issues in Developing Countries*, Ashgate, Aldershot, UK.

Analoui, F. (1999), 'Eight parameters of managerial effectiveness: A study of senior managers in Ghana', *Journal of Management Development*, Volume 18. No. , pp. 362-389.

Analoui F. (1999), 'Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness: A Study of Senior Managers in Ghana'. *The Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 36-39, MCB University Publishers, UK.

Analoui, F. (2000a), 'Identification of Clusters of Managerial Skills for Increased Effectiveness: The Case of Steel Industry in Iran', *International Journal of Training and Development*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 217-234.

Analoui, F. (2000b), 'What Motivation Senior Managers? The Case of Romania', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp.234-326.

Analoui, F. (2002) (ed.), *The Changing Patterns of Human Resource Management*, Ashgate, Aldershot, UK.

Anderson, W. R. (1997), 'The Future of Human Resources: Forging ahead or falling behind?' *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp.17-22.

Andrews, I.R. and Henry, M.M. (1964), 'Management Attitudes toward Pay', *Industrial Relations*, No. 3 pp.29-39.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C. & Razavieh, A. (1972), *Introduction to Research in Education*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ashraf, A. (1980), *Historical Obstacles to the Development of Capitalism at the time of Ghajar Reign in Iran*, Zamineh Publishing, Iran.

Asian Development Bank (1988), *Financing public sector development expenditure of selected countries: An overview*, Milan.

Babbage, Charles. (1982), *On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures*. London: Charles Knight, (reprint).

Babbie, E.R. (1973), *Survey Research Methods*, Wadsworth Publishing Co. Inc.

Bahar, Malkul Shu'ara. (Mohammad Taqhi), (1978), *A short History of Iranian Political Parties*, Vol, Amir Kabier Publication, P.65.

Baldwin, George (1967), *Planning and Development in Iran*, The John Hopkins Press, U.K p120.

Ball, R. (1984), *Management Techniques and Quantitative Methods*, Heinemann.

Banani, Amir, (1961), "*The modernisation of Iran 1921-1941*", Stanford University press, U.S, p.96.

Barclays Bank. (1990), '*Iran, Country Report*'.

Barclays Bank. (1993), "*Iran, Country Report*".

Bandura, A. (1974), 'Behaviour theory and the Model of Man' *American psychologist*, Vol. 29, pp. 859-869.

Bank Mellii [National] Iran. (1960), 'Bulletin', No.25, p.208.

Bank World. (1983), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, London.

Bantel, K. A., and Jackson, S. E. (1989), 'Top Management and Innovations in Banking: Does the Composition of the Top Management Team Make a Difference'? *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 10, pp. 107 -124.

Barnard, Chester. I. (1938), *The Functions of the Executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Barnard, C.I. (1966), *The Functions of the Executive*, Cambridge, Mass: Harward, University Press.

Beardwell Ian and Holden Len. (1997), *Human Resource Management: A Contemporary Perspective*, Edinburgh Gate Harlow England.

Bell, J. (1993), *Doing Your Research Project*, Second edition, Open University Press.

Bennett, R. and Brodie, M. (1979), '*A Perspective on Managerial effectiveness*', In Brodie, M. & Bennett, R. (Eds), *Managerial Effectiveness*, Thames Valley Regional Management Centre, pp. 12-31.

Bennett, N., Ketchen, Jr, D. J., and Schultz, E. B. (1998), 'An Examination of Factors Associated with the Integration of Human Resource Management and Strategic Decision making', *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 3-16.

Berger and Luckman. (1966), *The Social Construction of Reality*, Pelican, London.

Bertalanffy, L. Von. (1951), 'Problems of General System Theory: A New Approach to the Unity of Science', *Human Biology*, Vol. 23, No.4, December, pp.302-312.

Bloom, B. S. (1956), Ed, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I, Cognitive Domain*, David McKay, New York.

Blunt, P. and Jones, M.L. (1990), 'Strategies for enhancing Organisation Effectiveness in the Third World', *Public Administration and Development* Vol. 10, No. 2, pp.299-313.

Blunt, P. (1992), *Managing Organisations in Africa*, Walter de Gruyter and Company, Sweden.

Boyatzis, R.E. (1982), *The Competent Manager*, John Wiley and Sons, New York.

Branine, M. and Houshmandyar, N. (2005), '*The impact of management communication and management development on the firm, performance*'. Paper given at International Business Communication: Past, Present, and Future ABC 5th Asia Pacific Conference 28 - 29 March, at Chuo University Tokyo Japan.

Brannen, J. (1992), *Mixing Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Research*, Avebury, Ashgate Publishing Limited.

Brech, E. F. L. (1965), *Organisation: The Framework of Management*, Second Edition, Longman.

Brech, E. F. L. (1972, 1975), *Principle and Practice of Management*, Third Edition, Longman.

Brief, A.P. and Aldag, R.J. (1981), The "Self in the Work Organisations: A Conceptual Review", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp.75-88.

British Psychological Society, (1995), "Team Management Index (TMI)", *Review of Personality Assessment Instruments (Level B) For Use in Occupational Settings*, pp. 268-273.

Brodie, M.B. and Bennett, R. (1979), 'Effective Management and the Auditing Performance', *Journal of General Management*, Vol. 4, No.3, spring, pp. 54-63.

Brockbank, W. (1997), 'Human Resource's Future on the Way to a Presence', *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp.65-69.

Bruce, C. S. (1990), 'Information skills coursework for postgraduate students: investigation and response at the Queensland University of Technology' *Australian Academic & Research Libraries*, vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 224-232.

Bruce, C. (1993), 'When enough is enough: or how should research students delimit the scope of their literature review?', in *Challenging the Conventional Wisdom in Higher Education: Selected Contributions The Nineteenth Annual National Conference and Twenty-First Birthday Celebration of the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia Inc.*, HERDSA, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia. pp. 435-439.

Bruce, C. S. (1997), *From Neophyte to expert: counting on reflection to facilitate complex conceptions of the literature review*', in Zuber-Skerritt, O. (Ed), *Frameworks for postgraduate education*, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW.

Bryman, A. (1988), *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*, Unwin Hyman Ltd.

Burns, R. B. (2000), *Introduction to Research Methods*, London: SAGE

Buckley, J. and Kemp, N. (1989), 'The strategy role of management development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp.154-177.

Burgess, R. G. (1982), 'Multiple Strategies in Field Research'. In R. G. Burgess (ed.) *Field Research: A source book and field manual*, George Allen and Urwin, London

Burgoyne, J. G. (1976), *The Nature, Use and Acquisition of Managerial Skills and Other Attributes*, (June) Lancaster University.

Burgoyne, J. G. and Stuart, R. (1991), 'Teaching and Learning Methods in Management Development', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 27-33.

Burns, T. (1957), 'Management in Action', *Operational Research Quarterly*, Volume 8, No. 2.

Burns, T. and Stalker, G.M. (1966), *The Management of Innovation*, Tavistock Publications.

Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (1993), *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis*, Arena Publishing Company, England.

Caird, S. (1992), 'Problems with the identification of enterprise competencies and the implications for assessment and development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 23, Part 1, pp. 6-17.

Cameron, K. and Tschirhart, M. (1988), *Managerial Competencies and Organisational Effectiveness. Working paper, School of Business Administration, University of Michigan.*

Campbell, D.T. and Fiasco, D.W. (1959), 'Convergent and discriminate validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix', *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 56, pp. 81-105.

Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E. III., and Weick, K. JR (1970), *Managerial Behaviour, Performance, and Effectiveness*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

- Carlson, S. (1951), *Executive Behaviour*, C. A. Stromberg, Stockholm.
- Carnall, C., and Maxwell, S. (1988,) *Management Principles and Policy*, ICOSA Publishing, Cambridge.
- Carsberg, B. (1974), *Analysis of Investment Decision*, Haymarket Publishing, London.
- Cartwright, Roger. (2003), *Training and Development Express*, Capstone Publishing Limited UK.
- Casey, T. (1976), 'Perceptions of Managerial Work in South East Asia', *American Academy of Management Proceedings*.
- Casley, D.J. and Lury, D.A. (1987), *Data Collection in Developing Countries*, Second Edition, Clarendo Press, Oxford.
- Charesley, W.F. (1986), 'Effectiveness management-so you thing you have got it right'? *British Journal of Administrative Management*, Vol.1, November, pp.11-12.
- Chandler, A.E. Jr. (1962), *Strategy and Structure: Chapter in the History of the American Industrial Enterprise*, MIT Press, and Cambridge, Mass.
- Child, J. (1974), 'Managerial and Organizational Factors Associated With Company Performance - Part 1', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 11, pp. 13-27.
- Child, J. (1977), *Management*, Pan Books, London.
- Church, Roy (1995), *The Rise and Decline of the British Motor Industry*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Clark, J. and Causer, G. (1991), "Research Strategy and Decisions", in Allan, G. and Skinner, C. (1991), *Handbook for Research Student in the Social Sciences*, (Eds.), The Parlmer Press, pp. 163-176.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1980), *Research Method in Education*, London: Croom Helm.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1989), *A Guide to Teaching Practice: Research Methods in Education, Third edition*, Routledge, London.

Copeman, G. (1971), *The Chief Executives and Business Growth*, Leviathan House, London.

Copman, G., Luijk, H. and Hanika, F. (1963), *How the Executive spends his time*. London: Business Publications Limited.

Cuff, E. C. and Payne, G. C. F. (1979), *Perspective in Sociology*, Second edition, George Allen and Unwin Publishers Ltd, London.

David, F.R. (1995), *Strategic Management*, Fifth Ed, Prentice Hall.

Davico, M. I. (1990), 'The Repeat and Dropout Problem: A study in Brazil on the Role of the Teacher', *Prospects* No.20, pp. 7-11.

Davies, C.R. (1951), *The Fundamentals of the Top Management*, Harper brothers, New York.

Davies, R.V., McCann, D., and Margerison, C.J., (1986), 'Team Management on the Flight Deck of Commercial Jet Aircraft', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 1, No 1, pp 12-18.

Davies, R.V., Margerison, C.J., and McCann, D., (1988), 'Team Management', *Asia Pacific International Management Review*, Volume 1, pp 37-46.

Davies, R.V., Margerison, C.J., and McCann, D., (1988), 'Team Management', *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 6, No 1, pp 32-39.

Davies, R.V., Margerison, C.J., and McCann, D., (1990), 'Managerial Career Patching Using the Team Management Index', *International Journal of Career Management*, Vol. 2, No 1, pp 23-31.

Davies, R.V., (1993), 'Team Management Systems for Career Professionals: Integrating Individuals and Organisations', *International Journal of Career Management*, Vol. 5 No 5, pp24-29.

Davies, R. V., (1995), 'Integrating Individuals and Organisations: An Introduction to Team Management Systems for Career Professionals', *Librarian Career Development: An International Journal*, Vol 3, No 3, pp. 4-9.

Denzin, N.K. (1978), *The Research Act*, Second edition, McGraw-Hill, New York.

De Vaus, D.A. (1993), *Surveys in Social Research*, Third Ed., UCL Press Limited, London.

Donleavy, G.D. (1994), 'Evaluating the Potential of Office Robots', *Long-Rang Planning*, Vol. 27, No. 2, pp. 119-127.

Dooley, A. R. and Skinner, W. (1977), 'Casing Case method Methods', *Academy of Management Review*, April, pp. 277-289.

Downey, K.H. and Ireland, D.R. (1979), 'Quantitative Versus Qualitative: Environmental Assessment in Organisational Studies', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, December, pp. 630-637.

Drucker, P.F. (1954), *The Practice of Management*, Harder & Row, New York.

Drucker, Peter. F. (1964), *Managing for Results*, New York: Harper and Row.

Drucker, P.F. (1974), *Management, Task, Responsibilities, and Practise*, Heinemann: London.

Drucker, P.F. (1979), *Management*, Pan Book.

Drucker, P.F. (1988), *the Effective Executive*, William Heinemann, Paper Edition.

Drucker, P.F. (1989), *The Practice of Management*, Heinemann Professional (Paperback).

- Drucker, F. (1989), *The New Realities*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Drucker, P. (1999), 'What Information Do Executives Need. Mastering Information Management', *The Financial Times*, 19 April, p. 18.
- Duncan, David (1997), *We are Motor Men: The Making of the south African Motor Industry*, Whittles Publishing, Scotland, UK.
- Duncan, W. Jack. (1986), 'Ethical Issues in the Development and Use of Business and Management Knowledge', *Journal of Business Ethics*.No.5. Pp.391-400.
- Duncan, W.Jack. (1999), *Management: Ideas and Actions*, Oxford University Press.
- Duncan, J. P. (2001), 'Simple Planning', *Executive Excellence*, Vol, 18, No. 8, p.10.
- Dunnette, M.D. (1971), 'Assessing managerial performance', *Proceeding of a one-day seminar*, Independent Assessment and Research Centre, August 1970, London, pp. 38-53.
- Durkheim, E. (1984), *The Division of Labour in Society*, Macmillan, Basingstoke.
- Evans, Peter (1995), *Embedded Autonomy: States & Industrial Transformation*, Princeton University Press, and Princeton, New Jersey.
- Evans, David. (2001), *Supervisory, Management: Principles & Practice*. Fifth Edition. New York.
- Farazmand, A. (1989), 'The State, Bureaucracy and Revolution in Modern Iran: Agrarian Reforms and Regime Policies', New York: Praeger 1989, in *Public Administration in the Third World*, (Ed.) Subramanian, V. (1990), Green Wood Press.
- Farmer, R.N and Richman, B.M. (1965), 'Comparative Management and Economic Progress, Homewood', *Iran series in management* Irving, USA.

Third Word', *An International Handbook*, (Ed.), Subramanian, V. (1990), Green Wood Press.

Farmer, R.N and Richman, B.M. (1965), 'Comparative Management and Economic Progress, Homewood', *Iran series in management Irving*, USA.

Fayol, H. (1911), *General and Industrial Management*, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, Ltd, 1959. Translated from the French Edition (Dunod), by Constance Storrs.

Fayol, H. (1954), *General and Industrial Management*, Trans. Constance Storrs. London: Pitman.

Fayol, H. (1949), *General and Industrial Management*, Trans. Constance Storrs. London: Pitman.

Ferguson, Paul R. and Ferguson, Glenys J. (1994), *Industrial Economics: Issues and perspectives*, second Edition, Macmillan Press LTD, London.

Filley, A.C., Foster, L.W., and Herbert, T.T. (1979), "Teaching organisational behaviour: current patterns and implications", *The Organisational Behaviour Journal*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp.13-18.

Fink, A. and Kossecoff, J. (1985), *How to Conduct Surveys: A Step-by-step Guide*, Sage Publishing, Inc.

Fisher, C.D. (1989), Current and Recurrent Challenges in HRM, *Journal of Management*, Vol. 15, No. 2, 157-80.

Forbes, D. P. and Milliken, F. J. (1999), 'Cognition and Corporate Governance: Understanding board of directors as strategic decision-making groups, Academy of Management', *The Academy of Management Review; Mississippi, State*; July. Vol. 24, pp. 489-505.

Forcse, F., and Richer, M., (1973), *Social Research Methods*, Prentice-Gall, Inc.

French, B., (1988), 'The Team Management Index In the Recruitment Process', *Management Decision*, Vol 26, No 5, pp 48-52.

- Fry, R. E. and Srivastva, S. (1990), 'The Office of the CEO: Understanding the Executive Experience', *Academy of Management Executive* March.
- Gage, N. L., Berliner, C. (1979), *Educational Psychology*, 2nd edition, Rand McNally, Chicago.
- Gardner, J. W. (1965), 'Strategies for Self-Education', By Elton J. E., *Harvard Business Review, Leadership* Part No. 1, pp.1-12.
- Georgano, Nick, Baldwin, Nick, Ditlev, Anders Clausager, Wood, Jonathan. (1995), *Britain's Motor Industry. Printed in Great Britain* by BPC Hazell Books Limited.
- Ghasimi, M. R. (1992), 'The Iranian economy after the revolution: An economic appraisal of the five year plan', *International Journal of Middle East Studies*, 24, PP. 599-614.
- Gilbert, N. (1993), *Researching Social Life*, London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Gilbert, Nigel. (1997), *Researching Social Life*. SAGE Publications, London.
- Gill, J. and Johnson, P. (1991), *Research Methods for Managers*, Paul Champion Publishing Ltd., London.
- Gioia, D. A. and K Chittipeddi. (1991), 'Sense making and Sense giving in Strategic Change Initiation', *Strategic Management Journal*, No. 12, pp. 433-448.
- Glub, R. H. and Margerison, C. J. (1976), 'Managerial Leadership Implications for Training and Development', *Journal of European Training*, Vol. 1, No. 1. MCB University Press.
- Graham, A. (1998), 'Rethinking The Workplace', *The Magazine For Magazine Management*, Vol. 27, No. 7, pp. 65-66.
- Gray, J. L. (1988), 'The myths of the myths about behaviour mod in organisations: a reply to Locke's criticisms of behaviour modification', *Academy Of Management Review*, 4 (1), 121-129.

Grove, Andrew S. (1985), *High Output Management*. New York: Vintage Books.

Gullick, L. and Urwick, L., Eds. (1954), *Papers of the Science of Administration*, 3rd Ed, Institute of Public Administration, New York.

Gummesson, E. (1991), *Qualitative Methods in Management Research*, Sage Publication, California.

Gupta, M. (1982), 'Productivity Performance of the Public and Private Sectors in India: A Case Study of the Fertilise Industry', *Indian Economic Review*, Vol.17.

Gwynne, R. (1991), 'New Horizons? The Third World motor vehicle industry in an international framework', in C.M.Law (ed.), *restructuring the global automobile industry: National and regional impacts*, London.

Hackman, J. R. and G.R. Oldham (1980), 'Development of the job diagnostic survey', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 60, pp. 159-170.

Hackman, J. R. (1977), 'Work Design'. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Haile-Mariam, Y. and Mengistu, B. (1988), 'Public Enterprises and the Privatisation Thesis in Third World', *Third World Quarterly*, October, pp.1565-1587.

Hales, C.P. (1986-8), 'What Do Managers Do? A Critical Review of the Evidence', *Journal of Management Studies*, Volume 23. No. 1, pp.88-115.

Hansen and Brenbeck, (1960), *Education and Development of Nations*, London: Allen and Unwin.

Hargie, Owen; Dickson, David and Tourish, Dennis. (2004), *Communication Skills for effective Management*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.

Harper, M. and Soon, T.T. (1979), *Small Enterprises in Developing Countries: Case Studies and Conclusions* Intermediate Technology Publications, London.

Harbison, F. and Myers, C.A. (1964), *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth*, McGraw-Hill.

Harbison, F and Myers C.A. (1965), *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human resource management*, McGraw-Hill.

Hashemi, Rafsanjani (1989-1997), *The Era of Construction: A Narration of Eight Years of Construction during the Presidency of Ayatollah Hashemi Rafsanjani*, Preliminary press.

Herzberg, F. W., Mausner, B. and Snyderman, B.B. (1959), *The Motivation to Work*, Second edition, Chapman and Hall.

Herzberg, F. W. (1966), *Work and the nature of man*, World Publishing, Cleveland.

Hicks, H. G. and Gullett, C. R. (1976), *The Management of Organisations*, Third Edition, McGraw-Hill.

Hill, H. (1982), 'State Enterprises in Competitive Industries: An Indonesian Case Study', *World Development* Vol. 10, No. 11, November.

Hofl, H. and Dawes, F. (1995), 'A Whole can of Worms! The contested frontiers of Management Development and Learning', *Personnel Review*. Vol.24, No.6, pp.19-28.

House, R. J. (1967), *Management Development: Design, Evaluation, and Implementation*, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, USA.

House, R. L., R. C. Ginnett, and G.J. Curphy. (1993), *Leadership: Enhancing the Lessons of Experience*. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'Traffic Officers; Judges that Cannot Pass Judgements', *Mardom Salari Daily*, No. 735, 4 August, P. 13.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'Supporting Cooperation Section; a Prerequisite for Economic Boom', *Hambastegi Daily, Special for Cooperation*, No. 218, 14 January, P. 4.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'The Problems of Taxi-Vans and the Deadlock in Decision-Making about Renewing Old Cars', *Nasimeh Saba Daily*, No. 282, 6 March, P. 8.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'The Problem of Old Cars; Challenges and Prospects', *Nasimeh Saba Daily*, No. 234, 5 January, P. 6.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'Historical Foundation in The Process of Realising Political Participation', *Aftab Daily*, No. 1172, 26 February, P. 6.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'There Is Lot More to Be Said...', *World of Industry Daily*, No. 7 September, P. 8.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'When Their Hands Is in our Pocket...', *World of Industry Daily*, No. 7 October, P. 8.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'Importing Used Cars; no End for a Slow Move', *Jahan-e-Eqtesad Daily*, No. 2935, 11 September, P. 10.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004) 'Moving towards Technology-Oriented Car Industry', *World of Industry Daily*, No. 13 October, P. 8.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Automobile Industry in Iran, a Two-Way Challenge', *Iran News Daily*, No. 15 August, P.9

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Cooperative Economy; Challenges and Prospects', *Nasimeh Saba Daily*, No.234, 5 January, P.6.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Rationalizing Plan for Phasing Out Old Cars', *DONYA-E-Eqtesad Daily*, No.454, 11 august, p. 24.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Rationalizing Plan for Phasing out Old Cars', *Jahan-e- Eghtesad daily*, No.2906, 10 August, P. 6.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Low Share of Cooperatives in Iranian Economy', *Nasimeh Saba Daily*, No.215, 13 December, P. 8.

Houshmandyar, N. (2003) 'An Analysis of Approbatory Supervision and Social Acceptance', *Nasimeh Saba Daily*, No.271, 20 February, P.7.

Houshmandyar, N. (2004), 'Situation of Co-operation Economies', *Sharg Daily*, No.368, 19 December, P. 10.

Houshmandyar, N. (2005), The Vulnerability of cooperative economy during the reform era under President Mohammad Khatamy (1996-2005) *Eghtesad-e Poya Daily*, No.364, August, p. 8.

Huff, A. S. (1982), 'Industry Influences on Strategy Reformulation', *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 3, pp. 119-131.

Hughes, J.M. (1988), 'The Body of Knowledge in Management Education', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 19, part 4. pp. 301-310.

Hunsaker, P. L. (2001), *Training in Management Skills*, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, and New York.

Hunt, S. D. (1991), *Modern Marketing Theory*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing co.

Iran Commerce. (1993), 'Quarterly Magazine', No. 1 & 2, Nov.

Iranian Plan & Budget Organisation. (1962-1967), 'Report on Economic Condition a Strategic Solutions', *the Office of Macro Economy*.

Iranian Plan & Budget Organization, Evaluation of the 5th Development Plan. (1973).

Iranian Plan & Budget Organization, Fifth Development Plan Report,.(1977)

Iranian Plan & Budget Organization, Fifth Development Plan. (1972-1977)

Iranian Plan & Budget Organization, Fourth Five Year Plan. (1968-72)

Jackson, J. H. and Mathis, R. L. (1994), *Human Resource Management* (7th Ed) West, United States.

Jacques, E. (1989), *Requisite Organisation*, Cason Hall, Arlington. USA.

Jaeger, A.M., Ouchi, W.G (1978), 'Type z organisations: stability in the midst of mobility', *Academy of Management Review*, 3, 305-14.

Jaeger, A.M., Ouchi, W.G (1978), 'Type Z Organisations: Stability in the midst of Mobility', *Academy of Management Review*, 3, 305-14.

Jean-Marie, H. (1999), 'The Quest for the Best: Human resource practices to attract and retain talent', *European Management Journal*, London, Aug, Vol. 17, pp. 1-21.

Jerrard, Robert. Hands, David, and Ingram, Jack. (2002), *Design Management Case Studies*, London.

Jick, T.D. (1979), 'Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, December, pp. 602-611

Jkenney, J.P and Donneld, E.L. (1972), *Manpower Training and Development*, Harrap.

Johnson, G. (1981), 'Environmental Change-Implication for Organisation and Management Development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 12, pt.3, pp.145-163.

Jones, G.V. (1975), *population Growth and Educational in Development Nations*. New York: Irrigtonpub.

Jones, W. D. (1982), 'The Characteristics of Planning in Small Firms'. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vo. 20, No. 3, pp. 15-19.

Jones, M.L. (1988), 'Management development: an African perspective', *Management Education and Development*, Vol.17 No.3, pp.202-16.

Jerrard, Robert. Hands, David, and Ingram, Jack. (2002), *Design Management Case Studies*, London.

Jick, T.D. (1979), 'Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, December, pp. 602-611

Jkenney, J.P and Donneld, E.L. (1972), *Manpower Training and Development*, Harrap.

Johnson, G. (1981), 'Environmental Change-Implication for Organisation and Management Development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 12, pt.3, pp.145-163.

Jones, G.V. (1975), *population Growth and Educational in Development Nations*. New York: Irrigtonpub.

Jones, W. D. (1982), 'The Characteristics of Planning in Small Firms'. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vo. 20, No. 3, pp. 15-19.

Jones, M.L. (1988), 'Management development: an African perspective', *Management Education and Development*, Vol.17 No.3, pp.202-16.

Judd. C.M. Smith, E.L. and Kidder, L.H. (1991), *Research Methods in Social Relationship*, International edition, Sixth edition, Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Kakabadse, A. (1983), *The Publics of Management*, Gower, England.

Kakabadse, A. Ludlow, R. and Vinnicombe, S. (1987), *Working In Organisations*, Published in Penguin Books, 1988.

Kathryn M. Bartol & David C. Martin, (1998), *Management*, Published by the McGraw-Hill Companies, USA.

Katouzian, Homa (1981), *The Political Economy of Modern Iran*, New York: New York University Press.

Katz, D. and Kahn, R.L. (1966), *The Social Psychology of Organisation and Management*, John Wiley, New York.

Katz, Robert L. (1955), 'Skills of an Effective Administrator', *Harvard Business Review*, Jan/Feb.

Katz, R.L. (1974), 'Skills of an Effective Administrator', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 52 (September-October), pp. 90-102.

Katz, D. and Khan, R.L. (1978), *The Social Psychology of Organisation and Management*, John Wiley, New York.

Kavoossi, H. (1988), 'The Post revolutionary Iranian Economy: opportunities and constrains', *Business Economics*, April, 13 (2), 34-39.

Kerrigan, J.E. and Luke, J.S. (1987), *Management Training Strategies for Development Countries*, Lynne Rienner, Inc.

Kenney, J.P. and Donney, E.L. (1972), *Manpower Training and Development*, Harrap & Co.

Kerrigan, J.E. and Luke, J.S. (1987), *Management Training Strategies for Developing Countries*, Lynne Rienner, London.

Khan, I.H., Ali, S. and Mozina, S. (1982), 'Management Training and Development in Public Enterprises in Developing Countries', (Eds), *The International Centre for Public Enterprises in Developing Countries*, Ljubljana, Yugoslavia.

Khan, I.H; Alvi, S. and Mozina, S. (1982), 'Management Training and Development. Public Enterprises in developing countries', *International Centre for Public Enterprise in developing countries*.

Khan, M.H. (1979), *Curriculum Development for Education and Training of Public Enterprise Mangers: Pakistan*. In *Training Public Enterprise Managers: Countries and Country Studies*. G Iglesias et al., (Eds), Kuala Lumpur: APDAC, 1980.

Kolb, D. A. and et al. (1986), 'Strategic Management Development: Using Experimental Learning Theory to Assess and Development Managerial Competencies', *Journal of Management Development*, vol. 5, No. 3.

Kohn, LS. Dipboye, RL (1998), 'The Effects of Interview Structure on Recruiting Outcomes', *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol.28. No.9. pp.821-843.

Koontz, H. and O'Donnell, C. (1955), *Principles of Management*, McGraw-Hill.

Koontz, H. and O'Donnell, C. (1976), *Management: A System and Contingency Analysis of Managerial Functions*, McGraw-Hill.

Kotter, John P. (1982), *The General Managers*, Free Press, New York.

Kotter, John P. (1982), *The Leadership Factor*, Macmillan.

Kuper, A. And Kuper J. (2001), *The Social Science Encyclopedia*, Second Edition, London and New York , Routledge.

Labfaf, H. (1996), '*Managerial Effectiveness and Required Skills: A Study of the Senior Manager Iran's steel Industry*', Unpublished PhD. Thesis University of Bradford.

Langer, J. (1999), '15 Myths of Qualitative Research: It's Conventional, But is it Wisdom?', *Marketing News*, Vol. 33, Issue No. 5, pp.13-14.

Langford, V. (1979), *Managerial Effectiveness: A Review of the Literature in Brodie, M. and Bennett, R. Perspectives on Managerial Effectiveness*, (Ed) Thames Valley Regional Management Centre.

Lau, A. W.; Newman, A. R. and Broedling, L. A. (1980), 'The nature of managerial work in the public sector', *Public Management Forum*, September/October.

Lawler, E. E. (1971), *Pay and Organisational Effectiveness: A Psychological View*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Lawler, E. E. (1972), 'A causal correlation test of the need hierarchy concept', *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, April, pp.265-287.

Lawler, E. E. (1973), *Motivation in Work Organisations*, Brooke/Cole, Monterey.

Lawrence, P. (1963), *Six from Leavers and Higher Education*, Joint Matriculation Board, Occasional.

Leedy, P.D. (1974), *Practical Research*, Macmillan. New York.

Levitt, N. Theodore, S. (1991), *Thinking about Management*. New York: Free Press.

Lisle Rae, W. (1990), 'The Team Management Resource in the Training Agency', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 14, No 4, pp 3-11.

Livingston, J.S. (1971), 'Myth of the Well-Education Manager', *Harvard Business Review*, January / February, pp.79-93.

Locke, E.A. (1979), 'The nature and causes of job satisfaction', In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology*, Rand-McNally, Chicago.

Lulet, Y.G.M. (1982), 'Political Constraints on Educational Reform for Development', Lesson from an African Experience. In *Comparative Education Review*. Vol. 26 .No 2 PP-235-253.

Luthans, F., Richard M. Hodgetts, and Stuart R. 1988), *Real Managers*, Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Luthans, F. (1988), 'Successful vs. Effective Real Managers', *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.127-132.

Luthans, F., and Robert K. (1975), *Organisational Behaviour Modification*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Lisle Rae, W., (1990), 'The Team Management Resource in the Training Agency', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 14, No 4, pp 3-11.

Livingston, J.S. (1971), 'Myth of the Well-Education Manager', *Harvard Business Review*, January / February, pp.79-93.

Locke, E.A. (1979), 'The nature and causes of job satisfaction', In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology*, Rand-McNally, Chicago.

Lulet, Y.G.M. (1982), 'Political Constraints on Educational Reform for Development', Lesson from an African Experience. In *Comparative Education Review*. Vol. 26 .No 2 PP-235-253.

Luthans, Fred, Richard M. Hodgetts, and Stuart Rosencrantz, (1988), *Real Managers*, Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Luthans, Fred. (1988), 'Successful vs. Effective Real Managers', *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.127-132.

Luthans, Fred, and Robert Kreitner, (1975), *Organisational Behaviour Modification*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Luthans, Fred, S. A. Rosencrantz, and H. W. Hennessey, (1985), 'What Do Successful Manager Really Do'? An Observation Study of Managerial Activities', *Journal of Applied Behaviour Science*, Vol. No. 21, pp. 255-270.

Maanen, V. (1979), 'The Fact of Faction in Organisational Ethnography', *Administrative Quarterly*, No. 24, pp. 539-550.

McCall, M.W. Jr and Lombardo, M.M. (1983), 'What makes a top executive?', *Psychology Today*, February.

Machlup, F. (1982), 'Issues in the Theory of Human Capital: education as Investment', *The Pakistan Development Review*, Vol. XX1, No. 1, p.1.

McKivily, S., Das, S., & McCabe, K. (2000), 'Avoiding Competence Substitution Through Knowledge Sharing', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 294-311.

Madani, B (1965), *The Economic Development of Iran*, Department of Economics, North Illinois, Unpublished Master Theses. University, Dekalb, Illinois.

Maslow, A. H. (1943), 'A theory of human motivation', *Psychological Review*, Vol. 50, No.4, July, pp.370-394.

Margerison, C.J. (1979), *Career Paths; How to Assess Your Managerial Style*, MCB University Press, England.

Margerison, C.J. and Kakabadse, A.P. (1984), 'How America Chief Executives Succeed: Implication, for Developing High Potential Employees', *An American Management Association Survey Report*.

Margerison, C.J., Davies, R.V., and McCann, D., (1987), 'High-Flying Management Development', *Training and Development Journal*, February.

Maslow, A. H. (1970), *Motivation and Personality*, 2nd end, Harper & Row, New York.

Mason, E.J. and Bramble, W.J. (1978), *Understanding Behavioral Sciences*, McGraw-Hill.

Maxton, Graeme P. and Wormed, John (1995), *Driving Over a Cliff? Business Lessons from the World's Car Industry*. Addison-Wesley Publishers Ltd, UK.

May, Tim. (1997), *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process*. Open University Press UK.

McCann, D.J., (1995), 'Horses for Courses', *The Practicing Manager*, Vol 16, No 1, pp 9-12.

McClelland, D. C. (1961), *The Achieving Society*, Free Press, New York.

McClelland, D. C. (1962), 'Business Drive and National Achievement', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 40, July-August, pp. 99-112.

McClelland, D. C. (1988), *Human Motivation*, Cambridge University Press.

McClelland, S. (1994), 'Gaining Competitive Advantage through Strategic Management Development', *Journal of management Development*, Vol.13, No. 5, pp. 4-13.

McKinney, D., (1996), 'Management Team Building & Gliding'. Paper given at an Australian Gliding, Australia.

McGregor, D. (1960), *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw-Hill.

McGregor, J.E., Martin, J. and Kulka, R.A. (1982), *Judgement Calls in Research*, Stage Publications Inc. USA.

McClelland, s. (1994), 'Gaining competitive advantage through strategic management development', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 13, No. 5, pp. 4-13.

McGrath, J.E. Martin, J. and Kulka, R.A. (1982), *Judgement Calls in Research*, Sage Publication Inc. USA.

McNeil. P. (1985), *Research Methods*, Tailstock Publication Ltd.

Mead, G.H. (1938), *The Philosophy of the Act* (ed. Charles Morris), University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Miller, P. (1983), 'Strategic Industrial Relations and Human Resource Management-Distinction, Definition and Recognition', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 2, No.4, pp. 46-47.

Mintzberg, Henry. (1971), 'Managerial Work: Analysis from Observation', *Management Science*, Vol. 18. No.2, pp. 99-110

Mintzberg, H. (1973), *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper and Row, New York.

- Mintzberg, Henry. (1973), *Some Distinguishing Characteristics of Managerial Work, The Nature of Managerial Work*, New York: Harper & Row.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1975), *The Nature of Managerial Work*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1979), 'An Emerging Strategy of 'Direct' Research', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, December, pp. 582-589.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1975), 'The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact', *Harvard Business Review*, No. 53, July/Aug. pp.49-61.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1993), 'Twenty-Five Years Later... The Illustrative Strategy', in Arthur G. Bederian (Ed.), *Management Laureates: A Collection of Autobiographical Essays*, Vol. 2. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, pp.323-374.
- Mintzberg, H. (1980), *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Mintzberg, H. (1989), *Mintzberg on Management*, The Free Press.
- Molander, C. (1986), *Management Development: Key Concepts For manager and trainers*, Chartwell-Bratt.
- Molander, C. and Wintertime, J. (1994), *Management Human Resources*. London: Routledge.
- Morris, J.R. (1977), 'The Transferability of Western Management Concepts and Programmes: An East Africa Perspective', *Journal of International Institute of Educational Planning*, pp. 73-87.
- Morse, J. J. and Wagner, F. R. (1978), 'Measuring the Process of Managerial Effectiveness', *Academy of Management Journal* (March 1978): 23-35.
- Mozina, S. (1982), 'Management Development and Training in Public Enterprises in Developing Countries', *The International Centre for Public Enterprises in Developing Countries*, Ljubljana, Yugoslavia.

Mullins, L. (1993), *Management and Organisation Behaviour*, 3rd ed., Pitman Publishing.

Mumford, A. (1987), 'Using Reality in Management Development', *Management Education and Development* Vol.18No.3, pp. 223-243.

Muth, C., (1990), 'Creative Marcher', *Handles Beating*, 25 January, p. 15.

Myers, M.S. (1964), 'Who are Your Motivated Workers?', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 42, January-February, pp.73-88.

Nachmias, C. F., and Nachmias, D. (1996), *Research Methods in Social Science* (forth ed), London: Edward, Arnold.

Narayansuwami, C. (1991), 'Institutional Building for Development: Lessons Learned and Task Ahead', *Asia Development Review*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.137-155.

Ndegwa, P. (1987), 'The Role of Political Leadership in National Economic Management and Development', in Ndegwa, et al., *Management for Development, Priority Themes in Africa Today*, Oxford University Press, Nairobi, Kenya.

Ndegwa, P., Mureithi, L.P., AND Green, R.H. (1987), *Management for Development, Priority Themes in Africa Today*, Oxford University Press, Nairobi, Kenya.

Ndegwa; Mureithi. L P; Green, R.H, (1987), *Management for Development, Priority Themes in Africa today*. Nairobi; Oxford: Oxford University Press in association with the Society for International Development, Kenya chapter.

Narayansuwami, C, (1991), 'Institution Building for Development: Lessons Learned and Tasks Ahead', *Asian Development Review*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 137-155.

Neuefeind, B., (1994), 'Match Chaos creative?', *Manager Seminar NR*, 15, April, pp. 32-36.

Newberry, D.M. (1992), 'The role of public enterprises in the national economy', *Asian Development Review*, Vol. 10, No. 2, pp.1-34.

Nichols, P. (1991), *Social Survey Methods: A Field guide for Development Workers*, Oxfam, Oxford.

Nisbert, J.D. and Entiwstle, N.J. (1970), *Educational Research Methods*, Unibook University of London Press.

Odiorne, G. (1970), *Training by Objectives: An Economic Approach to Management Training*, McMillan, New York.

Onah, J.O. (1981), *Management Practices in Developing Countries*, Cassell, London.

Oppenheim, A.N. (1996), *Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement*, Basic Books, Heinemann, New York.

Pate, L. and Nielson, W. (1987), 'Integrating Management Development into a large-scale, system wide change programme', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 6. No. 5, pp.16-30.

Patil, S.M. (1979), 'Of Public Enterprise Management in common wealth countries a case study of programme for Public Enterprises in India, in National Process and Programmes for Public Enterprise', *Management Training, Report of a Meeting of Senior Officials*, London, 5-7 November, p.163.

Paul, S. (1983), 'Training for Public Administration and management in Developing Countries', *World Bank Staff Working Papers* No. 584, P.15.

Pavett, C. M. and A. W. Lau (1983), 'Managerial Work: The Influence of Hierarchical Level and Functional Specialty', *Academy of Management Journal*, March, pp. 170-7.

Pedler, Mike and Burgoyne, John. (2001), *A Manager's Guide to Self Development*, McGraw-Hill International, UK.

Pellegrin, R. J., and Coates, C.H. (1957), 'Executives and supervisor: Contrasting Definitions of Career Success ', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, No. 1, pp. 506-517.

Pesaran, M.H. (1985), 'Economic Development and Revolutionary Upheavals in Iran', In *Afshar, H., and Iran: A Revolution in Turmoil*, Macmillan LTD, London, and PP. 15-50.

Perkings, F. C. (1983), Technology Choice, *Industrialisation and Development Studies*, Vol. 19, No. 2, January.

Peter, T.J. and Waterman, R.H. (1982), *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies*, Harper & Row, New York.

Peter, T. J. (1989), *Thriving on Chaos*, Harper & Row, New York.

Pettinger, Richard. (2001), *Mastering Management, Skills*, Published by Palgrave Ltd Co, New York.

Piore, M.J. and Sable, C. (1984), *The Second Industrial Divide*, New York.

Porter, L.W., Lawler, E.E. III, and Hackman, J.R., (1968), *Managerial Attitudes and Performance*, Homewood, Dorsey-Irwin, Ill.

Porter, L.W., Lawler, E.E. III, and Hackman, J.R., (1975), *Behaviour in Organisations*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Prasad, L. M. (1985), *Principles and Practice of Management*, Sultan and Sons Publishers, New Dehli-110002.

Quinn, R.E. (1988), *Beyond Rational Management*, Jossey Bass, San Francisco.

Reddin, W.J. (1970), *Managerial Effectiveness*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Reddin, W.J. (1974), 'Managerial Effectiveness in the 1980s', *Management by Objectives*, Vol.3, No.3, pp.6-12.

Rees, W. David, and Porter Christine. (2001), *Skills of Management*, Fifth Edition, London.

Rood, L. L. (1976), 'Nationalisation and Indigenisation in Africa', *Journal of Modern Africa Studies*, Vol. 14, No.3, September.

Root, M. (1996), *Philosophy of Social science*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Inc

Rosenfeld, R. H., and Wilson, D. C. (1999), *Managing Organisations*. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Roy, N., (1986), 'Brisbane Launch for Top Team Program', *The Courier Mail*, March 12, pp. 45.

Rushmer, R., (1996), 'Is Belbin's Shaper really TMS's Thruster-Organizers? An empirical investigation into the correspondence between Belbin and TMS team role models', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 17, No 1, pp 20-26.

Rumelt, R. P., Schendel, D., Teece, D. J. (1994), 'Fundamental Issues in Strategy: A Research Agenda', Boston MA. *Harvard Business School Press*.

Rushmer, R., (1997), 'How do we measure the effectiveness of Teambuilding - Is it good enough: TMS - A case study', *Journal of Managerial Development*, January.

Sampson, A., (1986), 'The Mighty Management Leap for an Aussie Team', *From TAA to NASA, Rydges*, June, pp 58-60.

Sapsford, R. Jupp, V. (1996), *Data Collection and Analysis*, Open University, London: SAGE Publication.

Sayer, A. (1992), *Methods in Social Science: A Realistic Approach*, 2nd Edition, And London: Routledge.

Sayles, L. R. (1964), *Managerial Behaviour, Administration in Complex Organisations*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Schein, E. H. (1968), 'Organisational Socialization and Profession of Management', *Industrial Management Review*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.1-16.

Rumelt, R. P., Schendel, D., Teece, D. J. (1994), 'Fundamental Issues in Strategy: A Research Agenda', Boston MA. *Harvard Business School Press*.

Rushmer, R., (1997), 'How do we measure the effectiveness of Teambuilding - Is it good enough: TMS - A case study', *Journal of Managerial Development*, January.

Sampson, A., (1986), 'The Mighty Management Leap for an Aussie Team', *From TAA to NASA, Rydges*, June, pp 58-60.

Sapsford, R. Jupp, V. (1996), *Data Collection and Analysis*, Open University, London: SAGE Publication.

Sayer, A. (1992), *Methods in Social Science: A Realistic Approach*, 2nd Edition, And London: Routledge.

Sayles, L. R. (1964), *Managerial Behaviour, Administration in Complex Organisations*, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Schein, E. H. (1968), 'Organisational Socialization and Profession of Management', *Industrial Management Review*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.1-16.

Schein, E. H. (1980), *Organisational Psychology*, Third Edition, Prentice-Hall.

Schein, E. H. (1988), 'Management Education: Some Troublesome Realities and Possible Remedies', *The Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 5-15.

Schlender, Brent. (1997), *On the Road with Chairman Bill*, *Fortune*, May 26, PP. 72-81.

Schermerhorn, J. R. JR. (1984), *Management for Productivity*, John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Sieber, S.D. (1973), 'The integration of fieldwork and survey methods', *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 78, pp. 1335-1359.

Silverman, D. (1970), *The Theory of Organisations*, Heinemann, London.

Silverman, D. (1985), *Qualitative Methodology and Sociology: Describing the Social World*, Gower

Silverman, D. (1998), *Qualitative and Quantitative*. In Jenks, C. (ed) (1998), *Core Sociological Dichotomies*, London: SAGE Publication.

Singleton, R. Jr, Straits, B. C., Straits, M. M., and McAllister, R. J. (1988) *Approaches to Social Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Smith, M. J. (1998), *Social Science in Question*, London: SAGE Publications.

Simmons, R. (1995), *Levers of Control*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Slocum, John W. (1996), 'Opel Eisenach GmbH-Creating a High-Productivity Workplace', *Organisational Dynamics*.

Smith, Adam. (1937), *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. New York: Modern Library. (Original publication 1776.)

Smith, M; Beck, J; Cooper, L; Cox, C; Ottaway, D. and Talbot, R. (1987), *Introducing Organisation Behaviour*, MacMillan Education Ltd.

Smith, B., (1990), 'TMI and Outdoor Learning', *Training & Management Development Methods*, Vol. 6, pp 1.01-1.08.

Smith, H.W. (1975), *Strategies of Social Research: The Methodological Imagination*, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.

Smith, J. and Golden, P. (1986), 'A Holistic Approach to Management Development', *Journal of Management Development*, Volume 5, No. 5. pp. 46-56.

Sobhan, R. (1979), 'Public Enterprises and the Nature of the State', *Development and Change*, Vol. 10.No. 1.

- Steers, R. (1977), *Organisational Effectiveness: A Behavioural View*, Goodyear Publishing Co., Santa Monica, California.
- Stephen, J. Carroll and Dennis J. Gillen. (1987), 'Are the Classical Management Functions useful in Describing Managerial Work?' *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 12, pp. 38-51.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1963), *The Reality of Management*, Heinemann, London.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1967), *Managers and their Jobs*, McMillan, London.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1976), *Contrasts in Management*, McMillan-Hill, London.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1982), *Choices for the Manager*, McMillan-Hill, London.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1983), 'Managerial Behaviour: How Research has changed the Traditional Picture', in *Perspectives on Management: A Multidisciplinary Analysis*, Michael. J. Earl (Eds.), Oxford University Press.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1984), 'The Nature of Management: Problem for Management Education', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 21, pp. 323-330.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1988), *Managers and Their Jobs*, 2nd ed., McMillan London.
- Stewart, Rosemary. (1991), *Managing Today and Tomorrow*, McMillan, London.
- Stewart, F. (1977), *Technology and Underdevelopment*, McMillan, London.
- Stewart, J., (1996), T&D specialists must not neglect their own development, *HR Monthly*, June, pp 22-23.
- Stone, Florence. (2004), *The Essential New Manager's Kit*, Dearborn Trade Publishing, USA.
- Stoner, A. F. (1978), *Management*, Prentice-Hall.
- Stoner, J. and Freeman, R. (1989), *Management*, Fourth Edition, Prentice-Hall.

Stoner, J. A. F., Freeman, R. E. and Gilbert, D. R. (1995), *Management*, Prentice-Hall International Limited, London.

Story, J. (1989), 'Management Development: A Literature Review and Implications for Future Research, Part 1 Conceptualizations and Practice', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 18, No. 6, pp. 3-19.

Sullivan, C. (1984), 'Project Appraisal', *Public Finance and Accounting*, March.

Szilagyi, A.D. Jr (*Management and Performance*, Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc.),

Taylor, N. (1966), *Selecting and Training the Training Officer*, I.P.M.

Taylor, F.W. (1916), *Principle of Scientific Management*. New York: Harper and Brothers.

Teac, R.D. and Govahi, G. (1993), 'The Role of Classroom Techniques in Teaching Management,' *Simulation and Gaming* Vol. 24, No. 4 (December 1993): 429-45; A.

Temporal, P. (1995), *Top Teams - have you got the right balance?* Corporate World, September, pp 42 - 44.

Torrington, Derek, & Weightman, Jane. (1994), *Effective Management: People and Organisation*, Second Edition.

Turney, B. and Robb, G. (1971), *Research in Education*, the Dryden Press Inc.

United Nations (1974), *Organisation, Management and Supervision of Public Enterprises in Development Countries*, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, New York.

United Nations (1975), *Development Administration: Current Approaches and Trends in Public Administration for National Development*, New York.

United Nations (1992), 'Measures to Enhance the Capacity of Management Improvement Agencies in Developing Countries', *Report of a United Nations Export Working Group, Brussels, Belgium 11-15 December, 1989, (UN Department of Technical Co-operation in Development)*, New York.

UNDP (1989), 'Education and Training in the 1990's, Developing Countries Need and Strategies', *Discussion Paper*, pp. 216- 227.

UNDP (1993), *Industry & Development*, Global Report 1993/1995.

UNESCO. (1984), 'Wastage in Primary Education from 1970 to 1980', *Prospects* Vol. 14, pp. 347-64.

Urwick, L. (1952), 'Notes on the Theory of Organisation', *American Management Association*.

Van Maanen, J. (1983), *Qualitative methodology*. London: SAGE Publication

Viditch, A. J. (1969), 'Participant Observation and the Collection and Interpretation of Data', In McCall, G. J. and Simmons, J. L. (ed.), *Issues in Participant Observation: A Text and Reader Reading*. Addison Wesley.

Vroom, V.H. (1964), *Work and Motivation*, Wiley, New York.

Vroom, V.H. (1965), *Motivation in Management*, American Foundation for Management Research, New York.

Wadley, D., (1992), *Planning in Geography Departments: The Move to Strategic Management*, Professional Geographer (In Press), and Washington.

Wallender, H. (1979), *Technology transfer and management in developing countries*, Cambridge Mass, Ballinger Publishing Company.

Wall, R. G. (1963), 'Untangling the snarls in job rotation programme', *Personnel*, No. 42, pp. 59-65.

Walstedt, B. (1980), *State Manufacturing Enterprises in a Mixed Economy: The Turkish Case*, Johns Hopkins University Press, for the World Bank, Baltimore, Md.

Weber, M. (1949), *The Methodology of the Social Sciences*, Glencoe, III: Free Press.

Waterman, Robert H. (1982), *The Renewal Factor*. New York: Bantam.

Waters, J. A. (1993), 'Managerial Skills Development,' *Academy of Management Review* 5, No. 3 pp 449-53.

Watson, C. E. (1979), *Management Development through Training*, Addison-Wesley Inc.

Watson, K.(1988), 'For Year of Education and Development From Optimism to uncertainty', *Pergamon Education Review*, Vol. 40, No. 2.

Watson, T. (1994), *In search of management; culture, chaos, and control in managerial work*, Routledge, London and New York.

Watson, B. (1997), 'Career development into the next century, People in the Public Sector', *Managing your Organisation's most valuable asset*, Vol. 1, issue 1, PMG.

Wheelen, T.L, and Hunger, J.D. (1998), *Strategic Management and Business Policy*, Sixth Edition, New York: Addison-Wesley.

Whittington, R. (1993), *What is Strategy and Dose It Matter?* London: Routledge.

Whetten, D.A. and Cameron, K.S. (1980), *An Assessment of Salient Management Skills*, University of Wisconsin School of Business, Working Papers.

Whetten, D.A. and Cameron, K.S. (1983), 'Management skill training: A needed addition to the management curriculum', *the organisation Behaviour Teaching Journal*, Vol. 8 No. 1, pp. 10-15.

Whetten, D.A. and Cameron, K.S. (1984), *Development Managerial Skill*, Scott, Foresman and Company.

Whetten, D.A. and Cameron, K.S. (1991), *Development Managerial Skill*, (2nd Ed.), Harper Collins, New York.

Willcocks, S.G. (1992), 'Managerial effectiveness and the public sector', *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol.5 No.5, pp.4-10.

William H. Newman. (1975), *Construction Control*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

Williams, Chuck. (2002), *Effective Management: A Multimedia Approach*, published by Thomson Learning, USA.

Willis, Q. (1984), 'Managerial Research and Management Development', *Journal of Management Development*, Volume 3. No. 1, pp.28-41.

Willmott, H. C. (1984), 'Images and Ideals of Managerial Work: A Critical Examination of Conceptual and Empirical Accounts', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 21, No. 3, pp. 349-368.

Wilson, F. W. (1983), 'The Management of Development', *Development and Project Planning Centre*, University of Bradford, Discussion Paper No. 98, October.

Woodward, J. (1958), *Management and Technology*, Series No. 3, HMSO, London.

Word Bank, (1980), *Education Sector Policy Paper*, UNESCO, Paris.

Word Bank, (1991), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

World Bank (1980), 'Sector Policy Paper', April, Washington, D.C. in *Strategies for Third World Development*, (Eds), Augustine, J.S. Sage Publications.

World Bank. (1983), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, London.

World Bank. (1986), *Project Performance for Results*, OED Study, Washington D.C.

World Bank. (1989), *Proceeding of the World Bank Annual Conference of Development Economics*, Oxford University Press, New York.

World Bank. (1990), *Project Performance Results for 1987*, OED Study, Washington, D.C.

World Bank (1991), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, New York.

World Bank. (1991), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, New York.

World Bank, (1991), 'Vocational and Technical Education and Training', *A World Bank Policy Paper* Washington.'

World Bank, (1993), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, p.239.

World Bank, (1993), 'World Bank Report on Iran', *Iran Business Monitor*, No. p. 14.

World Bank (1993), *World Development Report*, Oxford University Press, P. 239.

World Bank. (1994), 'Trend in Developing Countries', *a World Bank Book*, Washington, DC.

World Bank. (1994), 'Trends in Development Economies', *A World Bank Book*, Washington, D.C.

Wren, Daniel A. (1980), 'Scientific Management in the U.S.S.R. with Particular Reference to the Contribution of Walter N. Polakov', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 5, pp. 1-11.

Wren, Daniel A. (1994), *The Evolution of Management Thought*, 4th ed. New York: Wiley.

Zamani, H. (1988), *Growth, Employment and Income Distribution*, Unpublished PhD. Queen Mary College, The University Of London.

Ziyal, L. (1995), 'Why The Best Sales Person Is Not The Best Sales Manager: Developing the Careers of Sales People', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 10, No 4, pp 9-20.

Ziyal, L., (1996), '*Definition of Critical Performance Demands: A New Approach to Competency, Research*'. Paper given at Competency.

Zomorrodian, A. (1978), '*Management Training and Development in Iranian Public Organization: An Analysis of present situation and alternative strategies*', Report Unpublished Thesis PhD given at, University of Southern California.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire

Dear Sir / Madam

I am currently conducting a research into Senior Managers and their Effectiveness in the Car Manufacturing Industries for the degree of PhD in management at the University of Abertay Dundee in the UK. Attached is a survey questionnaire, designed in connection with this research project, on senior managers and their effectiveness in the car manufacturing in Iran. The aim of this research is to identify the managerial skills and knowledge required for the development of senior managers and the effectiveness of their organisations.

I should be very grateful if you could assist me by providing information for a survey of the managerial skills and knowledge which are required by the senior managers in your organisation. It will normally take 15-20 minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire. I therefore ask you if you would be kind enough to answer the questions listed on the following pages in terms of your experience as a senior manager in your present position.

I appreciate the time you devote and your patience in answering the questions. I consider your contribution to be highly valuable both to this research and to the further understanding of management development, and the needs of the managers in our country. I can assure you that all information will be treated in the strictest confidence and will be used only as statistical data for research and academic purposes.

I hope that on the basis of your honest opinion and finding of this research a comprehensive management development policy can be formulated in your organisation. If implemented, this policy will eventually provide a supportive environment, leading to further development of yourself, your colleagues and your organisation as a whole.

I highly appreciate your help in completing this questionnaire, and thank you for your co-operation.

Respectfully yours,

Nader Houshmandyar.

Q3. How would you describe your responsibilities in your present position?
(Please specify up to five in order of importance to you).....

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

Q4. Thinking of all aspects of your post, what would you say are the three most important? (Please state them in order of priority to you)

- a)
- b).....
- c).....

Q5. To what extent do you think communication is important in the satisfactory discharge of your responsibilities in your present position? (Please choose between (1for the least important and 5 for the most important)

1 2 3 4 5

Q6. In evaluating your position, how important are the following to you? Use scale of 1 to 6. (1 being the least and 6 the most important)

- Managing people more than operations
- Managing people more than people.
- Managing people and operations.
- Managing self and career development
- Managing outside stakeholders
- Managing clients and customers

Section three: Training Perception & Experience

Q1: How do you describe the management training in your organisation?

Very poor	poor	so-so	Efficient	Very efficient
1	2	3	4	5

Q2: How would you assess the role of management training in improving senior manager's performance?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Q3. Does management training help you and your colleagues to further improve your job-related performance?

Yes No

If yes, how and in what ways (mention up to 3 in order of priority to you)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

If no, do you think there are alternative ways of developing senior managers?
(Mention up to 3 in order of priority to you)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Q4. In your opinion, is there any need for the training and development of senior managers in your organisation?

Yes No

your present job.

- Managing relationships with stakeholders in the community nationally or internationally
- Managing clients and customers of the organisation

Q8. Have you ever participated in an organised management-training programme?

Yes

No

If yes, please describe the type and indicate the length of time?

.....

.....

.....

Q9. How useful did you find the above programme in helping you to manage the following aspects of your managerial effectiveness, given each aspect a score from the following scale.

Very low use	Low use	so-so Useful	Very useful	
1	2	3	4	5
- Managing people		<input type="checkbox"/>	Managing task	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Increased self and career development awareness				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Improved performance				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Dealing with task				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Managing people				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Managing people and operations				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Providing you with motivation to work				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Reducing the demand and constraints of my job				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Increasing the opportunities and choices				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Becoming aware and changing managerial style				<input type="checkbox"/>
- Improved relationship with clients and stakeholders out				<input type="checkbox"/>

- side the organisation
- To think strategically above my work
- To set targets, plan and implement them

Q10. If you were asked to design an effective training programme for the senior managers in your organisation, what topics would you include in the course content (Please name up to five in order of priority to you).

- 1-.....
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-

Q11. What type of management training do you think is most useful for senior managers like yourself? (Please tick one or more boxes).

- Workshop Lectures Seminars
- Case Study Group Discussions Role Playing
- Job Rotating Mentoring Coaching
- Apprenticeship Others

(Please specify).....

Q12. How long would you prefer a management training and development course to be? Please comments:

- Days How many? Weeks How many?

Q13. Management training and development programmes are to be used by internal resources.

Agree, why?.....

Disagree, why?.....

Q14. In your opinion, what are the main obstacles to the management development in your organisation? Please indicate the degree of difficulty by giving each a score from the following scale.

A little		So-so		A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| Poorly designed programmes | <input type="checkbox"/> | Lack of professional management trainers | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Limited choice | <input type="checkbox"/> | Lack of time / Pressure of work | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Finance / Cost | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not recognised as need | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Low priority | <input type="checkbox"/> | Low commitment | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| No appraisal | <input type="checkbox"/> | No career planning | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of vision | <input type="checkbox"/> | No suitable programme | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of information | | | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Inappropriate personnel development policies | | | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Any others (Please specify).....

- 14) How to manage change effectively in my organisation.
- 15) How to plan effectively by determining objectives, forecasting, evaluating and selecting the best possible alternative for doing the job.
- 16) How to make effective decision, and provide opportunity for subordinates to participate in the process involved
- 17) How to delegate authority and assume responsibility and allocate the necessary resources to my subordinates in order to accomplish tasks.
- 18) How to maintain an effective interaction system within the organisation.
- 19) How to analyse the organisation structure and its operation through understanding the effects which different internal and external factors have on the organisation.
- 20) How to use computer efficiently in the daily management of affairs in my job.
- 21) How to deal with and manage the financial aspects of the organisation.

Section Five: Senior manager's motivation

Q1. How important are the following factors to you in motivating you to maintain high quality performance at your job? Please use the scale below to indicate your views.

Very low importance Low importance so-so importance very IM

1 2 3 4 5

- 1) Well paid job with fringe benefits
- 2) Well rewarded job.
- 3) Job security.
- 4) Good working conditions.
- 5) An understanding superior with the right kind of leadership style
- 6) Pleasant work relationships with others.
- 7) Fair and just appraisal system.
- 8) Good and fair personnel policies.
- 9) Variation of tasks and functions in the job.
- 10) Recognition of good work.
- 11) Well respected and high status job.
- 12) Vast amount of responsibilities in the job.
- 13) Lots of control over others people's job.
- 14) Power to exercise authority and make decision.
- 15) Participation in policy making and evaluation.
- 16) Opportunity for personal growth and development.
- 17) Job autonomy and freedom.
- 18) Job with a valuable purpose.
- 19) Opportunity for advancement, achievement and success,

in the job.

20) Opportunity to participate in a management-training programme.

21) Challenging job that is personally rewarding and fulfilling.

Other factors (Please specify if you can think of any).
.....
.....

Section Six: Factors affecting performance

Q.1. In your opinion which of the following factors have contributed to your satisfactory performance at present post and to what extent do you think each factor is important for increasing your effectiveness? Choose a number from the scale below to express your view and write it in the boxes in front of each factor.

Not important		So-So		Very important	
1	2	3	4	5	

- A. Commitment to the organisational objective.
- B. Relevant educational background.
- C. Formal management education.
- D. Management training and experience.
- E. Human skills.
- F. Functional skills.
- G. Motivation and job satisfaction.
- H. Facilities and opportunities for self and career development.
- I. Managerial tools.
- J. Formal authority.
- K. Confidence in owns abilities.
- L. Internal support to enhance self-efficacy.
- M. Meaningful linkage between management training and career development

Any others (Please specify)

.....
.....
.....

Q.2. Name some personal attributes which you think have contributed to your effectiveness in present position (Please state at least three in order of their importance). a).....

b)
c).....

Q.3 Name those organisational factors which you think have enhanced your effectiveness in your job (Please state at least three in order of their importance).

a).....
b).....
c).....

Q.4 Name some factors outside of the organisation, which you think have affected performance at work (Please state at least three in order of their importance).

a).....
b).....
c).....

Section Seven: Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness

Q1. How would you describe an effective manager, and the perception she/he has of his/her work? What characteristics and qualities do you attribute to senior managers? (Please explain).

.....
.....
.....

- d) Good and fair personnel policies
- e) Recognition of good work
- f) Well respected and high status job
- g) High control over others people's job.
- h) Participation in policy making and evaluation.
- k) Opportunity for personal growth and development.
- l) Job autonomy and freedom.
- m) Job with a valuable purpose.
- n) Opportunity for advancement, achievement and success, in the job.
- o) Opportunity to participate in management training programme.
- p) Challenging job that is personally rewarding and fulfilling.

Other factors (Please identify).

.....

Q9. In line with an open system approach towards understanding

managers, their works and effectiveness, all senior managers reach a level of self-awareness about the nature of their jobs.

Do you agree? Yes No

Justify your response

.....

Q10. How would you assess the importance of choices and opportunities for effectiveness? (Please explain)

.....
.....

Q11. As an indicator for choices and opportunities for effectiveness which of the followings are the most important? (Please tick).

- a) Training opportunities for effectiveness
- b) Better working conditions and equipment
- c) Organisational and managerial processes

Q12. How can you specify the nature of inter-organisational relationships the overall subject of managerial effectiveness? (Please explain).

.....
.....
.....

Q13. Which are the most important in the nature of inter-organisational? Relationships? (Please tick).

- a) Two-way relationship between effectiveness and the organisation
- b) Partly by organisation's relationship with other organisations and agencies

- c) Both national and international inter-organisational relationships
- d) All above

Q14. Is there any genuine distinction that can be drawn between leadership and management? If so, what is it? (Please explain your opinion).

.....

Q15. Does the leadership of the organisation provide the standard for the patterns of behaviour? (Please explain).

.....

Q16. Which of the followings are the most important in the style of leadership? (Please tick).

- a) Managerial ability
- b) Motivation
- c) Participatory training
- d) Guide and provide help
- e) All above

Q17. How do you understand the dominant managerial philosophy in your organization? (Please explain).

.....

Final Comments

Please provide any comments, ideas or suggestions which you feel may be relevant to this study and kindly use a separate sheet if the space below is insufficient.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you very much indeed for completing this questionnaire; your co-operation is very much appreciated.

If you wish to have a copy of the result of this survey (at no cost) please tick this box and indicate the address to which you wish this to be sent.

Name and family

Address

Fax No.....

E-mail address:.....

If you wish to contact the researcher, please write or send an email or a fax to address below:

Nader Houshmandyar

Phone Home [redacted]
[redacted]
[redacted]
[redacted]

Appendix 2

Managerial Roles

Interpersonal Roles

The interpersonal roles are relation with other people that characterise one aspect of managerial activities, which is derived from authority and status of management position.

The interpersonal roles help managers to keep their organisation running smoothly by providing them a unique position to get information. Mintzberg three interpersonal roles are those of figurehead, liaison, and leader.

The Figurehead

Being the most basic and simplest of all managerial of all managerial roles, this is a symbolic role as formal head of his or her division or department; the manager sometimes acts as a figurehead by performing ceremonial duties. It s a manager duty to represent his organisation. He is seen therefore, to attend meetings, to sign documents, to greet visitors, to take a customer to launch, to participate in other formal activities as a social necessity and to attend to people who insist to see the person in charge.

The leader

This is the visible action role we usually see which defines the manager's relationship with his subordinates in a formal vertical pattern. It is one of the most significant roles in managerial job, which permeates all activities of managers. It is characterised by the manager directing subordinates toward goal accomplishment. The leader role manifests itself mainly in the execution of two categories of activities. Those which are associated with staffing and those which are primarily motivational. When a manager is involved in hiring, training, motivating, and encouraging subordinates, he is actually taking part in playing the leader role.

The Liaison

The liaison role consists of interactions with peers and other people external to the manager's work unit or the organisation. This role involves building and maintaining formal and informal communication networks out of the organisation, which is usually based on horizontal pattern of relationships. Managers develop such contacts in order to gain favours and information in a more likely give and take situation. Astute, politically oriented managers usually gravitate toward this role in particular. It constitutes an important manager's job which is the linking between the organisation and environment.

Informational Roles

In performing the interpersonal roles, the manager is involved in a number of interactions that give rise to information flow. The result is those managers emerge as focal points for information exchange in organisation. Informational roles, thereby relate to the sources and communication of information arising from the manager's interpersonal roles.

Managers need information in order to make the right decisions. The same applies to other staffs and subordinates whose actions depend on the information they receive. Thus the receiving and communicating information becomes the most important aspects of a manager's job. Three informational roles are prominent in managerial activities in which managers gather and disseminate information. These roles include monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson.

The Monitor

Information is a vital and basic input to a manager's decision making. As a monitor, a manager is first a receiver and collector of information and constantly looks for them to be used to advantage. Taking an active part in the monitor role enables manager to become well informed on various organisational activities and events in its environment. A manager can not afford limiting his information by receiving them only through formal channels. Thus, unsolicited and current information is also sought through personal contacts and special communication channels which a

manager establishes within his organisation. This network also keeps the manager one step ahead of changes in organisational direction.

The Disseminator

As a disseminator of information, a privileged well informed manager is able to distribute important external and internal information to subordinates, peers, and superiors within the organisation. When disseminator role played right, it will provide valuable opportunities for subordinates and others to receive information that may positively affect their behaviours. This means to know exactly what information to pass, who to pass it to, and when to disseminate it. This role is much played for managerial survival, particularly for political favours or for other bits of equally useful information to improve ones position in the organisation. And thus, effective verbal communication is very crucial for all managers for the performance of this role.

The Spokesman

As a formal authority a manager is expected to represent his organisation and speak on behalf of his organisation by transmitting information to individuals or groups outside the organisation. The information is mainly transmitted to two groups of people, those who exert power over the manager's job, and those are affected by the organisations. The spokesman role requires that manager keeps both groups well informed about the organisations plans, operations and objectives in a way that will leave favourable impression on both managers and their groups.

Decisional Roles

The third aspect of managerial activities involves decision making which give rise to four decisional roles of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Decisional roles are considered most crucial in effective performance of managerial jobs and involve the making of strategic organisational decisions on the basis of the manager's status, authority, and access to information. By definition, managers are decision maker, thereby a manager constantly finds himself. In situations which require that he makes a range of significant decisions. A manager's

duties, authorities, and status as well as his unique access to information put him at a central place where strategic decisions have to be through these four decisional roles.

The Entrepreneur

As an entrepreneur, the manager initiates some systematic change and improvement in the organisation voluntarily. In doing so a manager looks for problems and opportunities, and then decides what actions need to be taken in order to improve an existing situation. At all this time the manager makes sure that the planned changes and the improvements are under his direct supervision in different stages.

The Disturbance handler

In the disturbance handler role a manager is involved in responding to unpredictable events that are beyond his or her control that put an organisation in difficult positions such as strikes, bankrupt customers, breach of contract, and the like. These difficult situations are usually of three kinds;

- A) Conflicts among subordinates
- B) Disruption between groups
- C) Loss or threatened loss of a unit's resources

In dealing with unexpected disturbance a manager needs to make decisions for actions to be carried out to correct the situations. Disturbance handling divisions involve aspects of crisis management. For the most part such decisions have to be made speedily and under great pressure. Successful managers usually develop effective skills in handling these firing-line decisions.

The Resource allocation

Performing this role involves that a manager uses his formal authority to decide on how the resources of the organisation is to be divided. It is the manager's responsibility to decide how to allocate the organisation's resources such as money,

material, and manpower, as well as the manager's own time to ever competing demand made for them. Allocation of resources is the heart of the organisation's strategy-making system and comprises of three essential elements; scheduling time, programming work and authorizing decisions to be made by others. The manager therefore decides the programming of work and maintains control by authorizing important decisions before they are put into effects.

The Negotiator

Negotiator role is the fourth in decisional roles and the final role for managers. A manager acts as a negotiator when he or she enters into negotiations with internal or external parties on behalf of the organisation. Managers spend a great deal of their time as negotiator, because only they have the credibility, information and authority that negotiation requires. The negotiator role therefore, is a vital part of any manager's job because by virtue of the authority and responsibility vested in the positions, managers can formally make Organisational commitments and ratify the final agreements.

Mintzberg's message is that if managers want to be more effective, they must recognise what their jobs really is and then use resources at hand to support rather than hamper their own nature.