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**STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT:
AN EXPLORATION INTO THE EXTENT AND NATURE OF SENIOR
AND MIDDLE MANAGERS' DEVELOPMENT IN THE
PALESTINIAN TELECOMMUNICATION SECTOR**

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Doctor of Philosophy**

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2013

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Key Words: Management, Human Resource Management, Management Development and Training, Senior and Middle Managers, Telecommunication, Palestine.

ABSTRACT

This research explores the nature and extent of management development and training of senior and middle managers working in Palestinian telecommunication organizations using a basic trichotomous (three-stage) model: needs assessment, training development, and evaluation. A critical review of the literature is presented to identify the different approaches and key principles that make up the field of training and development.

Using the survey approach, primary data were collected to answer the research question. A total of 142 questionnaires were distributed among senior and middle managers with 110 questionnaires being completed and returned (77 per cent response rate). Field work was also supported with 10 selected interviews with high ranking officials in the surveyed organizations to help corroborate the results. Thereafter, data was analysed using SPSS and spread sheets, and then compared with data available from literature.

Despite the presence of a rather systematic approach to training, the findings show that the current status of training in the surveyed organizations is inadequate with heavy emphasis on traditional methods throughout the three stages; the current system does not offer a holistic perspective to training and development.

This study presents an exploratory investigation into the training status in telecommunication organizations. It provides a fundamental foundation for future research aimed at expanding the available knowledge within the context of the study. In addition, specific strengths and weaknesses in the current system are identified using the trichotomous model in a more practical manner. Overall, this thesis offers both professionals and academics a fresh perspective on training in Palestinian telecommunication organizations; it not only highlights the importance of training but also stresses that future initiatives and programs are more carefully designed and implemented.

DEDICATION

**This work is dedicated to my beloved
mother, Hilda Mansour, and father, Robert Sabella,
my sister Angela, her husband Bassam and their sweet
children, Cynthia and Anis,
my sister Carole,
and to the memory of my brother, Rony,
without whose caring support it would not have been
possible.**

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

As organizations change their strategy, structure, systems, staffing and support processes, the role and actions of managers must change to lead and support these initiatives (Longenecker and Fink, 2001). On this issue, McCall *et al.* (1988) contended that in rapidly changing organizations the dynamics of management development and training should change to assist managers learn the chains of their evolving roles and help them in obtaining the skills required to perform more effectively in these fluid environments. Drucker (1999) and Fulmer (1997) have also argued that during periods of large scale organizational change the greatest challenge many organizations face is the rapid and effective development of their managers.

The management development and training function has increasingly been recognized as a critical element of an organization's strategy. Organizations attempting to succeed in today's global business environment must invest in the acquisition and development of employees. Jennings *et al.* (1995) asserted that training and development is perceived as the most important human resource practice. The field of training and development has been the focus of much attention, and has been recognized as important to economic growth (King, 1969). Against the backdrop of large scale organization change – oftentimes perplexing- there is growing interest in management development potential to perform in

a strategic role and aid individual and organizational development. Buckley and Kemp (1989) approved of the argument that management development has a strategic role to play in organizations as well as having the potential to act as a catalyst for organizational change and transformation. To become more competitive, organizations and the people that operate them must break old habits and develop new behaviours and processes that make them more effective and efficient (Senge, 1990). Finally, since the significant reports of the late 1980s (Handy, 1987; Constable and McCormick, 1987) UK management development and training has seemingly begun to move up the agenda of organizational priorities. There is now rising evidence of enthusiasm to boost investment and provide more commitment to the development of UK managers (Cannon and Taylor 1994; Thomson, *et al.*, 1997; Storey *et al.*, 1997).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Management training and development is a multifaceted field where a wide assortment of theories were developed trying to understand it (Dorst *et al.*, 2002). Now more than 40 years, academic researchers and real managers have been trying to find ways for individuals and groups within organizations to work together more effectively (Argyris, 1994). Consequently, there is now a growing acknowledgement for the need for more effective learning and greater commitment from all employees. Furthermore Argyris argued that almost every manager recognizes that success today and in the future depends ultimately on the calibre of people in the organization. Training and

development is therefore becoming an important function capable of nurturing the potential of people in the organization to meet challenges heads on.

In a developing country like Palestine characterized by political turmoil, high dependence on foreign aid, and lack of skills across most sectors of the economy, exposed a huge need for training and development programs. Never before, the need for training and development was more prevalent and more pressing. Widespread efforts by the Palestinian Authority to attract foreign investments and to develop the economy, coupled with the growing domestic competition, increased globalization of markets, as well as other challenges ought to make training and development function a priority of the utmost importance for all organizations, especially those operating in the telecommunication sector of Palestine. Nevertheless, a study carried out by Al-Madhoun and Analoui (2003) pointed out that the Palestinian Authority and UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency) have recognized that many managers suffer from managerial ineffectiveness, and that training and development is one of the long-term tools to promoting the development of the Palestinian economy and alleviate the problem of persistent unemployment in the Palestinian Territories.

The introduction of the Palestinian Authority in 1993 – an interim body to administer Palestinian-populated areas of the West bank and Gaza strip – had a great impact on the development of a flourishing private sector, establishing new organizations that opened new unprecedented business opportunities in Palestinian areas. This led to the creation of new job opportunities which in certain areas these opportunities exceeded the abilities

and skills available in the local market, forcing organizations to lower their expectations and become stagnate. Carnevale *et al.* (1990) stated that training is capable of assuming a strategic role that contributes to the development of national economies. They even went far by arguing that for a policy to be successful in the long run it should be based on the development of the local workforce which can be relied on to maintain and sustain local organizations in the future.

The deficiency in skills across many sectors of the Palestinian economy generated an enormous need for training and development programs. Most sectors have received considerable attention and commitment from the Palestinian Authority after the conference on development strategy in Palestine in September (MOPIC, 1995), which concluded that Human Resource Development should stress training to face the Palestinian needs for future development. Similarly, the conference recommended the establishment of research and training centres for managerial and technical skills' development. This was also evident in the Palestinian Development Plan (1998-2000) where Human Resource Development was the second largest program area. Both plans have stressed the importance of industrialization to accomplish the Palestinian government objectives: to expand its economic base; to reduce its independence on Israel; to increase the private sector's contribution to the development process; to create new job opportunities; and to develop the local workforce resources (Shath, 1998). The results of these policies were felt through an increase in the number of productive organizations reaching 105,745 businesses employing 174,860 workers in year 2007 (PCBS, 2007).

Without doubt, together with this increase in the number of organizations and workers, the need for further development of training programs to enhance the abilities, skills, and talents of workers and achieve organizational goals became more evident. Correspondingly, Charles Handy (1989) in his monumental book 'The Age of Unreason' argued that training will reinforce the individual skills, group and team behaviours and shore up new leadership behaviours apt for unusual paradoxical organizations and for interdependent/diverse organizations.

Conceivably, management researchers and professionals alike recognized the importance of two major aspects – organizational change and management development and training (Kotter, 1996), though change within the organization and in its surrounding environment may have been the main reason for training and development to emerge as a source of influence and power. In this regard, Pugh (2000) stated that in the field of change management, training and development has two objectives: first, is to provide people with the skills and attitudes necessary to manage both specific and generic change; secondly, to ensure opportunities for organizational and individual development in a diverse world. Cascio (1992: 256) too, argued that the pace of change in our society is forcing both employed and displaced workers to continually acquire new knowledge and skills. In most organizations, therefore, lifelong training is essential. Pugh (2000: 131), therefore, contended that the most recent and important keystones in view of change management have been to do with behavioural change in the form of:

- New leadership skills spread throughout the organization.
- New roles for all managers.
- The new skills prerequisite of technological change.
- Attitude changes demanded by flexible organizations.
- Learning organizations and knowledge management.
- Changes in the relationship between manager and managed.

The economy of an independent Palestinian state will be the engine of opportunity for its citizens. To provide sustained growth in per-capita incomes, Palestine needs a dynamic private sector that can employ the current and future labour force. Even after a final status agreement, the Palestinian economy will face a number of significant challenges.

These include

- Threats to security and stability
- A growing labour force (a large portion of them are currently unemployed)
- Underdeveloped economic sectors
- Underdeveloped economic relations with Arab neighbours
- Poor physical infrastructure
- Limited private-sector access to capital
- Immature governing institutions

Training and development is a potential strategic weapon which Palestinian organizations may want to take advantage of in their quest for survival given all the challenges mentioned above. Careful planning and implementation of modern training and development is very much a necessity.

In recent years, management development and training in the developed countries has become an increasingly important part of organization life. Yet, in the Arab countries, training and development function was identified as being ineffective and inadequate. Most training specialists and managers describe training effectiveness as, in general, low (Al-Ali and Taylor, 1997). Others as well like Safi (1998) and Shaban (1998) pointed out that very few organizations in Palestine have a clear training and development plans and in those where plans do exist, they were recently introduced. They claim that the reason for this is the high costs of training and development, and lack of confidence with the process and its ensuing output.

Abu-Doleh (1996), Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995) have agreed on the present gap in the available research literature and they all called for an increase of attention to this important function in the Arab speaking world as well as individual Arab countries. Similarly in Palestine, the current status of management development and training suffers from the lack of research literature coupled with insufficient managerial awareness of its importance, processes, and methods.

1.3 Importance of Study

The study of management development and training has diverged since its inception. All through the centuries the world has changed, it has become more complex. The kinds of work to be done, the skills needed, and the tools used to do the work have also changed. In order to manage these changes in the complexity, quantity, and substance of work, management training and development also evolved. This study is founded on the

assumption that in modern societies every major social task is today being entrusted to organizations. The performance of modern society depends on the performance of these organizations and ultimately the management teams therein – management is what really fuels long-term success. The performance of an organization depends on the quality and calibre of its managers, they are a unique resource. Working with people and through people always means developing them which decides whether a person will become more productive or cease to be productive.

Having said this, management development and training has become an increasingly important function in organizational life which requires a heightened attention of practitioners and academics alike. This study is an effort to increase the knowledge about this important function and a chance for instigating further research- particularly in a developing country like Palestine.

1.4 Objectives of study

The overall aim of this study is to explore the practices, effectiveness and impact of training and development directed at senior (top) and middle managers- in the Telecommunication Sector in Palestine in the context of the changing environment, and to highlight and clarify the main elements affecting the application of a systematic approach to training and development in that particular sector. Moreover, to understand the current situation as it is, and how it can be improved to achieve individual and organizational objectives more effectively through good investment in people. Thus, there is a need for reviewing the policies, programs and activities of HRD department on

training and development in order to assess their effectiveness as well as identifying additional factors which are influencing the training and development function in this sector. Failing to investigate these issues may adversely affect the quality of existing and future training and development practices to meet the strategic direction and needs of these organizations. Finally, a subsequent aim of this research is to provide analytical information in the form of recommendations and suggestions to be used as basis for formulating more effective training and development strategies in telecommunication organizations as a whole.

In order to achieve the above aims, the following objectives will be pursued throughout this study. These are as follows:

- 1- To review the relevant literature on human resource management, particularly training and development of middle and senior managers.
- 2- To explore the nature and extent of training and development policies, procedures, programs, and activities within the telecommunication sector in Palestine.
- 3- To investigate the process of how training and development is implemented within the Palestinian telecommunication organizations and to assess its effectiveness and impact on senior and middle managers.
- 4- To understand how senior and middle managers perceive the role and importance of training and development.

- 5- To identify the constraints and/or limitations of the current training and development programs in these organizations.
- 6- To construct a viable framework of factors for effective design and implementation of management training and development programs within the telecommunication sector in Palestine.
- 7- To examine the relationships between the contextual factors - organizational and external- on one hand and the relevance and effectiveness of training and development programs on the other.
- 8- To contribute to the existing knowledge on training and development on developing countries.
- 9- To help decision makers identify the nature, importance, and problems facing training and development in Palestinian organizations. Hence, drawing their attention towards utilizing the maximum potential of such function.

1.5 Research Question

This study was set to explore the nature and extent of the current role of management development and training in the telecommunication sector of Palestine, and as a result, the efforts of this research were directed at understanding how do telecommunication organizations go about managing the function of training and development.

With the intention to achieve the objectives of this research, attempts will be made to answer the following research question.

- 1- How training and development programs for senior and middle managers are conceived and implemented within the telecommunication sector in Palestine?
What are the nature and extent of such programs?

1.6 Methodology

The methodology adopted in this research used the methods applied in a field study – the use of primary and secondary data. A review of the available literature on management development and training in the Palestinian context, the Arab world and western countries was carried out to achieve the objective of secondary data, that is, uncovering the situations under which training and development is most effective in theory and practice. With the aim of obtaining a thorough examination of the problem, the study has relied to a far extent on using primary data collection methods. To realize this, the survey methods applied in this study included the development of a questionnaire, the adoption of sampling procedures and the use of statistical methods for data analysis. The questionnaires were sent to senior and middle managers of a selected sample of Paltel Group in Palestine. Furthermore, a pilot study was conducted to reveal deficiencies in the design and administration of the questionnaire that can be resolved prior to the main study.

Alongside the survey questionnaire, and to further triangulate the data obtained from reviewing the literature and the survey questionnaire, semi-structured interviews were carried out as part of this study to explore the views and attitudes of senior-level

managers in the Palestinian Telecommunication Sector on key issues relevant to management training and development.

1.7 Organization of study

This thesis is composed of eight chapters. The first chapter consists of a brief introduction, a statement of problem, importance of study, research objectives, research questions, methodology and limitations of the study. Chapter Two places the study in the context of other studies that have been done in the field- a review of the literature related to training and development. Chapter Three provides a general background of Palestine, the Palestinian business environment and an overview of the telecommunication sector in Palestine. Chapter Four provides a synthesis of the literature through the presentation of the research explanatory framework which is based on the analysis of various development and training models. Chapter Five explains the study design and methods used for the study, the research instruments, the sampling procedures, data collection methods, data analysis procedures and the difficulties faced by the researcher during fieldwork. Chapter Six gives a description of the general data obtained from the survey questionnaire. It also provides some specific analysis and cross-tabulations. Chapter Seven presents a discussion based on the data obtained from the survey, interviews and literature review, analyses of the results in light of the main research questions, and the factors that affect the characteristics of training and development. Chapter Eight, in addition to presenting a summary of the main findings

and a set of proposed recommendations, the chapter outlines a number of suggestions for future research in the field of management development and training.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things.
(Niccolo Machiavelli, *The Prince*, 1532: 28)

2.1 Introduction

Change is declared as becoming so irregular and conversional that it is leading to insightful shifts in the life of managerial work. Within this representation, managers at all levels are persistently being reminded of their fundamental responsibility and the importance of the strategic impact they exert with regard to organizational performance and renewal (Doyle, 1994). Against this backdrop, this chapter will begin by examining the general field of management by emphasizing different management perspectives and their assumptions about people and change. It will then introduce an overview of change management which is affected by the evolution in the field of management. The third part of this chapter introduces management development and its importance and relevance to organizational success and sustainability. The fourth part explores the relationship between management development and organizational change wherein different approaches, cultural influences, and how management development can support organizational change are discussed. The chapter then concludes with a summary of all the relevant topics presented throughout the chapter.

2.2 Management Past and Present

The roots of the discipline of management go back approximately 200 years, and ever since management has become to be pervasive and universal. Management as a function, a distinct work, a discipline and area of study are all products of the twentieth century. Management may be the most important innovation of the twentieth century – and the one most directly affecting the young, educated people in colleges and universities who will be tomorrow’s workers in managed institutions and their managers the day after tomorrow (Drucker, 2008: 1). Management can be defined as the process of achieving organizational goals by coordinating human activities, with physical and natural resources. Effective management requires mastering the four functions of management: planning, organizing, leading, and controlling – the functional principle which was the first rational approach to the organization of enterprise developed by Henri Fayol (Drucker, 2008). Hence, organizations were recognized as entities made up of people and exist to accomplish specific purposes (Robins and Coulter, 2009) entailing serving and satisfying different stakeholders’ needs. Late nineteenth century is marked with the development of modern management theory which was the result of a major turning point in the history of our world – the Industrial Revolution. The development of management theories encompasses early theories such as scientific management and classical theory, and more modern theories like the open system theory and behavioural approach to management. All of them are widely acknowledged and contribute to better understanding of management, each in its own unique way.

2.2.1 Scientific Management

Early management theories were founded on different sets of grounds: above all they were primarily concerned with stability (Robins and Coulter, 2009). Both classical and scientific management presumed that organizations are closed entities thus not affected by their surrounding environment. If change was to be promoted, it was as a top-down process applied by a diktat. Organizations operating on these grounds put their managerial emphasis on controlling workers and the insinuation was that workers would accept change if they were obliged to by management, and for no other reason. Economic incentives were seen as the principal motivating force where the theory underlines a formal system of control through the standardization of processes, division of labour and responsibility, and supervision based on official authority. Efficiency in these organizations was a measure of the way in which tasks were defined and implemented. Many of these features were incorporated into early telecommunication systems and arguably persist in some systems today. Burns and Stalker (1994) highlighted the conditions under which the bureaucratic form of organization became viable in industrial society in the first half of the previous century. The economies of scale made possible by stable technological advancements that went together with developments to standardize, mechanize, and quicken manufacturing processes and to similarly mechanize specialist management functions. Max Weber (1947) named this form of organization, 'rational-legal bureaucracy', which was the subject for much studies and well documentation. Weber argues that all organizational members are to be selected on the basis of technical qualifications through formal examinations or by virtue

of training and education. This argument emphasized only one side of the equation for management development and training - the technical aspect – yet, it ignores other equally important aspects of managerial development that are considered critical ingredients in the formula for success in contemporary managerial jobs. This explains why Weber’s description and apparent support for bureaucracy as a necessary part of organizing was not well-received.

2.2.2 The Classical School of Management

European efforts to improve performance gave us the classical school which basically complements the ideas of scientific management, and guided the organizational systems that served all sorts of organizations until well into the last third of the twentieth century (Pugh, 2000). One major difference between scientific and classical schools was that the previous paid more attention to controlling and developing individual performance; the latter was more concerned with the characteristics and shape of the organization as a whole, thus refining the bureaucracies that existed.

The representation of military organization emerged large in the minds of the early theorists (Carr *et al.*, 1996). Many of the management terms which have had such widespread currency, such as chain of command, line managers, span of control, and unity of command are rooted in military activities, and it is maybe informative that some contemporary armies today are stressed to depart from these ideas. In these systems, workers are not designed to manage change, but if change is needed it is instructed from above and the means and procedures are detailed. Managers announce orders, workers

comply with or not and take the consequences; it is to Max Weber (1947) that we turn for a brief elucidation:

"[The worker] ... is but a small cog in an ever-moving mechanisms which prescribes to him an essentially fixed route of march". (Weber 1947: 228)

Weber's bureaucratic model is considered closely related to some of the ideas of classicists like Fayol (1948) in terms of being hierarchical, consistent in various ways, functionally based on a division of labour, and directed and controlled by a system of documented processes and written regulations. Furthermore, the writers of classical management theory viewed conflict as unwanted, damaging to the organization, ideally it should not exist. Their prescription was simple: eliminate it (Rowe and Boise, 1973). On the other hand, one could argue that Weber has placed too much emphasis on organizational structure and too little on the humanistic elements that make up an organization, hence, the argument made by Kernaghan and Siegel (1999) that Weber overstated the impact of organizational structure on individual workers and understated the impact of workers on the organization.

These patterns of management were to be found in telecommunication companies right up to the 1990s and in some cases will no doubt continue beyond that. The idea of the worker as a cog in the bureaucratic machine is unaccommodating, and both scientific management and classical management reduce matters to the control and measurement of a set of responses. Both schools see nothing that favourably disposes workers towards a positive and creative approach to anything new.

2.2.3 Behaviourism

It is known now that managers accomplish organizational goals by working with and through people. This clarifies why some management theorists have chosen to look at management by focusing on the human aspect of the organization. The field referring to seeking knowledge and studying all aspects of behavioural processes is called organizational behaviour (OB), (Robbins and Coulter, 2009; Greenberg and Baron, 2008). By behaviour it is meant what people think, say and do about work. Much of what currently makes up the field of human resource management, as well as modern views on motivation, leadership, trust, teamwork, and conflict management has come out of organizational behaviour research. Early advocates about people as the most important asset in the organization and therefore accordingly managed were Hugo Munsterberg (1913), Robert Owen (1819), and Chester Barnard (1938). For example, Munsterberg suggested using psychological tests for employee selection, learning theory concepts for employee training, and study of human behaviour for employee motivation. In addition and long before Munsterberg, Robert Owen (1819) was probably the first to suggest an idealistic workplace, argued that money spent on developing people was smart investment, and was concerned about deplorable working conditions. The behavioural approach is usually described as beginning with a series of studies conducted between 1924 and 1932, which investigated the behaviour and attitudes of workers at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company. Hence, behavioural approach to management became to be known for its emphasis on increasing production through an understanding of people. Organizational success according to proponents of this

approach depends on better understanding of people as well as adapting the organization to them.

Managers in the same way have latterly endeavoured to adjust the bureaucracy in order to move towards a more organic form of management, therefore psychologists like Tolman (1938) embarked on research to soften the edges of basic behaviourism by stating that the ways in which individuals act, and thus how they respond to change, can also be influenced by our beliefs, our attitudes, our emotions and our personal histories. While still remaining firmly within the behaviourist domain, this at least acknowledged different kinds of stimuli and was a step forward.

So how did the behaviourism approach to management influence organizations? The behavioural approach has largely shaped modern organizations from designing motivating jobs to developing working teams to opening up communication channels. Behaviourism had also far reaching influence on management development and training in context of change. Pugh (2000) argued that the most important keystones of the view of change management have been to do with behavioural change in the form of new leadership skills, new roles, new skills' requirement for technological change, and attitude changes demanded by flexible organizations.

The scientific management and classical management did not directly recognize the need for organizational change. As outlined in the terms above, early theorists recognized change. Working with these theories alone and ensemble can be seen as the first step towards setting the way for some basic guidelines for change management. These

theories however cannot be completely discounted as a source for managing change. Furthermore, the human variable in the organization needed much more analysis, since managers began to realize that they need to understand its influence on performance so they could maximize positive effects and minimize negative effects.

2.2.3.1 Human Relations Movement

A challenging view to the classical school, which was deficient in emphasizing the human aspect of the organization, was human relations. This view was based on the premise that organizations were not in reality machines but were systems being made up of interdependent factors, including individuals, groups, attitudes, motives, formal structure, and interactions (Certo, 2003). Certo (2003: 33) defined human relations movement as “a people oriented approach to management in which the interaction of people in organizations is studied to judge its impact on organizational success.”

The conservative wisdom in management thinking is that Human Relations was the brain offspring of Elton Mayo and his associates resulting from the legendary Hawthorne experiments that underscored a distinct intellectual split from Scientific Management (Robbins and Coulter, 2009). Consequently, human relations, in contrast to Taylorism at the time, was purported to observe humans at work as more than egocentric optimizers who are solely encouraged into action by the fact of economic gain. Rather, they were viewed as diverse psychosocial beings who are at once individuals with assorted needs, desires, and goals but who, at the same time, are also participants in social groups where

such relations change their individualistic impulses (Bruce, 2006; Sundstrom *et al.*, 2000). Conclusions such as behaviour and attitudes are closely related, group influences significantly affect individual behaviour, group standards establish individual worker output, and money is less a factor in determining output than are group attitudes and security led to a new emphasis on the human behaviour factor in the management of organizations and the attainment of goals.

2.2.3.2 Theory X and Theory Y

Originally conceived by Douglas McGregor (1960) as a motivation strategy that involves managers' assumptions about human nature. Simply put, Theory X presents a necessary negative view of people. It assumes that workers have little aspiration, detest work, want to evade responsibility and need to be closely controlled to work effectively. Theory Y offers a positive view. It assumes that workers can apply self-direction, accept and actually search for responsibility, and believe work to be a natural activity. Accordingly, Theory X organizations perceived all workers in scientific management terms, as being reluctant to work and therefore not willing to consider change, Theory Y organizations viewed workers as committed, interested in their jobs and interested in development and change. Furthermore, workers under theory X responded only to threats and promises of rewards, whereas those under theory Y responded to much wider range of management strategies. McGregor believed that Theory Y assumptions best captured the true nature of workers and should guide management practice. Peter Drucker (2008) in his monumental book *management* – argued that performance might be increased by using

either Theory X or Theory Y assumptions depending on the situation the organization is in. This argument comes in relation to Malsow's view that different people have to be managed differently (1965).

Writers such as Maslow (1943) also assumed the idea that not only a system of reward and punishment could result in change in human behaviour but by a mixture of these and increased understanding of the organizational environment. Perhaps this can be summarized by an observation credited to Maslow (1943: 15) which notes that "if the only tool you have is a hammer, you tend to see every problem as a nail."

In addition, Pugh (2000) clearly marked how managers as well as academics saw some benefit in some combination of the behaviourist idea of change being managed through the use of external stimuli with the suggestion that change can be also brought about by internal stimuli. So the human relations movement shed light on the likelihood that organizational life could thrive on more than a set of mechanical responses, and could entail reactions that were based on perception or intuition, or indeed emotion.

2.2.4 The Open System Approach

As well, the systems approach recognizes that organizations are not self-contained. Accordingly, organizations are dependent on their environments for factors of production and as sources to absorb their outputs (DuBrin, 2007). Pugh (2000) stated that open systems theory view for organizations of all types are made up of subsystems. Drawing on Burnes (1992: 23), these could be the:

- Technical subsystem: Skills, processes and knowledge
- Value subsystems: the aims and objectives of the organization
- Psycho-social subsystem: the culture of the organization
- Managerial subsystem: the things that managers traditionally do
- Structural subsystem providing the organizational framework.

System researchers envisioned an organization as being made up of interdependent factors which means that managers coordinate the work activities of the various parts of the organization (Analoui, 2002). In addition, a change in the way in which decisions are taken in one area of the organization will inextricably affect others and vice versa.

In the same vein, technological advancements should have led to significant changes in structures and to modification on how people are managed. Though some observers who happened to see things more positively than others refer to making greater capital out of technological developments to change structures (Prince and Burton, 1988), there is little evidence of this.

The theory of open systems succeeded in finding its way into change management in the shape of an insistence on viewing change in terms of its impact on the whole system, with implications for the development of change strategies and planning the process of change.

2.2.5 Contingency Approach

Different and changing conditions demand managers to use different approaches and techniques. The contingency approach -sometimes called the situational approach- says that organizations are diverse, face dissimilar conditions, and require special ways of managing. Obviously, organizations and even units within the same organizations are different and diverse in terms of size, goals, work and the like (Robbins and Coulter, 2009). The decision to design an organic structure, one that promotes flexibility so people initiate change and can adapt quickly to changing conditions (Burns and Stalker, 1994; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967), or a mechanistic structure which is less flexible than organic with predictable, accountable ways, depends on the particular situation an organization encounters: environmental uncertainty, organization size, technology, and individual differences. Accordingly, and because of ideas like this, Contingency theory assumes the intervention of environmental factors over which the organization has little or no control, and is a practical accumulation to the body of knowledge about change management (Burnes, 1992). Fundamentally, contingency theory suggests that a particular general approach to managing an organization can be infirmly selected. This approach will fit the circumstances but in different parts of the organization it can be changed without compromising the integrity of the organization or harming its effectiveness.

According to Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), the basis upon which the contingency theory was found overlaps in many ways with lots of the suggested methods for managing change. Ideas like technology used in the organization, size of the organization, environmental uncertainty, and individual differences constitute the key principles for the

development of the contingency approach and at the same time viewed as sources for change. Hence, it is quiet impossible to separate the field of change management from what the contingency theory is suggesting – at least from a theoretical perspective (Pugh, 2000). Moreover, this approach is linked with management development and training in the sense that it emphasizes the importance for the need of newly learned skills, techniques, and approaches to management. Managers’ capabilities must be developed in order for them to deal with different situations. Management development and training is therefore viewed as a key component to the successful implementation of this approach – without it organizations shall never attain fully the fruition this approach offers.

2.2.6 Contemporary Practices in Management (Knowledge-Based Theories)

Contemporary management concepts and practices are shaping the future of management. Today’s managers face an environment in which change takes place at an unprecedented rate. Therefore, many past management approaches and principles – created for a world that was more stable and predictable- no longer apply in full.

The following section introduces learning as one of a number of major components in change management as well as other theories which have developed further the subject of management.

2.2.6.1 Learning Organizations

Learning organizations are organizations that purposefully designs and constructs its structure, culture, and strategy so as to enhance and maximize the potential of organizational learning to take place (Jones, 2004). Now widely used in change management, that is just about everything that can be said with uncertainty about this idea. In practice it is an elusive concept but one which is becoming pivotal in organization development and change management (Pugh, 2000). By developing the capabilities of employees, at every level in the organization, to question and analyze the way an organization currently perform its activities and to experiment new ways to change it to increase effectiveness. Highlighting Senge's (1990: 37) work on the matter, creating a learning organization takes place at four levels:

- Individual level: developing a 'sense of mastery' among employees through facilitating the learning of new personal skills, norms and values.
- Group level: promoting a 'team learning' atmosphere through the use of various kinds of teams such as self-managed groups or cross-functional teams.
- Organizational level: 'building shared vision' which is rooted in the structure and culture of the organization. An organization's structure should inhibit intergroup communication and problem solving, whilst an organization's culture should promote ongoing frame of reference to view challenges and opportunities.
- Inter-organizational level: building a network of organizations to improve effectiveness by imitating and copying each other's distinctive competencies.

Pearn *et al.* (1995) in their colossal work on the learning organization made the point that existing organizations either change or die. The challenge of technology and other changes will indisputably lead to decline unless organizations are changed first. At the centre of this significant transformation is the idea of Double Loop Learning first proposed by Bateson (1972), which is itself a force for change because it challenges the present principles on which organizations are founded.

2.2.6.2 Knowledge Management

Knowledge management involves cultivating a learning culture where organizational members systematically collect knowledge and share it with others in the organization so as to attain better performance (Robbins and Coulter, 2009). Funes and Johnson (1998) described knowledge management as: identifying, consolidating and valuing knowledge; building a knowledge repository; acquiring best practices; retaining, storing and classifying knowledge; sharing and transferring knowledge; and, using and embodying knowledge. Based on this, two ideas can be inferred that are relevant to change management. The first of these is encapsulating knowledge to the most crucial resource in all organizations – people. The second idea is that organizations need information systems which identify, store, disseminate and retrieve the knowledge held within organizations. Hence, Robins and Coulter (2009) argued that knowledge management is an important tool for increasing the level of integration inside an organization, among people, functions, and even divisions.

2.2.6.3 Open Book Management

Case (1998) argued that yet the most free-thinking management programs, like work-teams or making people responsible for their own quality standards, are still based on 'Telling' employees what they should do, although that the work may be done in a very different way. The traditional gap between managerial preoccupations and the rest of the organization may remain as wide and deep as ever. Open book management seeks to fill that gap by 'Telling' people to 'think like owners' and to behave like owners, hence the idea of the partnership between managers and managed. Open book management entails involving the employees in the workplace decisions by opening up the financial statements. The goal here is to get employees see the impact of their decisions and actions on financial results. Change is believed to be achieved through changing the thinking inside the organization by emphasizing transparency, information accessibility, and sharing in strategy and policy making. Consequently, and since most employees don't have the knowledge or background to understand the financials, they have to be taught how to read and understand the organization's financial statements (Robbins and Coulter, 2009). The main argument made here is that it underscores the instrumental role management development and training play in raising managerial effectiveness and capacities. Gary Hamel (2007) argued that organizations need bold management innovation now more than ever. Earlier management approaches or models centred on control and efficiency no longer suffices in a world where adaptability and creativity drive business success. This approach gives almost everyone in an organization to opt in, hence, the question that obsessed many researchers: how do organizations get more out of our

people? The success of the open book management model is considered to some researches like Hamel (2007) the most dramatic example of how a more engaging model can mobilize human effort on large scale.

So far, it has been shown how did the theory of management get bigger from top-down autocracy, through views on the readiness and ability of the organization to recognize people as the most important asset that organizations possess and to endorse change, the potential of the group or team to manage, to the value of information and knowledge and the need to design new organizations.

2.2.7 Implications for Management

All of the theories work for management. There are examples of organizations that realize a high degree of performance through adopting the most autocratic and centralized management methods. There are also examples of organizations that fall short because of poor consultation and participation.

Most of the theories also have weak spots for organizations these days (Pugh, 2000). For instance, scientific management remained a managerial agenda, not an organizational agenda. As shown above, for many writers it was unfair to discard the views of workers while claiming to work in their interests. Even the newest development such as learning organizations which can be perfect for inducing change may very well be very difficult and a long-term undertaking. Similarly, teams in organizations may not work everywhere because they are unable or unwilling to take decisions.

Since any theories you care to think of will all share a different weakness in practice, managers adopt the style which they feel is most appropriate to them. They tend to base this style on personal preference, on what they learn about management theory and on how they see organizations in general (Pugh, 2000).

Next, change management is introduced which was evidently based on modern theories of management rather than old ones, emphasizing the role of the individual as the main vehicle for achieving change and success for the organization.

2.3 Change Management

Perhaps one of the most challenges facing organizations today is change (Burnes, 2003: 627). Change is part of our world. Change has intrigued, scared, excited and mystified us for many centuries and continues to challenge individuals from all walks of life (Szamosi and Duxbury, 2001). In recent years within the business context, however, the term change has also become synonymous with upheaval and chaos (Pritchett, 1996). Consequently, today as never before, organizations are facing an environment that is changing rapidly, and the task facing managers is to help organizations respond and adjust to the changes taking place. In this section, attempts are made to define and discuss the process and various types of change that organizations must undergo, recognize the problems inherent in managing change and the obstacles that must be overcome, describe some approaches and techniques to managing change, as well as other germane issues.

2.3.1 What is Change Management?

Change has been defined in different ways in the literature. Following an exhaustive review of this literature, Van de Ven and Poole (1995: 512) define change as “an empirical observation of a difference in quality of state over time”. Kotter (1990: 77), in his classic statement on management and leadership, argued that “change, by definition requires creating a new system, which in turn always demands leadership”. In line with Kotter’s definition Peter Drucker (2008: 238) described change management as “an abrupt change from one state of matter, from one fundamental structure, to another, such as the change from water to ice”. Alternatively, “change management is crafting a more fluid, focused and adaptive organization so that, no matter what the next big change looks like, your people and processes will continually adjust. And your company will find new and better ways to work for its customers” (Ransom and Knighton, 1996: 16). Probably the most well known definition of change management is the process by which organizations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness (Robbins and Coulter, 2009; Jones, 2004). This definition is best illustrated in Kurt Lewin’s classic three steps change management model. According to Lewin (1951) change can be planned and requires unfreezing the status quo, changing to a new state, and refreezing to make the change permanent- Lewin’s model will be discussed more thoroughly in a later section.

2.3.2 Types of Change

Evolutionary and Revolutionary Change in Organizations

Managers persistently face choices about how best to act in response to the forces of change. Several types of change are available for managers which they can adopt to help them achieve desired end states, however and generally, change falls into two broad categories:

Evolutionary change: A gradual, incremental, and narrowly focused change. Different elements of evolutionary change are described in such writings as Cooper and Markus (1995); Kanter *et al.* (1993); Beer *et al.* (1990); and Leonard-Barton (1988). Evolutionary change does not involve a drastic or sudden altering of the basic nature of an organization but a constant attempt to improve, adapt, and adjust organization incrementally to accommodate to changes taking place (Jones, 2004). The evolutionary change model adapts the socio-technical change approach, where change unfurls as a persistent interaction between hard and soft systems (Jarvenpaa and Stoddard, 1995). The model assumes that people who are the recipients of change must design and implement the change. Hence, change is promoted from within and managed with the current leadership and employees. Change must be adapted to the pace and capabilities of people and hence, milestones and yardsticks are flexible.

The chief advantage of the evolutionary change is that the overall risk of failure is lowered and the continuity of change is maintained because a larger number of existing organizational employees participate in the change taking place; both middle managers and front liners are participating in implementation. Additionally, the transformation of

the radical vision into a string of intermediate goals helps the organization get started with change program that might otherwise seem overwhelming. On the other hand, a major disadvantage of evolutionary change is that it takes a long time to accomplish the vision in which the vision must be kept alive and refreshed as market conditions change.

Some organizations, however, need to make major changes quickly. Faced with drastic, unexpected changes in the environment or with impending disaster, an organization needs to act quickly and decisively. Revolutionary change is called upon.

Revolutionary change: A rapid, dramatic, and broadly focused change. Radical change alters or has repercussions at all levels in the organization. Such a change unfolds rapidly and alters fundamentally the basic assumptions, business practices, culture, and organizational structure (Jarvenpaa and Stoddard, 1995). The revolutionary change theories based on the punctuated equilibrium paradigm (Gersick, 1991; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985) conceptualized radical change to be interspersed between long periods of evolutionary change. Revolutionary theorists described such change to be led by the top level management, be externally imposed, and require external resources and outside viewpoint (Nadler *et al.* 1995). Top level managers must lead the change by offering the right vision, creating the right culture, and building the necessary political alliances (Nadler *et al.* 1995). Revolutionary change promotes heroism and rough decisions, for instance, unremitting cost cutting, downsizing, and organizational structure changes that turn the backbone of the organization. And therefore, most managers oppose the

revolutionary tactics for implementation because they challenge much of what they know about managing and encouraging people.

The major advantage of revolutionary change is that change is accomplished quickly as opposed to the evolutionary change. The disadvantage is that it unduly increases project risk and which could lead to chaos and organizational and individual loss of identity (Clemons, 1995).

Moreover, Penfold (1999) typified organizational change in two basic forms: incremental – common and relatively easy to cope with; and transformational – a rarer, major and difficult leap forward. Where incremental change decreases the risks, and allows time to redeploy resources, overcome political resistance and build understanding and commitment, transformational change can result in an organization that differs significantly in terms of structure, processes, culture and strategy. It may, therefore, result in the creation of an organization that operates in developmental mode – one that continuously learns, adapts and improves (Ackerman, 1997). Another distinction between types of change is made by Weick and Quinn (1999): episodic versus continuous change. According to the researchers, episodic change is infrequent, discontinuous and intentional which often involves replacement of one strategy or program with another. In contrast, continuous change is ongoing, evolving and cumulative. Continuous change is characterized by people constantly adapting and editing ideas they acquire from different sources. The distinction between episodic and continuous change helps clarify thinking about an organization's future development and evolution in relation to its long-term

goals. Orlikowski (1996) argued that few organizations are often in a position to decide unilaterally that they will adopt an exclusively continuous change approach. Therefore, they can capitalize upon many of the principles of continuous change by engendering the flexibility to accommodate and experiment with everyday contingencies, breakdowns, exceptions, opportunities and unintended consequences that punctuate organizational life.

The above section was an attempt to contrast the revolutionary and evolutionary types of organizational change. Cooper and Markus (1995), however, as well as Davenport (1993) maintained that the dichotomy of revolutionary and evolutionary change is false. Davenport argues how an organization requires doing extremely well in incremental change to accomplish radical change and vice versa.

2.3.3 Why Organizations Fail to Change?

The management of change has been an ongoing anxiety for all managers. Research suggests that many of the change processes over the last 25 years have been subject to fundamental errors, forestalling successful management of change. It is now a commonly-held view that organizations are changing faster and in more fundamental ways than ever before (Cummings and Worley, 2001; Carnall, 1999; Kanter, 1997; Kotter, 1996). Most commentators seemed to agree with Hammer and Champy's (1993: 23) observation that "change has become both pervasive and persistent. It is normality". The 1980s era were marked with the revolution of microelectronics, which typified the rapid expansion of computers and computer-based processes into most fields of organizational life. This

phenomena was the subject of great many studies, of which many found that the failure rate of new technology change projects was anywhere between 40 and 70 per cent (A.T. Kearney, 1989; New, 1989; McCracken, 1986; Bessant and Haywood, 1985; Voss, 1985). Therefore, no matter the efforts of the change profile, the rate of failure is alarming. As shown in Table 2.1, Kotter (1996) attempted to identify the causes of failure. More striking is that most of the items on the list represent a failure of management.

Table 2.1

Eight Errors Common to Organizational Change Efforts

Kotter's Eight Errors Common to Organizational Change Efforts
1. Allowing too much complacency
2. Failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition
3. Understanding the power of vision
4. Under-communicating the vision by factor of 10 (or 100 or even 1,000)
5. Permitting obstacles to block the new vision
6. Failing to create short-term wins
7. Declaring victory too soon
8. Neglecting to anchor changes firmly in the corporate culture

Source: Kotter (1996: 16)

Furthermore, other notable researchers agree with Kotter in their pursuit of identifying failures. These failures were traced in retrospection to a number of factors, including

unsuitably conceived future states, opposition by organizational members, flawed execution strategies during transition periods, or simply a lack of knowledge regarding important areas of change management on the part of management (Burke, 1994; Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992; Kanter *et al.*, 1992; Tichy, 1983; Burke and Goodstein, 1980).

While some of these problems can be attributed to the content of a change initiative itself, issues of resistance or implementation throughout the organizational system can be attributed to poor management of the change process. For that reason, several major theoretical influences on current approaches to the management of change processes in organizations will be discussed in some detail.

2.3.4 Different Approaches to Change

Managers at all levels and in almost all organizations face the problem of getting the organization to change. There are, however, a number of theoretical approaches (Analoui, 2007; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Kotter, 1996; Judson, 1991; Tichy, 1983; Lewin, 1951) from which managers and advisors currently obtain their knowledge about the process of change in organizations. This section will consider four models that suggest different processes for managers to follow when implementing change.

2.3.4.1 Lewin's Three-Stage Process

Research in implementing change has its roots in the early work of Lewin (1951), wherein he conceptualized change as a three-step process: (1) unfreezing the organization from its present state, (2) making the change in the organization, and (3) refreezing the organization which ensures the new levels of behaviour will be relatively secure against reversion to prior modes of operation. According to Analoui (2007), for the first step to take place the assumption is that old attitudes and behaviours must be unsatisfactory and should be abandoned (unfreezing). Next, people will start searching for new behaviours that will satisfy them (Change). Finally, the new behaviours will be adopted (Refreezing). Given the kind of environment that managers in today's organizations face, this model no longer presents an appropriate mechanism for managing change (Robbins and Coulter, 2009). Lewin's three-step process treats change only as a break in the organization's balance state. The status quo has been disturbed and change is necessary to institute a new balance state. However, a stable environment isn't what most managers face today.

2.3.4.2 Judson Model

The Judson (1991) model of managing change is comprised of five phases: (1) analyzing and planning the change; (2) communicating the change; (3) gaining acceptance of new behaviours; (4) changing from the status quo to a desired state; and (5) consolidating and institutionalizing the new state. In this model, Judson (1991) emphasized the importance of anticipating reactions to change and methods for minimizing resistance to change efforts. Finding alternative media for effective communication with employees and

transmission of the change message is crucial for change to succeed. In addition, developing a sound and workable incentive programs can help the organization achieve its desired state.

2.3.4.3 Kotter's Eight Steps Model

In contrast to Judson's (1991) five phases model, Kotter (1996) proposed eight steps for change managers to pursue in implementing essential changes on how an organization operates: (1) establishing a sense of urgency while keeping complacency at its lowest levels possible; (2) creating a guiding coalition of – one with the right composition, level of trust, and shared objectives; (3) developing an effective vision and a strategy to attain desired goals; (4) communicating the change vision using a variety of communication channels to gain understanding and commitment; (5) empowering employees for broad-based action by attacking/changing structures, skills, systems, policies, and procedures in ways that will facilitate implementation; (6) Generating short-term wins to provide evidence that sacrifices are worth it, to reward people, to help fine tune vision and strategies, to undermine cynics, to keep bosses on board, and to build momentum; (7) consolidating gains and producing more change in other areas, structures, systems, and procedures that aren't consistent with the vision; and (8) anchoring the new approaches in the organization's culture by publicizing the link between the change efforts and organizational success – making change stick.

Kotter's eight steps are valuable and informative in identifying the actions necessary to accomplish organizational change, which is why Kotter's book entitled 'Leading Change' became one of the most influential books in this respect.

2.3.4.4 Three-step System Approach

Analoui's (1990) proposed model for change consists of three interrelated stages: preparation, implementation, and maintenance. Analoui emphasizes that change must be considered in the context of its technical, economic, legal and cultural environment as well as the operational, technical and managerial capacities. These factors will most likely impact the development of the three stages thus making it inevitable for managers to ignore their integral part for a successful implementation of any change program. The successful implementation of this strategic approach relies heavily on the completion of each stage in its turn, thus, providing the foundation for the next stage to follow through.

According to this model, management should have a holistic view of the change process where each stage is given sufficient time and consideration. At the preparation stage, adequate momentum is required for the change program to 'take off'. Managers at this stage should carefully observe, examine, and initiate the need for change at the right time, in the right place, for the right people. According to this model, the implementation stage depend on applying a balanced approach regarding the speed of implementing the change program (highly recommended) – not too slow and certainly not too fast. Analoui argues that many change programs where doomed because of too much emphasis on quick implementation rather than adopting a balanced approach. Finally, a period of

'maintenance' is required to make the change stick. This stage can be referred to as the internalization of the required change. Table 2.2 gives a summary of the different models highlighted in the previous sections.

To sum up, it is important when seeking to bring about organizational change that the causes of failure and guidelines for success to be well understood. However, it is also important that those who lead organizational change have the skills, competencies and aptitude to implement the vision and strategy. For that reason, the next section will draw attention to the importance of effective leadership in guiding organizational change.

Table 2.2

A Summary of the Change Management Models

Model	Developed by	Description	Stages Involved
Lewin's Three-stage Process	Kurt Lewin (1951)	A conceptualization of change in three distinct stages. The assumption in this model is that organizations go through change as a result of the current unsatisfactory state and their desires to reach a satisfactory state.	1-Unfreezing 2-Change 3-Refreezing
Judson Model	Arnold Judson (1991)	Judson in his five stages model for change has emphasized the importance of overcoming resistance to change as a way to make change happen in organizations. Lot of emphasis on effective communication.	1-Analyzing/planning change 2-Communicating change 3-Gaining acceptance of new behaviours 4-Changing from current state to a desired state 5-Consolidate and Institutionalize the new state
Kotter's Eight Steps Model	John Kotter (1996)	Kotter's model involving a detailed approach of eight steps is considered highly influential in instilling a culture of constant change. Emphasis is placed on achieving milestones leading to a comprehensive change.	1-Establishing a sense of urgency 2-Creating a guiding coalition 3-Developing an effective vision 4-Communicating the change vision 5-Empowering employees 6-Generating short-term wins 7-Consolidating gains 8-Anchoring new approaches
Three-step System Approach	Farhad Analoui (1990)	Analoui's model viewed change as a system made up of three interrelated steps. In his model he emphasized the importance of several factors found in the specific environment of the organization thus demanding a more holistic view of change.	1-Preparation 2-Implementation 3-Maintenance

Source: Adapted from Kotter, 1996; Judson, 1991; Analoui, 1990; Lewin, 1951

2.3.5 Leading Change

Against the backdrop of intense globalization, deregulation the rapid pace of technological innovation, a growing knowledge workforce, and shifting social and demographic trends, few would argue that a major objective of management today is the leadership of organizational change (Jackson, 1997; Stace and Dunphy, 1996; Limerick and Cunnington, 1993; Kanter *et al.*, 1992; Naisbitt and Aburdene, 1990).

One of the most comprehensive leadership theories of organizational change is the theory of transformational and transactional leadership. Burns (1978) was the first in developing the initial ideas on transformational and transactional leadership in the political context. Bass (1985) further developed those ideas and introduced them into the realm of the organization.

In the transactional approach to leadership, leaders provide rewards in exchange for subordinates' performance, thus an exchange-like relationship develops between leaders and subordinates (Eisenbach *et al.*, 1999). Transformational leadership behaviours go beyond transactional leadership and motivate followers to identify themselves with the leader's vision and sacrifice their self-interest for that of the group or the organization (Bass, 1985). Bass's idea of transformational leadership involves charisma or idealized influence (building trust and ensuring that people are able to get on with their work without interference from above), intellectual stimulation (taking care of the people who bring contentious issues into the open: they may have an important perspective), and individual consideration (adopting a supportive stance towards those going through change, with a demonstrated understanding that the emotional component of individual

change needs to be acknowledged and respected; enabling people to attain new skills, knowledge, and behaviour (Eisenbach *et al.*, 1999). Research carried out by Tichy and Devanna (1990) showed that transformational leaders engage in a process that involves a sequence of phases: recognizing the need for change, creating a new vision, and then institutionalizing the change. This approach to leadership is very much shared among other researchers which also included charismatic and visionary leadership (House, 1995).

Yet from a different perspective, Mabey (2012) proposes that further examining the development of and discourses on leadership, provided more theoretical clarity and transparency within this area, will have far reaching benefits for all concerned stakeholders.

2.3.5.1 Reality Suggests A Synthesis

A need is present to integrate perspectives about leadership to gain a greater understanding of how to effectively enact change (Eisenbach *et al.*, 1999). It is widely believed that leadership and change literatures both confirm that certain transformational leadership characteristics are distinctively suitable for leading certain types of change. For instance, research in the leadership area supports the idea that transformational leadership is better for non-routine situations (Bass, 1985). Additionally, Pauer and Eastman (1997) suggested that organizations will be more receptive to transformational leadership when adaptation –as opposed to efficiency- is the goal. On the other hand, if the goal is more specific and requires maintaining the status quo transactional leadership may be a better fit that focuses on clarification of goals, follower

compliance through incentives and rewards with an emphasis on task fulfilment (Bass, 1985).

By and large, transactional and transformational leadership should not be seen as contrasting approaches to getting things done in the organization. Transformational leadership, however, is built on top of transactional leadership. Robbins and Coulter (2009) viewed transformational leadership as producing levels of employee effort and performance that go beyond what would occur with a transactional leadership approach alone. Moreover, transformational leadership is more than charisma since the transformational leader attempts to instil in followers the ability to question not only established views but those held by the leader (Avolio and Bass, 1985).

2.3.6 Resistance to the Idea of Change

Resistance to change has long been identified as a seriously important issue that can influence the success or otherwise of an organizational change effort. In an effort to define resistance to change, Schein (1988) believed that it is one of the ubiquitous of organizational phenomena. Other researchers like Ansoff (1988) defined resistance as a versatile phenomenon, which brings in unexpected delays, costs and instabilities into the process of a strategic change, whereas Zaltman and Duncan (1977) defined resistance as a behaviour that serves to preserve the status quo in the face of pressure to change the status quo. Thus, resistance in an organization setting is an expression of reservation which normally arises as a response or reaction to change.

Research done by Hannan and Freeman (1989) indicated that one of the main reasons for some organizations' inability to change is organizational inertia – the tendency of an organization to maintain the status quo. Accordingly, resistance or impediments to change that cause inertia are found at the organization level (power and conflict, differences in functional orientation, organization structure, and organizational culture), group level (different norms for different groups, group cohesiveness, and groupthink) and individual level (feelings regarding the uncertainty and insecurity of outcomes, and habit). Similarly, Tichy and Devanna (1986) recognized three reasons for organizational resistance to change, namely: technical barriers (habit and inertia), political reasons (threats to coalitions may signal leadership problems), and cultural reasons (lack of climate's support for change, regressing to old days of operations). Generally, resistance to change occurs at all levels of an organization. It manifests itself as organizational politics and power struggles between individuals and groups, differing perceptions of the need for change, and so on.

Resistance is often viewed by managers as the enemy of change, the foe which must be overcome if a change effort is to be successful (Schein, 1988). Jones (2004) made clear those tactics that managers can use to overcome resistance to change which include education and communication, participation and empowerment, facilitation, bargaining and negotiation, manipulation, and coercion. In the same vein, Analoui (2007) drew our attention to the idea that the desire for a new experience underlies much of human behaviour. This realization will help managers in overcoming resistance. A somewhat opposing approach to managing resistance to change can be found in Judson (1993) and

Spotnitz (1969) suggestion that resistance must not be overcome but rather be supported until the individual is emotionally educated and contented to give up resistance; a situation in which organizations can successfully manage change. This approach has its roots in the notion that it is a fallacy to consider change itself to be innately good. Change can only be assessed by its consequences. Resistance, therefore, plays a crucial role in drawing attention to aspects of change that may be out of place, not well thought through, or maybe simply wrong. "Resistance is what keeps us from attaching ourselves to every boneheaded idea that comes along" (Maurer 1996: 57).

To sum up, change management is a non-stop process that has important insinuation for organizational effectiveness. An organization and its members must be persistently attentive for changes from within the organization and from the outside environment and they must learn how to adapt to change swiftly and effectively. Over and over again, the revolutionary types of change that result from restructuring and reengineering are essential only because an organization and its managers overlooked or were ignorant of changes in the environment and did not make incremental changes as required. The more an organization changes, the easier and more effective the change process will become. Developing and managing a plan for change are fundamental to an organization's triumph. This section has provided a detailed description on transactional leadership and transformational leadership and how integrating the two approaches can be influential if the organization intends to succeed in managing change. In addition, an insightful analysis of four approaches to managing change was presented. Yet, unlike the laws of mathematics these approaches are neither foreordained nor eternal. Whiplash change,

short-lived advantages, technological breakthroughs, treasonable competitors, fragmented markets, supreme customers, defiant shareholders-- these 21st century challenges are testing the design limits of organizations around the world and are exposing the limitations of change management approach or model that has struggled to keep up with the times. The final part in this section has illustrated the sources of the different levels of resistance to change that could occur in any organization that experiences change.

2.4 Management Development and Training¹

2.4.1 Definition and Importance of Management Development and Training

When managing change, managers can find themselves encountered with infinite challenges and double-binds (Dopson and Neumann, 1998) as they endeavour to muddle through increased accountability and empowerment, the need for innovativeness and efficiency, the requirement to act locally and think globally and so forth. In an effort to face these challenges, company backed management training and development has increasingly been seen as an essential stage for 'programmatic change' (Beer *et al.*, 1990). Management development contributes to the success of the organization by supporting the organization to grow the managers it needs to face its present and future needs (Armstrong, 1999). It develops managers' performance, offers them development opportunities, and provides for management succession. Dessler (2005: 285) defined management development as "any effort to advance current and future managerial performance by communicating knowledge, altering attitudes, or increasing skills." It thus involves in-house training like courses, coaching and rotational assignments, professional programs like certified seminars, and university programs like executive MBA programs.

¹ The terms "training" and "development" are not standardized in the field of organizational behaviour but are used differently by different authors. In our discussion these terms will be used interchangeably. "Training usually refers to current needs, deals with specific task requirements, is more factual and more job oriented. "Development" refers to predicted needs, deals with broad organizational requirements and complex tasks, focuses on decision making and human relations skills, and is more man oriented. "Training" usually refers to activities required by the lower levels and "development" refers to activities required by middle and upper levels. Since this study relates solely to managerial levels, these distinctions are not relevant and both terms will be used synonymously. Campbell *et al.* (1970) say that these terms may be distinguished on the basis of 'either the subject matter involved or the level of the organization from which the participants are drawn'.

For instance, management development is seen as vital to the process of culture change programs that seeks to implant new organizational attitudes and values (Willmott, 1993).

To the contrary, Coopers and Lybrand (1985) argued that the link between competitive success and management development and training is vaguely seen by organizations, except in so far as training was perceived as profit reducing tool. Moreover, Hussey's (1988) study suggested that the discussion of management development and training at board level, though seldom, were more 'illusory than real'. Berry (1990), in the same way argued that management development programs are less and less influencing the organization's ability to compete and succeed notwithstanding the significant expenditures on such programs. Yet, In a later study made by Coopers and Lybrand (1992: 9), showed that organizations engaged in management development programs have experienced several benefits including 'increased turnover and gross margins, a more customer-oriented approach and improved ability to respond to change'. Additional studies have also showed how management development programs can add directly to competitive advantage (Downham *et al.*, 1992; Carter and Lumsden, 1988).

Hence, Lees (1992: 90) argued that "management development is an ambiguous concept, attracting multiple and often conflicting definitions, and conveying different things to different people both in the literature and in organizations". Alternatively, Storey (1989a, 1989b) suggested that conceptualizations about management development are closely wrapped up with what it is for, because, clearly, it is not an end in itself. Hence, to a large extent, conceptualizations have to be inferred from treatments of its objectives.

Accordingly, Garavan *et al.* (1999) made a distinction between traditional definitions that placed emphasis on formal, planned, and deliberate aspects of the management development process, and more contemporary definitions that saw management development as generic, including formal and informal processes. In their study, they have also exposed a number of definitions by different researchers that emphasized different aspects of management development. For instance, Mumford (1993) saw management development as an aggregate ongoing progression of informal and unplanned processes; Lees (1992) emphasized the ultimate goal of management development – improving the management performance in the context of change; Storey (1989a, 1989b) suggested that any management development program should augment capabilities whilst leaving enough room for innovativeness and uncertainty. Torrington and Hall (1988) suggested a more futuristic view of management development that assumes the future roles of managers.

The importance of management development has been widely acknowledged in the various reviews of management education and training and has been linked with the attainment of several competitive advantages. Recent challenges in organization settings, especially “contracting out, de-layering and empowerment (Winterton and Winterton, 1997: 7)” are making the need for management development particularly strong.

Furthermore, as stated in their study undertaken on behalf of the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE, 2003: 35):

Managers' view of this situation is exacerbated by persistent structural unemployment, competitive pressures from low-wage economies, rapid technological change and standards in education which are inappropriate to the needs of employers. This dynamic environment demands a process of continuous development as stated in the Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD).

Having said this, Management development is therefore a very important aspect of the organization for several reasons. The main reason is that promotion from within is a major source of management talent (Dessler, 2005). In the same way, management development facilitates organizational prosperity by preparing employees and current managers to efficiently take on higher-level positions. It also helps to socialize management trainees by developing in them the right values and attitudes for working in the organization (Dessler, 2005; Clarke, 1999).

2.4.2 Strategic Human Resource Development

It is of equal importance before discussing the strategic context of management development and training within an organization to shed some light on human resource development in general, wherein the function of management development and training actually falls.

The use of human resource development as a term in many different contexts has led to considerable confusion with various bodies applying the term to widely varying activities.

Nadler and Nadler (1989) defined human resource development as planned learning experiences provided by the employer, in a particular period of time for the reason of increasing work performance and allowing growth for individuals. The American Society for Training and Development (1990) stated that human resource development incorporates training and development, organization development and career development. Nevertheless, there are some researchers who would exclude the latter two activities. Further definitions by Cacioppe *et al.* (1990) and Hall (1984) emphasized the strategic scope. Garavan (1993) defined it as the strategic management of training development and management /professional education interventions aimed at assisting the achievement of organizational goals, though at the same time ensuring the full deployment of the knowledge and skills of employees. All the above definitions give rise to a certain conclusion: strategic human resource development must be viewed as a proactive organization activity not as a reactive activity.

Human resource development has served the purpose of helping employees develop their personal and organizational skills, knowledge, and abilities. Advances in human resource development assumptions and philosophies have kept pace with the increasingly sophisticated information and production technologies that continue to spread throughout different industries (Swanson and Torraco, 1995). During this period of swift technological development, the human resource development function could be depended on to support a wide assortment of business initiatives that required competent employees. Critical business issues, from new marketing strategies to innovations in production technology, were based on, among other factors, the

performance capabilities of those expected to use these new work systems. As a factor integral to business success, employee abilities itself has been expanded through effective programs of employee development. In short, the development of workforce abilities through human resource development has been vital to maximum business performance (Swanson and Torraco, 1995).

Yet today's business climate necessitates that human resource development not only support the business strategies of organizations, but that it assumes a central role in formulating the business strategy. Organizational success increasingly depends on an organization's ability to use employee skills as a factor in formulating a business strategy (Analoui, 1999b). Luomo (2000) agreed with this view and suggests that viewing human resource development as a key to formulating and implementing organizational strategy is considered the key to sustained competitive advantage. Likewise, Watkins (1987) proposed that development should aim at developing strategic capacity rather than achieving present business goals. Furthermore, Analoui (2007) suggested that this strategic view of human resource development imposes higher expectations on top management and human resource for greater involvement and integration, both horizontally and vertically, throughout the organization.

So the question is whether strategic human resources development can contribute to the development of managers? Assuming a resource based view of the organization; strategic human resources provide a reservoir of competencies from which organizations can draw for their survival and sustained competitive advantage (Boxall and Gilbert, 2007).

2.4.3 The Strategic Context of Management Development and Training

Historically, much of management development focused on teaching technical skills. Today, such technical training and development is no longer sufficient (Wiley, 1993). As Ellis and Gale (2001) put it, training has to make sense in terms of the organization's strategic goals and objectives. No longer are training and development traditional goals the focus of training and development; proper identification of strategic goals and objectives and the skills and knowledge needed to achieve them are the basis for launching training and management development needs. Hussey (1988: 69) suggested that most management development and training are incorrectly focused and called for:

A mental shift from the common idea that training should be for the improvement of the individual because this will benefit the firm, to the concept that training should be for the benefit of the firm and this will benefit the individual.

Hussey agrees with Ellis and Gale by emphasizing the importance of assessing training and development needs against corporate requirements, if management development and training is to contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals. Many researchers, such as Robinson (1994), Michael (1993), and Burgoyne (1988) agreed with Hussey on the need for management development and training to be linked with organization strategy. Fonda (1989) provided a list of the far-reaching nature of management capabilities. The list can be recapitulated into the ability of the organization to attain its strategic objectives that depends largely on the abilities and skills of its managers in meeting particular situations and contingent needs.

2.4.3.1 Management Development: Instrumental for Managerial Effectiveness

As Peter Drucker (2008: xi) put it right here, 'the very best leaders are first and foremost effective managers'. Managerial effectiveness is fundamental for the survival and growth of the organization. However, Analoui (1999a) argued that even with the substantial consideration owed to managerial effectiveness in the last few decades, the subject remains misunderstood and beset with confusion. Despite all of the bewilderment that surrounds the concept of managerial effectiveness, many researchers clearly state and agree that the term 'effectiveness' is concerned with 'doing the right things' (Robbins and Coulter, 2009; Drucker, 2008; Analoui, 2007). Hence, it is argued that effectiveness should be linked to some purpose or objective. Having said this, managerial effectiveness can be measured in terms of goal attainment or task fulfilment, and it has become widely acknowledged that organizational success – achieving organizational goals – depend very much on the calibre of managers and their effectiveness.

According to Drucker (2008), the complexity that signifies organizations of today and tomorrow – partnerships, joint ventures, alliances, outsourcing contractors and various others – necessitates of the manager highly developed skills and practices, both in his or her role as manager and as person professional. Therefore, Drucker highlighted three interconnected skills and practices: specific skills that must be acquired in six different areas – decision making, people decisions, communications, budgeting, measurement and controls, and information literacy; particular tasks which their performance leads to organizational effectiveness; and personal skills and practices that develop people's effectiveness both inside the organization and outside. In the same way, Analoui (2007)

asserts that managerial effectiveness results from a combination of personal characteristics, dimension of the job which involves meeting expectations and satisfying requirements, and relating to the external and internal environment.

The link between managerial effectiveness and management development becomes even stronger when levels of employee turnover, absenteeism, lower productivity are attributed to managerial ineffectiveness. “The years since 1950 have seen a boom in management development within the wider boom in management as a whole (Drucker, 2007: 251).” Organizational success rely heavily on the quality and soundness of decisions made within the organization; unless management selects, develops and tests the individuals who will have to take care of these decisions, organizations are doomed to failure. Handy (1999: 222) reminded us that “although individuals only appear as costs in the formal accounts, they are assets in the sense that they are, or should be, a productive resource; a resource that needs maintenance and proper utilization...an output greater than its costs”. This confirms the argument made by Gold *et al.* (2010) that managerial effectiveness can be manipulated and controlled via management development and training that is based on the genuine needs of the organization and managers alike.

2.4.3.2 The Systems Thinking

Modern systems theory offers organizations with a platform for understanding and managing the interactions and interrelationships that exist between the organization, its stakeholders, subsystems and its environment. Rather than seeing the organization and its subsystems as cut offs, autonomous and self-referential, the focus switches to

synthesizing and analyzing the multifarious and active patterns of relations that are found there (Doyle, 2000). Equipped with much understanding and admiration of these active connections and patterns of causal relationships, those who manage are presented with a potentially powerful and practical tool to deal with growing complexity and framework for meaningful and practical intervention (Morgan, 1997; Stacey, 1996; Senge, 1990). Such thinking can be usefully applied to management development (Doyle, 1997 and 1994).

The potential richness and efficacy of the systems perspective as an informing and realistic platform with applications in the field of management development has been acknowledged by a number of researchers (Ready *et al.*, 1994; Hitt, 1987). McClelland (1994) suggested that management development is viewed as one of the key organizational processes aimed at delivering successful organizational adaptation and renewal. Fulmer (1992), however, warned that success will only occur if management development programs are modified and implemented in ways that are harmonious with the changing needs and potential of the new organization. Storey (1990) in the same line emphasized the context of management development because it shapes and influences the way development is formulated and enacted.

Presenting management development as a subsystem that functions within the wider organizational system admits a constant and active interaction with a multitude of internal and external variables. Modelling these activities is one way to attain a better understanding and provides a structure for designing useful intervention strategies.

Garavan *et al.* (1999) suggested that a systems perspective leads to the development of a wide range of strategies, policies and plans; it allows the concept of organizational development through management development; it promotes productivity and responsiveness; it results in better appraisal of performance and overall programs effectiveness; and it contributes to the formation of a positive learning culture allowing the encircling of generative learning.

2.4.4 Management Development and Training: A Process

The speed of change presently experienced by organizations is pressing towards a substantial shift in organizational form and must, for that reason, compel a change in the way these organizations are managed (Clarke, 1999). Hence, the skills and capabilities of managers must be developed further to be able to handle and survive the rapid change experienced by organizations effectively.

Over the past decades, the process of developing and training managers has come under great pressure and gone through various changes in an effort to respond quickly and effectively to the changing conditions. Harrison (1992) suggested three important management development activities. The first, 'analysis of present and future management needs', identifies the specific skills and competences managers will need to meet future demands and challenges arising from deregulation, digitization, plummeting communication costs and globalization. In the second activity, 'assessment of skills and competences', Harrison suggested that the assessment of skills and competences must be carried out by performance management processes against these needs identified in the

first step, both current and future ones. The third activity is to 'meeting these needs'. This step can be summarized into the production of policy, strategy and plans to meet those needs. Dessler (2005) on the other hand, has recommended a five step training and development process. Although Dessler's (2005: 270) process overlaps with that of Harrison, this process has some distinguishing features:

1. Needs analysis
2. Instructional design (producing the training material)
3. Validation (program trial)
4. Implementation
5. Evaluation (assessing the success and failures of the program)

Lees (1992), however, conceptualized the management development process as 'the intersection of three variables – individual career, organizational succession, and organizational performance. Having said this, each step or activity of the development process is perceived differently by different parties which creates multiple assumptions about integrating the variables. To surmount this barrier, Davis (1990) suggested the applying of the stakeholder perspectives which consider responsibility for management development and training to be shared between the specialists of human resource, the trainees' superiors, and the individual manager and other stakeholders that have an interest in the process. Furthermore, Mabey and Salaman (1995), Doyle (1994), Mumford (1993) and Margerison (1991), all agreed that if ownership and commitment to the development process is to be achieved, the organization should facilitate consultation

and involvement of various interest-groups, create a supportive culture, and attain senior and middle managers support.

2.4.5 Formal versus Informal Approaches

Before exploring the different approaches available to managers to choose from, it is worth saying that development and training is futile if the participant lacks the ability or motivation to benefit from it. Arnold *et al.* (1998) noted that successful management development programs can be an elusive creature. Two main reasons for this which are often cited: first, is the need to link the development needs of the organization to the development needs of the individual manager; and second, is the over-reliance on classroom learning than that of experiential learning (Mullins, 2002; Yukl, 2002; Lessem, 1998; Storey, 1989; Burgoyne and Germaine, 1984).

It has been said that managers learn to manage by managing – in other words, ‘experience is the best teacher’. Although differences in the ability to learn may vary from one manager to the other because some managers are naturally more capable or more highly motivated than others, a study by Saari *et al.* (1988) provided useful information in the form of percentages for techniques reported by human resource managers as being the most important means of development in their firms. Table 2.3 shows the respective techniques and their percentages of importance.

Table 2.3

Popularity of Various Development and Training Techniques

Means of Development	Percentage Reporting Most Important (%)
On-the-job experience	68.2
Coaching by superiors	20.9
In-house classroom	4.7
Rotational assignment	2.4
University programs	2.3
Consultant programs	1.1
Other	1.1

Source: Saari *et al.* (1988: 741)

By far, the most popular form of management development is on the job experiences. Generally, on-the-job training methods include Job rotation, coaching, and action learning and research insight (Dessler, 2005). Nevertheless, to argue that managers learn best on the job should not lead to the conclusion that managers are best left entirely to their own devices or that management development should be haphazard process (Armstrong, 1999). Armstrong distinguished between formal and informal approaches to management development. Accordingly, formal approaches to management development include: on the job through coaching, counselling, monitoring and feedback to identify and satisfy development needs; through work experience such as job rotation, job enlargement, participating in teams, and action learning; external and internal training courses; and, laying out personal development plans. The formal approaches are organized around a list of development needs which have been defined as being appropriate for managers in the organization.

Informal approaches depend on the everyday work and its association with learning experiences of managers. Armstrong argued that this approach to management development is the most powerful form of learning. This approach assumes that managers learn every time they are encountered with an unusual problem or an unfamiliar task. Furthermore, this type of experiential learning may come to some managers naturally while to others this might seem difficult. This is why Armstrong suggested that an integrated approach of formal and informal approaches to management development can be more judicious.

2.4.5.1 Competence-Based Management Development

Traditional training programs have in general demonstrated to be insufficient at meeting the needs of the reengineered organization (Pepitone, 1995). Competency-based programs have emerged as one important training and development strategy in today's knowledge-based economy. Competency-based training and development is built around the fundamental principle of demonstrating capability (Naquin and Holton, 2006). Competency-based management development uses competency frameworks, maps or profiles as a means of identifying and expressing development needs and pointing the way to self-managed learning programs or the provision of learning opportunities by the organization (Armstrong, 1999). Storey (1989a: 5) advocated that the competence based approach to management development has experienced wide popularity and "work on refining competency profiles is currently at the cutting edge of activity". Furthermore, O'Donnell and Garavan (1997) suggested that competence based programs of training

and development are now commonplace within organizations. A definition of the term 'competency' made by Jones and Woodcock (1985) subsumed the traditional categories of knowledge, skills, attitudes and implies effectiveness, while Boyatzis (1982: 21) defined competence as "an underlying characteristic of a person – motive, trait, skill aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses – which results in the effective performance of a job." Additionally, a competence based program is typically viewed as a mechanism for linking management development with organizational strategies (Le Deist *et al.*, 2005). Hence, a competence based program has become a descriptive tool for identification of skills required to perform effectively towards the attainment of organizational goals.

However, competence based systems have attracted considerable criticism both in philosophical and practical terms. Stewart and Hamlin (1992) based their criticism on the premises that competence based models are too functional and behaviour oriented; too bureaucratic and overly simplistic. Competence based systems according to Ashworth and Sexton (1990) were unable to cover all types of relevant behaviour or mental activity satisfactorily. For this reason, Canning (1990) suggested that competence based systems are incapable of covering the complex, contextual, contingent, and ever-changing nature of the manager's role. Given the criticism directed at competence based programs, they commonly remained embraced by many organizations because they can easily assimilate learning activities or initiatives into the daily business operations (Naquin and Holton, 2006).

Management development strategies have become more dynamic, learner related rather than teacher dominated (Margerison, 1991). With a move away from the traditional approaches, there now appears to be a demand for strategies that focus on organizational and individual needs (Beddowes, 1994). Accordingly, Armstrong (1999: 547) suggested that competence based management development programs may focus on a limited number of core generic competences, tailored to the individual manager needs as well as moving the organization forward. For example:

- *Strategic capability* to capture the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and challenges within the organization and surrounding environment;
- *Change management capability* to foresee, plan and implement change;
- *Team management capability* to promote teamwork spirit
- *Relationship management* to effectively gather and distribute information through local and global networking;
- *International management* to understand how managing in different countries may differ.

2.4.6 Organizational Learning and Management Development

For many years, research on management learning has contributed to the development of organizational theory and the transformation in strategic management (Lopez *et al.*, 2006). Sadler-Smith *et al.* (2001) further developed this by saying that over the past ten years this research has increased tremendously. Although many definitions vary in their

description of management learning there seems to be, however, a consensus to treat management learning as a process by which new knowledge or insight is developed by an organization (Chiva and Alegre, 2005). For instance, Nevis *et al.* (1995) defined management learning as the aptitude or practice within organizations to sustain or advance performance based on its experience. Klimencki and Lasseben (1998) described management learning as information induced alterations in organizational knowledge which enable organizations to find new ways for survival. And Adler-Smith *et al.* (2001) recognized management learning as a response to internal and external stimuli which requires managers to develop or acquire new behaviours or skills, thus leading to permanent change in collective behaviour. Therefore, the aim of management learning is to systematically create, acquire, and integrate knowledge to develop the resources and capabilities of the organization.

In this regard, Lopez *et al.* (2006) made three assumptions about management learning: first, management learning is a process for development by ways of new initiatives; secondly, more emphasis should be placed on the individual and their associated interactions; and thirdly, the learning process has recognizable stages. Alternatively, Huber (1991) summarized the process in three stages: knowledge acquisition, knowledge sharing and knowledge utilization. Another variation, which is quite similar to Huber's view, is that of Slater and Narvar (1995) who saw learning taking place from four dimensions: information acquisition, information dissemination, shared interpretation and development of organizational memory. On the other hand, a study by Schilling and Kluge (2009) identified several impediments to organizational learning from the

perspective of the 41 framework (individual, group, and organization level with bidirectional linkages amongst).

The relationship between management development and learning is very unique since individuals play a fundamental part in the development of organizational learning. Management development activities should contribute to the capacity of the organization to learn by facilitating the development of organization-specific competencies that result in complex social relationships based on the company's history and culture (Barney, 1992). Consequently, there are a number of management development activities that are mainly pertinent to the endorsement of learning as a core activity.

A more recent construct that has been attracting the attention of many scholars is 'absorptive capacity'. Sun and Anderson (2010) draw on the relationship between absorptive capacity and organizational learning. The researchers argue that absorptive capacity, for the most part, is viewed as an antecedent to organizational learning in which organizations recognize, assimilate, and apply it to commercial ends.

2.4.6.1 Action Learning

Mintzberg (1973) argued that managers learn on their feet in the day-to-day enactment of their managerial roles. It is commonly accepted that experience is the basis for knowledge. The purpose of action learning is that it converts the tacit or implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge (Raelin, 1997; Nonaka, 1994). Therefore, action learning attempts to modify conventional learning approaches available through

classroom and training events. Action learning which was originated by Professor Reg Revans in the 1940s (Revans, 1945) was based on the assumption that people learn most effectively when working on real-time organizational problems (Revans, 1980).

Action learning is an educational tool useful in a group setting that seeks to spawn learning from human dealings arising from engagement in the solution of real-time work problems (Pedler, 1996). In its origins, learning results in the independent contributions of programmed instruction (given P) and spontaneous questioning (given Q) (Revans, 1982). Revans approach implicitly offered the opportunity to integrate 'rule based knowledge (P)' with 'experiential knowledge (Q)' through reflection. Pedler (1996) argued that action learning works best if it is composed of management participants who (1) care about the problem, (2) are given the authority to work on it, and (3) are dedicated to searching about the most essential suppositions behind their practices. The critical part is that participants face the constraints of organizational reality, leading oftentimes to the unearthing of unconventional and innovative means to realize their objectives.

Faced with the challenge of transferring training (newly learned knowledge and skills) to the work place, which encouraged several researchers to understand the transfer process (e.g. Cheng and Hampson (2008) focused on the role of trainees while examining this intricate relationship); action learning is a win-win individual and company approach to learning and development, which at the same time is capable of resolving significant business, organizational and social problems. Just as kids learn to ride a bike only by

actually riding one, action learning is based on the premise that people learn about work at work.

2.4.7 The Role of Evaluation

The purpose of this section is to emphasize the importance of evaluating the effectiveness of a management development and training program. It is crucial to evaluate development and training programs to assess the effectiveness in producing the learning outcomes specified when the development and training intervention was planned and to indicate where improvements or changes are required to make the program more effective. Hamblin (1974: 25) defined evaluation as “any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of training programs, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information.” Similarly, Goldstein (1986) defined evaluation as the systematic compilation of information concerning the success of management development programs. Thus, according to these definitions, it can be surmised that the aim of any evaluation process for trainers, is to continuously monitor the programs and to highlight points of intervention for program improvement.

Although, evaluation of management development programs has relatively- not so long- started to attract the attention of academics and practitioners; it is not a new phenomenon. Kirkpatrick’s (1959) method for evaluating training and development programs has been used for more than four decades to assess training effectiveness. Yet, a study made by Sogunro (1997) indicated that organizations are not spending enough time evaluating the effectiveness of their management development programs. It seems

that many organizations take for granted that management development programs will yield in improved skills (Collins, 2002). Furthermore, Doyle (1994) observed that systematic evaluation seldom occurs within organizations. Making causal relationships between investment in management development and future management performance and organization success is difficult. Thomson *et al.* (1997) argued that efforts have been made to articulate connections between management development and organization performance, but with limited success. There seemed to be a consensus among researchers (Garavan *et al.*, 1999), that there is a need for a coherent model or theoretical framework to recognize the presence of causal links. On the other hand, many studies made by Alliger *et al.* (1997), Holton (1996) and Moller and Mallin (1996) showed that there has been a resurrection of attention to the evaluation of management development programs by human resource development professionals. But the question remains whether existing evaluation models are sufficient to assess the program achievements in terms of its intended outcome – especially, where the objective of the program is to improve organizational performance.

Approaches to evaluation differ from those that are objective, meticulous and scientific to those that are practical, subjective, and interpretive in direction. For example, the results assessment system (Swanson and Holton, 1999) which defined outcomes generally connects them to the results of changes in leadership style in top management, work satisfaction, work teams, or organizational change. Consequently, this system gives three levels of outcomes: (a) performance level outcomes subdivided into system and financial outcomes; (b) learning level outcomes subdivided into results and knowledge outcomes;

and (c) perception level subdivided into the perception of participants and stakeholders. This method of evaluation is very broad and lacks specificity which is an important ingredient in any evaluation method. Also, the results assessment system is seen as a way to generate buy-in and focus on the current objectives. Another method for evaluating a management development program is the one proposed by Kirkpatrick (1996). This method divides evaluation into four levels: (a) Reaction – assessing the reactions of participants orally and in writing; (b) Evaluating learning – assessing how much information has been acquired; (c) Evaluating behaviour – evaluating changes in the behaviour of participants; and (d) Evaluating results – assessing the benefits of the training against its costs. This method of evaluation is fairly straightforward. The four basic categories are understandable and widely used. Given the subjective and interpretative nature of evaluation, it is not unexpected that this method is prone to bias and manipulation (Currie, 1994). Smith (1993) suggested that any evaluation program should adopt a more holistic, contextual approach, and integrate internal and external elements. Smith recognizes four problems with evaluation. These are:

- *Experimental Control*: which suggests that the application of scientific methods is not feasible given that unanticipated results may surface which attend people's lives.
- *Choice of methods*: Quantitative or qualitative or an integration of both methodologies should be selected for evaluation. Hardly any method can provide conclusive evidence of the management development contribution.

- *Integrating the methods:* evaluation must be an integral part of the management development and training process. Yet, a single generic formula is not enough to evaluate the effectiveness of the program given the complexity and subjectivity of such programs.
- *Maintaining objectivity:* it is very difficult to separate the evaluation process from the politics of the organization.

In the same vein, Mole (1996) advocated that evaluation should adopt a systematic, holistic, perspective that places emphasis on the extent to which development activity fits with individual needs and the organizational context.

This section discusses some of the key elements that currently prevail within the field of management development. The literature suggests that management development is determined to improve the activities of managers at all levels. The literature also suggests a holistic, systemic and integrated perspective on management development. The current view is that management development objectives and activities must be tightly rooted in organizational structure, and be supple enough to change as the organization and the manager changes. In the literature, there is enough evidence that the aim of management development has shifted to stress activities such as coaching, action learning, natural learning, self development, mentoring, and other peer related learning activities. Thus, the concept itself has been expanded to stress development of the whole person rather than the attainment of competencies for a particular job.

Furthermore, the literature suggested that management development, embracing both formal and informal approaches and processes, will become increasingly self driven within an overall organizational culture of learning and development. Organizations therefore need to generate support mechanisms for a total development platform so that individuals can assume responsibility for this self-development.

At last but not least, management development must continue to be seen and applied as a long-term investment in a key group of the organization's human resource where evaluation and feedback from current and ongoing training programs are vital for their continued improvement.

2.5 Management Development and Change

Change events continue to pose a costly threat to organizations. The regularity and intensity of change that most organizations are subject to highlights the importance of effective management development (Broussine *et al.*, 1998; Winterton and Winterton, 1997). Globalization, technological developments, changing consumer demands, and shorter product life cycles have encouraged continuous fundamental environment changes and required a more strategic view from those who manage and lead organizations (Garavan *et al.*, 1999). This section explores the relationship between management development and the change affecting the organization. It will also explore the strategic role of management development in the context of organizational change management.

2.5.1 Investigating the Link between Management Development and Change Management

Most organizations have a tendency to deal with management development and change management as separate issues and areas of responsibility within the organization (Burnes, 2003). This tendency could mean that organizations are missing great opportunities for improvement and growth. Notable business failures took place because of poor leadership and weak management. In the same way, management development programs often fail because they are not systematic, ongoing, and not tailored to both organizational and individual manager needs. Burnes argued that even when it is difficult to identify the link between management development and organizational change, organizations should identify the overlaps that do occur and make every effort to combine the two areas where possible.

Doyle (2000a, b, and c) suggested that management development and training and change management are fundamentally linked. Given the new agenda of demands presented to managers, expectations and challenges which some are projecting will have complex implications for managerial roles and futures (Stewart, 1994; Jackson and Humble, 1994). Doyle (2000a) cautioned that management development will miss its relevance unless it becomes more directly integrated with the dynamics of organizational change. According to recommendations made by Stuart (1995) on how organizations can support their managers in responding to change initiatives, training and development are key factors in preparing people for change and providing supportive climate for change. Stuart recognizes training as a supporting tool for people to develop contextual

understanding of what is happening around them as well as provide specific skills relevant to their needs.

The view that management development theory and practice might be one way or another faltering to entirely meet the demands and expectation of managers and organizations is not a new one (see for example Mumford, 1993; Storey, 1989; Burgoyne, 1988). By tradition, the majority of these criticisms have been targeting the methods of applying training and management development. For instance, researchers have been critical of the gradual and disjointed way that many management development programs are designed, organized and implemented (Burgoyne, 1988; Mumford, 1987). Mole (1996) suggested that in some organizations, perspectives on management development programs are seemingly very narrow and are limited to a type of off-the-shelf management training courses and education programs. Yet, Roberts and McDonald (1995: 9) argued that these programs are chosen because they represent “canned solutions to an identified problem rather than any commitment to a permanent, systematic process”. The gap, therefore, in the debate between the design and implementation of development programs and their relevance to the reality of management practice and what managers really do is persistent. This debate over the gap is represented in the growing literature that challenges and critiques competency-based approaches and frameworks. For once, this approach is charged with being oversimplified and generic ‘one size fits all’ (Doyle, 2000). Equally, an additional area of weakness relates to the apparently lack of ability to determine and evaluate the success of program desired results (Easterby-Smith, 1994).

Familiarity with these as well as other criticisms falls onto those who research and practice the field of training and management development. Yet, despite the wealth of information warning practitioners about the most obvious shortcomings, and despite the view of management development and training as central, there is not a clear understanding of how it fits with the overall role of managers.

2.5.2 The Strategic Role of Management Development in Organizational Change

Strategic management development has started to receive increasing research attention in the late 1980s (Handy, 1987; Constable McCormick, 1987) which resulted in moving this field up the agenda of organizational priorities. Garavan (2007) suggested that an increased emphasis on the strategic role of management development is needed because of the clear linkages between management development strategies, organizational concerns and outcomes, and the focus on performance improvement to gain competitiveness and effectiveness. In the change context where organizations tend to experience uncertainty and multilevel changes, strategic management development can offer a valuable support for leadership in crafting management development interventions that will eventually contribute to the successful result of managing change.

Garavan *et al.* (1995) suggested that strategic management development is used in many ways and for a variety of activities. In the same way, Grieves (2003) viewed strategic management development as encouraging practices that augment the strategic performance of employees and organizations. He also stresses proactive change in management which allows organizations to endure in an increasingly multifaceted,

unbalanced, competitive, and global environment. Garavan (2007) argued that to be successful, organizational strategic management development requires an integration of learning interventions into business planning. This being a serious component, especially when shared with the active participation of top management as key stakeholders, strategic management development will become more effective and prosper. Organizational strategic management development will also be influential where there is constant knowledge about the external environment in terms of opportunities and threats confronting the organization.

There is now growing evidence of a willingness to increase investment and provide more commitment to the development of managers (Garavan, 2007; Zula and Chermack, 2007; Rainbird, 1994). A number of researchers have highlighted management development's strategic role and its potential to act as a catalyst for organizational change and transformation (Broussine *et al.*, 1998; McClelland, 1994; Buckley and Kemp, 1989). However, Doyle (2000) argued that whilst these developments are viewed as both positive and encouraging, it is not yet clear how far the value and effectiveness of management development have changed in recent years. He also suggests that, of its own accord, this investment and commitment may not be sufficient. The meticulous challenges faced by organizations are influencing various systems of the organization thus making it difficult for management development to fulfil its strategic role. These influences will undermine investment and results, which could risk management development to lag behind the needs and demands of managers and their employing organizations.

Nevertheless, few could argue that strategic management development can help organizations to learn during and from the change. This makes strategic management development predominantly useful in change management given that change learning is difficult to attain and regularly presents contradictions and complexities.

What then makes management development strategic? This question outlines the theme in the following section. It is proposed that two traditional approaches can be established based on conventional views on the strategic role of management development. A third approach is then introduced, basing the approach on organizational capabilities as a major source of competitive advantage.

2.5.3 Embracing Change Using Management Development Traditional Approaches

2.5.3.1 Management Development Driven by Needs

In this approach the view of the role of management development with respect to strategy is to see it as a way to evaluate and tackle skill deficiencies in the organization (Mabey and Salaman, 1995). Practically, this means that the work being done within the organization has been fragmented into certain roles and that a competency pool has been recognized for each of the roles. This pool of competencies can change if a change in the environment or in the resources of the company that result the one previously recognized obsolete. This approach implies that when people fail to fulfil their roles, they face a skill performance gap. This gap can be bridged by utilizing management development. Pettigrew *et al.* (1988), in their study highlighted the significance of the skill

performance gap as a reason for development activities, but they also found that the way this gap was dealt with varied from one organization to the other.

The approach is often described as a rational, planned, and chronological process starting from the needs assessment and ending in the phase of evaluation where the results attained are compared with the learning objectives set previously in the process (Wexley, 1991; Robinson and Robinson, 1990). Despite the fact that this approach is sometimes viewed as the only strategic approach – the word strategic implies that the development needs are being derived from the objectives of the company rather than from those of the individual (Luoma, 2000). According to this approach, management development helps strategy to be implemented successfully.

2.5.3.2 Management Development Driven by Opportunities

The above approach is seen as a reaction to deficiencies within the organization. Rooted in their interests in the external environment of managers' development, organization leaders were concerned in the interventions and techniques that are employed as catalysts for mental growth in organizations (Mabey and Salaman, 1995). This approach implies that aside from the actual development needs additional development ways exist from which the organization can acquire abilities and behaviours through interventions that make it more efficient today and tomorrow. Beer (1980) provided a thorough discussion of the activities and concepts of this approach. This approach suggested that management development has its force in factors outside the organization. In today's environment, organizations face a constant stream of development options which makes

it hard for them to ignore. Modern reflections of these trends are, for instance, total quality management, team building, and empowerment. Therefore, organizations would be risking their competitiveness and sacrificing a direct benefit if they don't carry out interventions based on these trends.

Organizations adopting this approach focus on the learning potential in their people. Providing people, on one hand, with non-vocational skills - such as systems thinking and business process analysis – which makes up a major part of this approach (Torraco and Swanson, 1995), and, on the other, a large scale utilization of programs directed to increase the vocational expertise of the workforce.

2.5.3.3 Management Development Driven by Capabilities

A third approach which is based on the view that organizational capabilities are the source of organizational competitiveness. It is seen as improving organizational capabilities and a major contributor to organization's performance. Capabilities as suggested by Stalk *et al.* (1992) are the behaviours that are not directly related to tangible resources but they come lively in certain organizational contexts. They also argue that capabilities should be underlined as the chief object of strategy, and management thought should be focused on issues that sustain the capabilities. Capabilities are about the way people behave. They are not easy for competitors to emulate because they are based on knowledge, skills, and processes evolved over time into practical combinations within the context of a particular organizational setting. Hence, Long and Vickers-Koch

(1995), argued that these capabilities which create value for customers have the ability to become a source of enduring competitive advantage.

This approach assumes strategy as the starting point where the desired behaviours – capabilities – are recognized. Then, these behaviours are translated into learning objectives that serve as tasks for management development. It is also suggested that the organizational structure has to be adjusted and a uniformed guiding framework of principles for all management development activities have to be identified before any implementation takes place. In other words, management development according to this approach, is seen as an integral part of organizational structure and management development overall strategy. As stated in Ulrich (1997: 10):

Capabilities are the DNA of competitiveness. They are the things an organization always does better than its competitors do.

2.5.4 The Cultural Context

Culture is the pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that may not have been expressed but outline the ways in which people behave and things get done.

As Furnham and Gunter (1993: 70) put it:

Culture represents the 'social glue' and generates a 'we-feeling', thus counteracting processes of differentiations which are an unavoidable part of organizational life. Organizational culture offers a shared system of meanings which is the basis for communications and mutual understanding. If these functions are not fulfilled in a satisfactory way, culture may significantly reduce the efficiency of an organization.

Many commentators suggest that values and norms are the basis for any culture. According to Schein (1988) these values and norms are formed in four ways: current and past leaders; critical incidents or important events; the need to maintain effective working relationships; and, the environment – dynamic or stable. These elements which are used for formulating the culture are also assumed to be the elements for setting each culture apart from other cultures in the world. These elements are different and have a mixture of influences in different parts of the world; hence, cultures became to be diverse (Armstrong, 1999).

Management works with a truth that is man-made. People make organizations consistent with their values, and societies are made up of institutions and organizations that mirror the leading values contained by their culture. Organization theorists are gradually realizing that their theories are much less common than they once assumed; theories also reflect the culture of the society in which they were developed. In this respect, Hofstede (1984) argued that the view of western culture which justified worldwide western modern management methods is also breaking up. It has become more and more obvious that managing in different countries is not the same activity and that many common generalizations are, in fact, not vindicated. There is a need among international managers and management theorists for a much deeper understanding of the range of culture-determined value systems that exists among countries, and should be taken into consideration when passing on management ideas from one country to another. Management in its most general sense consists in the co-ordination of the efforts of people and of the use of economical and technical resources in order to attain desired

goals. Management is a socio-technical activity in the sense that it implies dealing with people (the human side) and with non-human resources (the technical side), as well as the interaction between the two (Analoui, 2002; Hofstede, 1984). The technical side of management is less culture-dependent than the human side but the two interact, no management activity can be culture-free.

Since countries differ according to cultures, legal, political, and economic systems, it should not be surprising that management development practices tend to differ from country to country, too. Drost *et al.* (2002) suggested that when it comes to training and development programs, there are usually more similarities than differences across countries. In particular, employers just about everywhere rank “to improve technical skills” as the main purpose for providing employees with training. Van Buren and King (2000), argued that while the main reason for providing training tends to be the same regardless of the country, the amount of training firms provide does vary substantially from country to country. The US in year 2003 ranks number one in expenditures per employee with \$742 as opposed to some Asian and middle eastern countries with an average of \$241 per employee. Then again, employers around the world are quiet consistent in their use of training delivery methods. Classroom training represents the lion’s share of training time in all countries and regions. According to a study by Drost *et al.* (2002), it was found that perceptions of current and desired training and development practices were to some extent country specific. In many developing countries, it may not be surprising that the value of an employee’s contributions to an organization may be compensated, at least in part, in the form of training and career development. Another

important finding relates to the low level of effort exerted in training and development in current interpersonal skills, whilst the literature for Anglo countries suggests that desires exist to increase training and development directed at interpersonal skills.

Management development and training in developed countries has become more and more an important part of organization life. Over the course of years, it is being viewed as a separate function that contributes to organization change and development (Abu Doleh, 1998). The Arab states have been aware of the positive impact of management development on organizational effectiveness and economic and social development and, as a result, the 1980s were declared by these states as “the decade of administrative development” (Zoubi, 1982). Many developmental problems and issues are shared by the culturally-similar Arab countries but also common in other developing countries (Palmer *et al.*, 1987). Al-Ali and Taylor (1997) argued that training and development programs in Arab countries are ineffective for their inconsistencies of achieving organizational goals and inadequate because they don’t assume a holistic and comprehensive perspective of the organization.

Palestine, a typical Arabian middle-eastern state, is small and a house for three major religions. Many managers, according to Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2003), have been recognized as suffering from managerial weaknesses. It was also recognized that training is one of the long term keys to promote the development of local organizations and alleviate the problem of persistent unemployment. Yet, training and development programs suffered from various problems, such as lack of professional trainers, the

majority of the managers did not attend the training program courses, and lack of funding. Practices related to program and participants' selection and training content areas are, generally, consistent with previous findings in the West. Contrary to the situation in the West, however, almost all sectors are less active in management development areas- for example executive learning programs are rarely used.

In summary, although the supremacy of American management theory has led to the belief of widespread management practices that can be successfully implemented everywhere; Hofstede's (1984) study has made it apparent that managerial attitudes, values and behaviours vary across national cultures. There is no one best way to manage a business, since differences in national cultures call for differences in management practices. Accordingly, research done by Rozenzweig and Nohria (1994) found that human resource management including those aspects relating to training and development tend to follow local practices more closely than other corporate functions. Thus, given the differences in the geography, legal, economic, and political spectrums and given the increasing importance of the training and development practices in developing countries including Palestine, organizations should capitalize on programs that were found to be effective in developed parts of the world and make the necessary adjustments to suit local values and norms. The impact, therefore, of the local culture on the reliability of foreign practices and ultimately on organizational performance and its ability to achieve organizational goals must not be ignored.

2.5.5 Achieving Organizational Change through Management Development

This section discusses how organizations may help in the development and support of their managers, particularly with regard to their approach to the management of change. An act of faith approach to management development supposes that training and development will improve performance, and that attention to the people factor will give organizations a competitive advantage (Winterton and Winterton, 1997). So far, the importance of management development was revealed to be widely acknowledged in various reviews of management education and training and has been linked with the attainment of competitive advantage in recent publications. Furthermore, if management development was to contribute to organizational change, links had to be made between personal and organizational development.

Goodge (1998) stated that management development is moving rapidly up the corporate agenda. According to a survey made by Goodge, human resource professionals expect a significant increase in their management development activity. Things have changed enormously inside and outside the sphere of the organization, and management development is itself subject to two great pressures. First, organizations are becoming more dynamic, flatter, upward job movements within organizations are more difficult, the skills gap between one management level and the other is greater. All of the above changes indicate that the context of the organization has changed, challenging the assumptions upon which management development has operated. Second, past management development methods were proved to be futile in exerting pressure to change. In that same survey, Goodge found that workshops, courses and programs often

resulted in managers learning a lot, but without evident commercial benefit. He even went farther by saying that some types of training are considered as a waste of resources - 'too much theory and irrelevance to business needs'. Yet, some methods like development centres, mentoring and coaching were judged to have worked relatively well. Basically, methods that were directly connected to the manager's job proved to be more effective.

Smith (1993) suggested three zones for development: (1) self-awareness and management; (2) managing organization and others; (3) managing the strategic external setting. Smith made it clear that for participants to impact the organization, the aim of management development, is a function of senior managers legitimizing the development and training program. Senior managers in return must be aware of the influence of the program on middle and low level managers. He also emphasized the importance of senior managers encouraging and participating in cross-departmental dialogue, regular meetings of middle and lower levels of management, and setting up review workshops that concluded development and training programs. As a result, management development should enable participants to become powerful in promoting change as well as becoming more skilled and realistic about the barriers and defences to change.

In the same way, Shanley (2007) suggested a number of management development practices to support the management of change. His list of strategies is provided as a broad menu, in the knowledge that they will not be relevant in all situations and that the ease of their application will be greatly affected by the resources available to each

organization. The suggested strategies are grouped under four thematic areas along with their associated strategies, as outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Management Development Themes and Strategies to Support the Management of Change

Themes	Strategies
Selecting and inducting new staff	Recruitment Induction
Supporting existing staff members	Performance appraisal and management Coaching and Mentoring Peer support Succession planning
Developing a supportive workplace environment	Semi-structured learning in the workplace Structured learning programs for managers
Getting support from the industry	Membership in outside organizations Industry-based initiatives

Source: Shanley (2007: 974)

In Table 2.4 Shanley described management development as a process which is a set of ongoing decisions and work activities in which managers engage as they plan and lead development and training programs. The suggested strategies represent a more pervasive way of conceptualizing the function of management development. They also provide clear and discrete methods of classifying the several activities that human resource

professionals carry out and the techniques they use in terms of the functions they perform for the achievement of development and training goals.

To put it briefly, the training and development function is evident in all change projects. Organizational necessities in change management should be matched with the relevant training needs. The training and development program must be set out to encourage awareness of the change process, awareness of the managerial context of the change project, and awareness of the organization development perspectives. There also seems to be a broad consensus (Pugh 2000) that the exigencies of change management will not only require the strengths of good basic skills but higher order skills and complex technical skills, mixed with traditional skills and with the acceptance of the need for management skills to be deployed and absorbed throughout the organization.

2.6 Summary

As shown throughout the first section, the development of management theories can be described from various perspectives characterized by different beliefs and assumptions about people, organizations, and management. These views, each in its own way, impact the way organizations deal with management development and training within a context of rapid change. The contributions of five approaches were presented: scientific management which looked at management from the perspective of improving the productivity and efficiency of people; the classical theorists such as Fayol and Weber were concerned with the overall organization and how to make it more effective; human relations movement which includes several researchers who emphasized human behaviour in organizations or the people side of management resulting in the development of motivation theories including McGregor's theory X and Y; the open system approach – a relatively more modern approach- to management thinking that recognizes organizations as an open system with interdependent subsystems that take into consideration as opposed to earlier theories on economical, technological, political and social factors; finally, a contingency approach or sometimes called situational approach underscores that all organizations are not the same nor facing similar circumstances (contingencies / situations) hence may need different ways of managing. Additionally, an effort was made in presenting three contemporary practices which are reshaping and changing the field of management: Learning organization, knowledge management and open book management. Although, all of the five approaches as well as recent advancement in the thought of management contribute to the overall

understanding of management, each presents a limited view of a larger field of study. At the same time, all of this underscores an important feature of the field of management; management will continue to evolve and new perspectives will emerge trying to change the perceptions, beliefs, and values concerning management.

The following section in the literature review was dedicated to exploring the concept of change management and how organizations are being forced to significantly change the way they do things. A distinction between the different types of change – Evolutionary versus revolutionary change- is made, yet a review of some of the literature suggested that both types are two faces to the same coin. Consequently, organizations need to be able to handle both if they want to achieve prolonged sustainability and growth. The review continued to investigate why organizations tend to fail when implementing change programs. It was concluded that the underlying factor for failure is poor management. Next, appraisals of four main models to managing change were introduced. The four models offer valuable insights about managing change; nevertheless, choosing one model over the other would depend to a large extent on the forces and the consequent objectives for change. The next topic was a discussion of the concept of leadership as a critical factor for successful management of organizational change. Two leadership theories – transformation and transactional – were identified, wherein transactional leadership is more concerned with the exchange process between planners and implementers of change, transformational leadership offers a more integrated approach to successful implementation of organizational change in which managers as well as employees are involved and encouraged to participate in the process of change

from beginning to end. Despite that several authors would rank transformational leadership in a higher order; they all agree that transactional leadership is not the opposite. The final topic explores effective management of resistance to change which can make or break the efforts of managing well organizational change. If resistance to change is managed appropriately, it can lead to even more effective implementation of change. Resistance must be carefully examined since it may contribute to expanding the perceptions and scope of those enacting change – resistance is not always bad.

The third section was discussion of management development and training and how it impacts both the individual and the organization. According to the proposed definitions of management development; it is viewed as an opportunity for personal growth and development, which will ultimately contribute to the success of the organization. Management development is hence considered as a strategic instrument and an interrelated function of the organization. Effective exploitation of management development and training can improve the organization performance and make it more resilient to overcoming the challenges it faces. Management development has a strategic role to fulfil. It has been shown how strategically linked management development and organizational effectiveness are. Organizational effectiveness and success is chiefly a function of the knowledge and skills of its people. The systems thinking emphasizes this strategic relationship by underscoring management development as an interdependent factor working together with all interdependent parts that make up the organization. Next, a discussion of different processes for management development was presented, wherein all commentators agree on one thing; if organizations want to attain

management development goals, they need to foster a supportive culture where participants are encouraged and involved in the process from its start, as well as obtaining the commitment of senior and middle managers. A comparison between formal and informal approaches to management development was carried out. The competency based management development approach is still considered to be valid in the context of today's organizations based on the belief that this method is effective in achieving organizational goals and in that it focuses on individuals' current and future needs for skills and competences.

The role of learning in management development is very important according to some commentators. It is proposed that there is a strong relationship between management development and learning. Management development activities should be directed towards developing a learning atmosphere within the organization where individuals consistently seek knowledge and new competences. According to the literature, 'action learning'- one method to encourage learning is a very effective way for individuals to learn. According to this method people learn best and most on the job.

Evaluation forms an important aspect of management development. Evaluation is to discover if the development and training program objectives have been achieved or not. Given the different evaluation systems available for managers to choose from, managers should consider participants' involvement, objectivity and practicality of the system, and the system's cost.

In the last section, the role that management development plays in making organizational change work was explored. It was argued that although organizations are failing to accommodate change for reasons that are mostly linked to poor leadership and weak management as well as failing to see the impact management development has on realizing organizational change, a large number of researchers emphasize that management development and change management are fundamentally linked. The role of management development should be focused on empowering managers, providing them with required skills and abilities, and creating a supportive environment for change. In the same vein, despite the managers' frail perception of management development as a strategic catalyst for change and improving the performance of the organization, researchers argue that management development has a strategic role to fulfil in augmenting the performance of managers with the opportunities and challenges that lie in the external environment. Three approaches were explored to show the strategic fit between management development and change management: the first is driven by needs derived from organizational goals but ignores the individual needs, yet this approach is viewed as contributing to the successful implementation of organizational strategies; the second approach assumes that opportunities exist in the outside environment which require organizations to invest in developing their people's vocational and non-vocational skills; a third approach is based on the fact that organizational capabilities are the source of organizational competitiveness, therefore, calling for organizations' strategies to be centred around developing their capabilities – behaviours that are required to improve organizational performance. Apart from the other two

approaches, this approach possesses a unique capacity to create difficult-to-duplicate advantages that can be the source for enduring competitive advantages.

Finally, management development and training is proved to be affected by different cultural contexts. The need for adapting management development programs to local norms and values is considered by many commentators an important ingredient. In developing countries, many development and training programs were found to be futile in attaining their expected goals for their lack of consideration to local cultures and deficiencies in assuming a holistic view of the organization where these programs are implemented.

Thus far, what is clear is that a growing number of organizations are now seemingly displaying a higher commitment and willingness to invest in the development of their managers. The management of change and the development of managers are both seen as crucial aspects of effective and well-functioning organizations. However, a number of authors have pointed out that these two areas of organizational life are not always well integrated or coordinated. A range of suggestions is provided in the literature to help achieve a better coordination. The synthesis of the literature and the framework of analysis to be adopted will be explored in Chapter Four after a discussion of the social, political and economic environment in Palestine- Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE

THE POLITICAL, SOCIAL, AND ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT OF PALESTINIAN TELECOMMUNICATION SECTOR

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter research-specific information on social, political, and economic environment is presented. This research explores the status and practices of management development and training of top and middle level managers in the Palestinian telecommunication sector in the West Bank. The subsequent presentation will be divided into three main sections. The first section provides information relevant to the geography, climate, historical background, and other demographic and cultural characteristics of Palestine. The second section provides the reader with a view of the economic –business environment in Palestine and an outlook into the future. The third section presents an overview of the economic sectors with a focus on the telecommunication sector and more specifically Paltel Group - a key player in that sector and the focus of this study.

3.2 Palestine: A Historical Cradle of Cultures

The holy shrines, historical treasures, the folklore and the culture are all present at the one and same place - Palestine. It is the place where many civilizations were born and where Judaism, Christianity and Islam took form. The following sections highlight the geography, climate, population, language and religion, as well as a brief modern history of Palestine.

3.2.1 The Geography of Palestine

As a land rich in Historical interest, as the birthplace of three of the world's greatest religions, and the scene of one of the most remarkable geological phenomena of the earth, the rift valley of the Jordan river- a region containing so much interest within such narrow limits (Blanchard, 2008). Palestine has Lebanon on the north, the Mediterranean on the west, the deserts of Arabia on the south, and the river Jordan on the east (A Map of Palestine in Appendix F). Its length, from north to south, is about 190 miles; the average width is about 70 miles. The area is estimated at 11,000 geographical square miles. This gives an extent of territory equal to about one fifth of England and Wales. The countries in Europe to which it can be compared in extent are Belgium, Netherland, and Switzerland.

Palestine may be considered as a mountainous country – a land of hills and valleys. In general the hills are not in ranges, but more or less isolated - a mountain chain, which

diverges into numerous branches, runs from north to south on both sides of the river Jordan, and terminates between the gulfs of Suez and Akaba, in the deserts of Arabia. The highest peak is called Jebel-es-Sheikh, or the Old Man's Mountain, from its fancied resemblance to the hoary and beard of a venerable sheikh. Its actual height is estimated between 11,000 and 12,000 feet. There are many streams in Palestine, but only river Jordan deserves the name of river. Many of these streams are winter torrents that dry up in the summer. River Jordan runs about 150 miles; it pursues a course from north to south through the whole extent of Palestine, dividing it into two unequal parts and empties into the Dead Sea. The sea of the Galilee is a lake formed by the river Jordan-also called Sea of Tiberias. Its length is about twelve miles lying in a deep basin surrounded by hills and beautiful heights. Its water being clear, cool, and refreshing to the taste, is also abound in fish of various kinds (McLeod, 2012).

Because of its location in the middle of several Arab countries, Palestine constitutes a combination of natural and humanistic geography for a wide terrestrial field that comprises the originality of Bedouin life in the south and the style of long settlement in the north. The Palestinian land is featured with being part of the first man's home, the place for all the celestial religions, the place where ancient civilizations rose and a bridge for commercial activities and the military incursions across so many different historical eras. The strategic location Palestine enjoys allowed it to be a connecting factor between the continents of the ancient worlds of Asia, Africa and Europe. It was a crossing bridge for people for a long time, and it enjoys a focal location that attracts all those who want to settle down and live in prosperity (Ministry of Information, 2010).

The location of Palestine also had a commercial significance; it represents a connection between the seasonal and circular environments in southern Asia and the Near East on the one hand, and the environment of the Mediterranean Sea and middle and Western Europe on the other. These different environments with their varied products share a great deal of commercial transactions. Thus, the location of Palestine connects the agricultural civilizations of the East with the industrial civilization of the West (Ministry of Information, 2010). Accordingly, Palestine became an important passage for the international trade and travellers alike on land, sea and air. During this time, Palestinian ports provided its neighbours to the east in Syria and Jordan with its services till the year 1948.

3.2.2 Climate

The climate of Palestine fluctuates between the climate of the Mediterranean Sea and a desert climate; it is affected by both the sea and the desert with the sea being more dominant, which makes the climate of Palestine for the greater part of the year a pleasant one. Winter lasts for three months, from mid-December to mid-March, and can be severe. During the remainder of the year, the climate is temperate, with the hottest weather in the months of July and August (Ministry of Information, 2010). The Middle Eastern summer is eased by breezes coming from the Mediterranean Sea. Summer although hot in the daytime, is fairly cool at night requiring a sweater.

The atmosphere of Palestine is clear and its air is pure. Summer temperatures reach 35°C (95°F) and in the winter temperature may drop to 0°C (32°F). The average annual rainfall in Jerusalem is 800 mm (Ministry of Information, 2010). The inconsistency of rainfall throughout the months and years requires that most vegetable cultivation be supplemented with irrigation to ensure normal growth. The average annual relative humidity is 60 percent and reaches its highest levels during the months of January and February. In May, however, humidity levels are at their lowest. Night dew may occur in up to 180 days per year.

3.2.3 Population of Palestine

According to the last official census conducted in July 2011, the total population of Palestine recorded was 4.17 million: 2.58 million in the West Bank and 1.59 million in the Gaza Strip (Palestinian Central Bureau of statistics, 2011). Of the total population of the Palestinian territory, about 2.12 million are males and 2.05 million females. Table 3.1 below shows the population of Palestine and its distribution according to gender. The percentage of urban population in 2011 was about 73.8 percent while the percentage of population in rural areas and refugee camps was 16.9 and 9.3 respectively.

Table 3.1

Population of Palestine According to Gender

Gender	West Bank	Gaza Strip	Total
Male	1,310,000	806,000	2,116,000
Female	1,270,000	782,000	2,052,000
Total	2,580,000	1,590,000	4,170,000

Source: Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics (2011)

The population of the Palestinian territory is relatively young; the percentage of individuals aged between zero and fourteen constitutes 40.8% of the total population in 2011, of which 38.9% is in the West Bank and 44.1% in the Gaza Strip. Elderly population aged 65 years and older constitutes 2.9% of the total population of which 3.3% is in the West Bank and 2.4% is in the Gaza Strip. Population density of the Palestinian territory is generally high at 693 persons per kilometre square. More so, in Gaza Strip where population density is estimated at 4,353persons/Km², compared to much lower population density in the West Bank at 456persons/Km².

3.2.4 Language and Religion in Palestine

The official language of Palestine is Arabic, a subgroup of the broader Levantine Arabic dialect exhibiting substantial influences in lexicon from Aramaic (Ministry of Information, 2010). However, English and to lesser extent French are also used in Palestine most

commonly within the business community. Palestinian Arabic has three primary sub-variations, Rural, Urban, and Bedouin, with the pronunciation of the *Qaf* serving as a shibboleth to distinguish between the three main Palestinian sub-dialects. In addition, as a result of the ongoing occupation, many Palestinians have acquired a fair knowledge of the Hebrew language, which is frequently used in business and social communities.

Palestine is a secular state, yet over the years religion has played a very important role at the social level in shaping the lives of Palestinian people. Islam is the main religion of the state and people of Palestine with the vast majority of whom are followers of the Sunni branch of Islam. Palestinian Christians are only a significant minority along with other smaller religious communities including Druze, Samaritans and Palestinian Jews (Ministry of Information, 2010).

Religion as constitutive of individual identity was accorded a minor role within Palestinian tribal social structure until the latter half of the 19th century. More recently, Islam has come to embrace many aspects of life in Palestine. The people of Palestine have become strong believers in Allah (God) and several aspects of their lives are dominated by the rules dictated in the Koran. Several dimensions of political legitimacy, judicial system, and ethical codes of conduct have their roots in Islam.

3.2.5 A Brief Perspective on the Political History of Palestine

Thursday November 29, 2012 the United Nations General Assembly approves the de facto recognition of a sovereign Palestinian State; at long last the 'birth certificate' was issued despite threats from the United States and Israel to punish the Palestinians by withholding funds. The much anticipated vote came after the President of Palestine (Mahmoud Abbas) condemned Israel for its aggressive policies and war crimes.

At the turn of twentieth century Jewish immigration began as a result of Zionist planning to establish a national home for Jews in Palestine. However, this move was strongly restricted, mainly for religious reasons and fear of the Arabs, by the Ottomans whose ruling at the time was extended to preside over Palestine. With the end of World War I, marking the end of Turkish Empire, victorious countries divided the Turkish colonies and from 1917 until 1947, Palestine was under the British control (Aqil, 1980). In 1947, sixty-five years ago, the UN General Assembly adopted resolution 181, which partitioned the land of historic Palestine into two states and became the birth certificate for Israel. According to Khouri (1976) Great Britain supported the idea of a Jewish state upon the unlimited assurance of Zionism concerning the protection of British colonies and interests in the Middle East since the Jewish state will be in close distance to the Suez Canal. The Belfour Declaration in 1917 (named after the British Foreign Minister James Belfour) along with the fading role of Britain in mediating between Palestinians and Israelis, an Israeli State was proclaimed on about 75% of the land of Palestine leading to military conflict between the two nations, which deteriorated the situation further and resulting

in more divisions of the land of Palestine; Gaza Strip become under the Egyptian control, the West Bank under the control of Jordan, and almost three-quarters of a million people became refugees. This situation lasted until 1967, when Israel occupied the West Bank and Gaza Strip and formally annexed East Jerusalem, despite the United Nations for not recognizing the annexation. Almost half a million Palestinians has suffered from being displaced as a result of this latter occupation. Since then, Israel has occupied all of Palestine, and the Palestinian people became under the control of a tyrant state that only wishes to subjugate and erase the spirit and identify of Palestinians.

1987, the Palestinian Intifada (uprising) started against the harsh conditions and humility as a result of the ongoing occupation by Israel. The Intifada lasted for 7 years with people determined to take their destiny into their own hands and trying to put an end to the political stalemate, which opened up new possibilities for a just peace in the Middle East. As a result of the uprising, Israel and the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) signed a declaration of principles known as the Oslo Peace Accord in Oslo, Norway, in 1993. Accordingly, the Palestinians were given an extremely restricted form of self-autonomy over limited parts of West Bank and Gaza Strip. As much as this may seem a good step forward, yet the road ahead was filled with obstacles and lots of work still needs to be done in order to facilitate the transition and continue with the process of giving back the land to the Palestinians.

Since 1993, since the signing of the Oslo Accord and the establishment of the Palestinian Authority to attend to the administration of Palestinians living in the West bank and Gaza

Strip, particularly those living in Zone A, Peace negotiations has been ineffective and almost unfathomable. History repeats itself, at least this time; a second Intifada erupted in 2001 lasting for several years and halted by the mediations of several Arab and international countries with a promise of a peaceful and just solution to the ongoing conflict and more so to the tenacity of Israel. Up to this point, with the advent of statehood, a peaceful and just solution remains far from being, but not yet relinquished.

3.3 The Economy of Palestine

The economy of Palestine is considered a developing one. The economy took form only after the establishment of the Palestinian Authority in 1994 as a result of the Oslo Agreement (Peace Accord between Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) and the Israeli government). The following sections give some insights on the economy of Palestine.

3.3.1 Business Environment in Palestine

As a result of several impeding factors namely the ongoing occupation and lack of control over natural and physical resources due to restrictions imposed by Israel, the economy of Palestine remains elusive and very vulnerable. The economy of Palestine has been growing in the last few years; however, this growth is mainly attributed to sustainable foreign aid especially by European countries, the efforts by the Palestinian Authority to

institutionalize several administrative functions, and mixed growth in the industry of Palestine.

The main sectors that constitute the economy of Palestine are agriculture and fisheries, services sector (mainly banks, and insurance companies), construction sector, and secondary industries (mining, water and electricity) (Overview of the Palestinian Economy, 2010). Table 3.2 below shows the sectors' shares in GDP.

Table 3.2

Contribution of Selected Economic Sectors to GDP in 2008 and 2009

Economic Sectors	Share in GDP in 2008	Share in GDP in 2009
Agriculture and fisheries	5.9%	4.8%
Secondary industry	14.9%	14.7%
Construction	6.5%	7.4%
Services	36.9%	38.2%

Source: The Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics, 2009
National Income Statistics, Ramallah

The structure of the Palestinian economy to a large degree is considered weak. Even with the signing of the interim peace agreements and more so the Paris Accords, the freedom of the Palestinian business community to invest, to mobilize foreign investment and to trade remains farfetched; again this is all due to restrictions imposed by Israel. Indeed,

market access to Jordan and other neighbouring countries remains limited and uncertain. The prospects of trade development in regional markets are further weakened as the competitiveness of prospective Palestinian exporters is undermined by high transaction costs and by the inefficiency and unreliability of transportation channels. Economic conditions are exacerbated by the administrative, logistical, and de facto non-tariff barriers which deny Palestinian businesses free access to Israel's markets, as was promised in the 1994 Paris Protocol. Meanwhile, Israeli products continue to enjoy unimpeded access to Palestinian markets. Such a situation aggravates the already skewed balance of trade through the dependence on one major trading partner – Israel.

All in all, the business environment in Palestine is characterized by instability and weak infrastructure. Due to the occupation which affects almost all aspects of Palestinian lives and more specifically the business environment in terms of the ongoing closures which blocks the whole Palestinian business community from reaching its potential, the inability of obtaining travel permits and restrictive work permits including permits for transport vehicles of goods between West Bank, and Jerusalem and Gaza, restrictions on investors, time-consuming security checks, prevalence of military laws, purchase tax which is not refundable to Palestinian exporters, Biased import and export procedures, lack of industrial zones, and restrictions on land registrations, Palestinian businessmen are questioning the viability of exercises aimed at fostering regional cooperation as well as the benefit of the free trade agreement with the US as they cannot, realistically, see the possibility of free trade flow between Palestine and the US, when it is inexistent between Palestinian territories and Israel (Anonymous, 1999).

3.3.2 Economic Indicators

The economy of Palestine grew by 9.9 and 9.8 per cent in 2011 and 2010, respectively (Report on UNCTAD assistance to the Palestinian people, 2012). While this gives the impression of a booming economy, the reality is that growth was driven by reconstruction-related activities, which took place to partly rehabilitate after the devastation from the Israeli military operation in Gaza in December 2008 and January 2009. Accordingly, there is a risk that the Palestinian economy may deteriorate in 2012 and 2013. There are serious risks that conditions may worsen if the growth retraction gathers momentum, adding to the persistent long-term occupation-related constraints on the economy and the impact of more than a decade of functioning well below capacity.

The Palestinian economy continues to operate much below potential because of continued movement restrictions (the number of checkpoints and barriers in the West Bank increased from 500 in 2010 to 523 in 2011); this is in addition to the continuation of the economic siege on Gaza, the Palestinian Authority's fiscal crisis and decline in donor support. Moreover, unemployment has remained stubbornly high in Palestine. In 2011 the unemployment rate was 26 per cent, compared to 30 per cent in 2010. However, the observed improvement was accompanied by a worrisome 4 per cent decline in labor productivity (Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics (PCBS), 2012), with wage growth lagging behind inflation. The inflation rate in Palestine in 2011 was 2.9 per cent.

Despite GDP growth in 2011, poverty and food insecurity decreased only slightly-remaining high throughout Palestine, not just in the Gaza Strip. The latest PCBS data

indicate that poverty remains a serious problem. The poverty rate hovers around 26 per cent: 18 per cent in West Bank and 38 per cent in Gaza Strip. Table 3.3 below provides a snapshot of the main economic indicators in 2010 and 2011 in Palestine.

Table 3.3

Economic Indicators in Palestine in Years 2010 and 2011

Economic Indicators- West Bank & Gaza	Year 2010	Year 2011
Estimates of Population (thousands)	4,048.4	4,168.9
Labour Force (thousands)	975.4	1,058.6
Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (US\$ millions)	5,754.3	6,323.0
Real GDP per Capita (US\$)	1,509.9	1,609.6
Unemployment Rate (%)	30.0	26.0
Exports FOB (US\$ millions)	1,151.6	1,015.4
Imports FOB (US\$ millions)	4,625.9	4,191.9

Source: The Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics, 2012
Performance of the Palestinian Economy, Ramallah

3.3.3 The Future Outlook for the Economy of Palestine

Though Palestine has experienced modest economic growth over the past few years underpinned by significant improvements in the rule of law and to some degree the stabilization of the Government's financial situation, the economic growth prospects for Palestine remain in the shadow of a military occupation which has placed the economy under siege for more than four decades. The Palestinian economic policy agenda is designed to counteract the underlying drivers of these negative trends in productive capacity and the balance of trade. The central challenge is to ensure that recent growth accelerates on a sustainable path. An independent, sovereign Palestine on the June 1967 borders with a territorial link between the West Bank and Gaza Strip, and with East Jerusalem restored as its social, cultural and economic hub, has enormous potential for economic growth (Palestine National Development Plan, 2011). If liberated from restrictions on the movement and access of goods and people, and free trade to develop and utilize all of Palestine's land and other natural resources, the Palestinian economy will grow and thrive.

As far as the economy of Palestine is concerned, the Prime Minister Office has issued the Palestinian National Development Plan (2011 – 2013), which presents among other things, the main strategic objectives for a growing and sustainable economy that have been developed based on sector strategies prepared through collaborative effort between relevant ministries and agencies in consultation with non-governmental stakeholders. The strategic objectives are as follows:

- To ensure a positive investment environment in Palestine
- To enhance the competitiveness of Palestinian products and services
- To promote economic integration and access to external markets
- To ensure a vibrant labour market and combat unemployment
- To strengthen consumer protection institutions

Source: Palestine National Development Plan 2011-2013 (2011), Ramallah

3.4 The Telecommunication Sector in Palestine

The following sections provide an overview of the sector, its complex environment, and the main players.

3.4.1 Sector Overview

The telecommunication sector in Palestine (West Bank and Gaza Strip) is characterized by the presence of a private regulated monopoly, namely Paltel Group with its subsidiaries, unauthorized competition, and overall weak governance and regulation. These characteristics, among other issues, have their roots in the complex nature of the regulatory environment under the Oslo agreement and the lack of cooperation between the Israeli and Palestinian governments.

3.4.1.1 Legal and Regulatory Environment of the Sector

Full responsibility for regulating the telecommunication sector resides in the hands of the Palestinian government (Palestinian Authority), in particular areas A and B which are under the Palestinian jurisdiction as was provided in the Oslo agreement. For example, radio spectrum, import of telecommunications equipment, permits to build infrastructure should first be coordinated between Palestinian and Israeli governments. This situation in itself presents a very complex environment which inhibits real progress in the telecommunication sector (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008).

More specifically, sector policy and regulation are presently the responsibility of the Ministry of the Telecommunication and Information Technologies (MTIT) of the Palestinian Authority. Telecommunication Law 3/1996, approved in 1996, is the main regulatory framework that up till now continues to regulate the operation of the sector. A new draft law has been prepared but was not approved by the Legislative Council due to political instability in recent years; the Palestinian Legislative Council could not convene because of Israeli imposed restrictions on its members. Therefore, the sector remains without competition law or competition authority (Oslo Agreement, annex III, 1995). The regulatory agreements under Oslo agreement have important implications for the sector. As such, the agreements affect the interim relationship between Israeli and Palestinian companies, attribute rights and obligations to Palestinian and Israeli operators in the territory of the West Bank and Gaza Strip, and define the role of the Palestinian Authority

in the sector. Many aspects of these agreements are a matter of contention between the Palestinian and Israeli authorities. As appropriate in a fast changing environment, the agreements leave important regulatory decisions to the works of a Joint Technical Committee (JTC). The JTC had met only twice since 2000 for two perfunctory meetings in 2004, leaving behind important issues unresolved (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008).

Another highly controversial issue that characterizes the sector is the issue of tax collection. The Palestinian Authority has the right to collect taxes on all communication services billed in the West Bank and Gaza, subject to the provisions of the Protocol on Economic Relations in Annex V of Oslo II. The Palestinian Authority clearly points out that revenue collected by Israeli operators in the West Bank is not subject to taxation from the Palestinian Authority which produces a fiscal loss. It was estimated that the lost annual tax revenues due to unauthorized Israeli operations amounts to \$60 million (The National Strategy for Information Technologies and Telecommunication in Palestine (2011-2013), 2011).

3.4.1.2 Sector Structure

Before the entry of a second mobile operator (Wataniyah), expected sometime in year 2008 but did not enter the market until 2011 mainly due to delays by the Israeli government to release the necessary frequencies, the structure of the Palestinian telecommunication sector was comprised of few main companies (all companies are part

of Paltel Group). Paltel operates a landline network and is the only provider of fixed-line services in Palestine. Jawwal, a Paltel subsidiary, also operates the mobile (wireless) telecommunication sector. In addition, Palmedia (Media), Hulul (IT solutions), Hadara (Internet Provider), and Reach (Contact or Call Center), are subsidiary companies to Paltel Group that cover various sub-sector segments (Paltel Annual Report, 2102). All companies operating within the sector have to rely on Israeli infrastructure to link West bank with Gaza, and to link different West Bank villages via links going through Area C. With regards to international communications, Paltel is compelled to use the gateway of an Israeli licensed operator. Through its subsidiary Jawwal, Paltel controls about 65 to 80 per cent of the mobile market in West Bank and Gaza. Jawwal relies on Paltel's infrastructure for domestic long distance communications, and on the three Israeli gateway operators, for international communications. More recently, because of the fact that Israeli customs refused to allow the import of special switching equipment, Jawwal was compelled to host part of its mobile switches in London and to route communication through that switching equipment through one of the Israeli operators. Jawwal has also suffered from the lack of necessary permits to build infrastructure in Area, causing the company to incur in higher infrastructure cost than needed (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008).

Paltel is the dominant operator in the Palestinian market. Paltel is a vertically integrated network operator, and a monopoly in almost all market segments. Paltel dominance is expressed both in terms of high market share in all relevant market segments (most of them controlled as a monopoly), and being the only company able to operate in a wide

range of segments. A case in point would be Paltel and its subsidiary Hadara, a dominant operator in the data segment. Hadara relies on Paltel's transmission infrastructure and is a facilities-based ISP. Hadara offers to its customers both asymmetric digital subscriber lines (ADSL) and internet access, as well as access to its internet facilities between 20 and 25 Palestinians ISPs (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008). None of the ISPs has its own infrastructure or facilities, and they, therefore, act as resellers of Hadara's capacity.

Competition with Paltel mainly originates from unauthorized operations. Most of the West Bank is covered by Israeli mobile operators. Jawwal estimates that Israeli operators presently cover 80 percent of the territory of the West Bank and capture at least 20 percent of the market (Jawwal Annual Report, 2012). In addition, there is some spillage by Egyptian operators in the city of Rafah (Gaza), and by Jordanian operators in Jericho. The unlicensed competition experienced from Israeli operators, while not suitable or recommended environment may have stimulated penetration levels and driven mobile prices down.

3.4.1.3 Sector Main Indicators

The telecommunication sector in Palestine is one of the fastest growing sectors. The existence of an educated labour pool and Palestine's geographic proximity to high technology centre in Israel are two main factors that contributed to the sector's expansion. In year 2011 the sector's contribution to GDP was 6.1 per cent. The sector also

provides working opportunities for a significant number of people; around 6 per cent of job opportunities are present in the telecommunication sector (PCBS --National Accounts, 2011).

A report by the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics (PCBS) showed that the percentage of total number of workers in the transportations and communication activity in 2011 has increased by 6 per cent of total workers in Palestine. An increase also in the number of telephone landlines operating in Palestine was shown that amounted to 6.2 per cent compared with 2010; the total number of landlines by year end 2011 was 382,700 lines. As for the number of cellular phone subscribers, the results indicated that there are 2.9 million subscribers at the end of year 2011; a 10.8 percent increase over year 2010. The data showed that 95 per cent of households in Palestine have a mobile phone in 2011. Further examination of the data revealed that 57 per cent of individuals living in Palestine uses the computer with 39.6 per cent of individuals aged 10 years and above are using the internet with minor variation among females and males (PCBS—Transportation and communication Statistics, 2011).

Additionally, at the regional level the telecommunication sector's performance outperforms those of other conflict countries such as Afghanistan, Iraq, Sierra Leone and Liberia and performs at roughly the same level as selected Middle East and North African benchmark countries. Palestinian Internet penetration per capita is approximately 7 per cent which is in line with the values of Egypt, Algeria and Tunisia. The fixed line penetration rate of 9 per cent ranks quite similar to Algeria (8 per cent), Jordan (11 per

cent) far above conflict zones such as Afghanistan (4 per cent). In summary, Palestine is outperforming other conflict countries and in some segments it is competitive with regional benchmarks (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008).

3.4.1.4 Challenges Facing Telecommunication and IT Sector in Palestine

The many challenges facing this vital sector are mainly attributed to the presence of the occupation which not only inhibit any real progress and growth in this sector but also contributes to higher costs of services rendered throughout the different segments of this sector which ultimately hurts the individual Palestinian consumer (Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector, 2008). The challenges are as follows:

- The fact that Israeli operators compete with Palestinian operators but at the same time the first refuses to sign any sort of agreements which will regulate and systemize the both operations, the Israelis and Palestinians. From the Palestinian perspective it is usually: Heads I lose and tails you win.
- The random and baseless confiscation of infrastructure equipment by the Israeli authorities which previously has led to overcapacity hence suspending the sales of new service lines, otherwise the networks would not be able to hold the

additional load. This situation, among others, has implications for the companies operating within this sector such as weakening service and higher costs.

- The Israeli authorities refused to allocate above the minimum frequency of GMC 900 MHz for mobile companies, which resulted in forcing these companies to invest more and more to maintain a good quality of service.
- The ability of local companies to explore opportunities outside their local markets are very limited due to restrictions on people movement, and transport of goods and other physical resources.
- The complex nature of the regulatory relationship between the Palestinian Authority and Israel has given rise to several areas of concern: 1) unauthorized competition by Israeli operators; 2) Palestinian operators are compelled to route their international calls through an Israeli operator (increasing costs); 3) the inexistence of a long-distance link between Gaza and West Bank; 4) difficulties in obtaining permits from the Israeli authorities to build infrastructure in many areas.

3.5 Paltel Group

Paltel Group was first established in year 1997 as a public shareholding company specialized in the provision of state of the art services to the Palestinian consumer (Paltel Group, 2012). Paltel Group services include, but not limited to, local and international telephone services, internet, data communications, mobile services, payphones and next generation services. Through continuous investment and hard work in modern technologies, telecom infrastructure and human resource development, Paltel Group was able to achieve the highest standards in telecommunication services. Paltel Group is made of the following subsidiary companies:

- Palestine Telecommunication Company (Paltel) which provides fixed line (landline, internet access via BSA and other value-added services.
- Palestine Cellular Communications Company (Jawwal) the first mobile operator in Palestine
- Hadara Technology Investment Company; the biggest internet service provider in Palestine
- Reach for Communications Services Company; the first contact (call) centre in Palestine
- Palemedia for Multimedia Services Company; the media arm of Paltel Group
- Hulul IT Company; the IT arm of Paltel Group

Paltel stock represents 35 per cent of the total market CAP of the Palestine Exchange (PEX). The Group's Share is the dominant share on the Palestine Stock Exchange (40 per cent of daily turnover), bringing its value up and is attracting regional and international investors to the Palestinian Capital Markets. The Group's earning experienced a substantial increase over the past decade; it grew from USD 12.1 millions in year 2000 to USD 128 millions in year 2011. This growth in earning has brought forward financial stability to the Group and funds for further investment in technology and synergies across the ICT industry. Another highlight of the Group is its ability to attract high calibre employees; Paltel Group is the workplace for more than 3,000 employees.

Over the past decade, Paltel Group has enjoyed an exclusivity contract with the Palestinian Authority from the outset that was phased out around 5 years ago. Nonetheless, during the exclusivity period, Paltel Group continued to face fierce competition from Israeli operators as well as suffers from Israeli imposed restrictions on importing infrastructure equipment to support the Groups' operations. Despite it all, the Group's performance has experienced growth locally and internationally. For example, Paltel Group enjoys a 25 per cent ownership in VTEL holdings, through which Paltel hopes to tap into international markets. VTEL is a telecom operator investing in different parts of the world, mainly emerging markets in various telecom technologies, e.g. broadband, GSM, WIMAX.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has provided brief description of Palestine from a social, political and economic point view with emphasis on the Palestinian telecommunication sector and Paltel Group in particular as it represents the main focus of this study.

The chapter has briefly reported on the aspects with regards to geography, climate, population, language and religion. A section summarizing the political history and the implication of the Israeli occupation was also included as part of this section. In another section, a highlight of the business environment was presented followed by a section on the road ahead for the Palestinian economy (the national strategic goals as described by the office of the Prime Minister).

The final sections of this chapter brought forward a description of the Palestinian telecommunication sector; the legal and regulatory environment, the sector's structure, and a highlight of the main indicators of this sector. Also in the section, a summary of the main challenges facing the telecommunication sector was presented. The chapter concludes with a section on Paltel Group, the focus of this study as well as the main, if not the only, player within the telecommunication sector of Palestine.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Four starts by looking at some key concepts underlying the study in what is called the theoretical orientation. These concepts are intended to broadly cover the domains of learning, knowledge, competency, and their implications for management development. This is followed by a presentation and synthesis of several models for management development and training, wherein the use and application of any particular model will involve implications about the individuals involved, the situation and the response mechanisms. Ultimately, this will help in constructing a theoretical research framework through the adoption and application of one model to guide this study. Lastly, the chapter ends by looking at the need and research questions for this particular study.

4.2 Learning, Knowledge, Competency

Plato thought that education and learning should persist until the age of forty. Many would now feel that he put too early a date on its closure. Learning and development have become a life-long activity (Handy, 1999).

Senge (1990b: 4) argued that *'deep down, we are all learners. No one has to teach an infant to learn. In fact no one has to teach infants anything. They are intrinsically inquisitive, masterful learners who learn...learning organizations are possible because not*

only is it our nature to learn but we love to learn'. Learning is a natural process in which all individuals engage. It is not just a cognitive activity; it affects the person as a whole. From the day they are born both humans and animals learn and evolve. This process of learning and evolution lead to skilful and effective adaptation to and manipulation of the environment. Humans continue learning throughout life, whether encouraged or not, whether formally taught or not, whether the outcomes are valued or not - Lifelong learning means continuous adaptation. Increased knowledge and improved skills enlarge the individual's capacities to adapt to the environment and to change that environment. According to Audrey Collin (2001), learning generates potentially far reaching changes in the individual: learning promotes development.

Learning and development are used loosely, sometimes interchangeably, making it more important to define how they are being used in order to understand the process of learning and development. Learning, according to Ribeaux and Poppleton (1978: 38), is *'a process within the organism which results in the capacity for changed performance which can be related to experience rather than maturation'*. Moreover, Burgoyne and Hodgson (1983) defined learning as an experience after an individual qualitatively changed the way he or she conceived something. Ultimately, Learning can be more enjoyable and effective if it is out of one's own volition, which means that learning can be more or less effectively undertaken should the individual thinks so or not. Development, on the other hand, is the *'process of becoming increasingly complex, more elaborate and differentiated, by virtue of learning and maturation (Collin, 2001: 279)'*. In a system characterized by greater complexity and differentiation among the subsystems, this would mean that changes in

the subsystems may lead to changes in the structure of the entire system as a whole and to the way in which the whole functions. And for the individual, as he or she becomes more complex, new ways of acting and responding to the environment are generated which sequentially leads to further learning and development, and so on and so forth; hence, the permanent and constant nature of learning. With this nature in mind, learning and development are intertwined in reciprocal relationship, where learning contributes to development implying that development would not occur without learning of some kind.

It can be, therefore, concluded that individuals change over time. They acquire new knowledge or skills. They find new capacities within themselves. Through learning managers become more complex and differentiated and thereby better able to adapt to the changing environment. The following discussions highlight and examine both the outcomes and impact of learning on the individual and respective organization in terms of: Knowledge and competence.

Knowledge has attracted much attention as to being a key ingredient in organizational success and survival in today's changeable and highly competitive environments. And yet, if people in organizations do not possess the learning capability to use knowledge creatively, a well-developed knowledge management system cannot be directed at sustaining performance (Hwang, 2003). Knowledge has been considered as a basis for almost all value (McHugh *et al.*, 1995). Dawson (2000: 183) defined knowledge as the capacity to act effectively which is seen as an attribute of people. For organizations to maintain their competitive edge, and succeed in an increasingly changing competitive

environment, they unarguably have to move their efforts of how to generate, leverage, transfer, integrate and protect knowledge to their forefront of their fields. Naturally, organizations demand information to assure the viability of their activities as well as to make informed business decisions (Martin *et al.*, 1998). Managers, according to their tasks, must acquire the right information as well as the ability to interpret, assess alternatives in combination with the objectives sought after and ultimately make decisions in light of the information they have that is in the best interest of their organizations.

In this context, organizations should try to provide opportunities for personal and professional development and are seen as stimulators of knowledge development in order to be able to formulate competitive strategies. To explore and exploit opportunities, organizations need to establish the main orientations of knowledge management in order to expand their growing possibilities based on innovation and competitiveness; organizations must decide its competitive advantage as a function of the capability to generate fundamental change in its processes and technologies and of the elasticity to adapt its resources to the strategic formulation.

Knowledge management is considered by many as a key factor in the organization's and individuals' performance, since it can deal with different resources that are capable of aiding decision makers in a variety of ways (Keen, 1991). Organizations have realized the need for scientific and technical information flow within their boundaries which requires continuous relentless motivation of managers to seek and cultivate new information

capable of improving the performance of organizations in achieving their objectives. An important implication for managers have been to develop effective strategies for integrating innovative efforts, professional experience, skills, interactive capacities to create value for an organization's competitiveness (Carneiro, 2000).

Another potential outcome of learning is competence, a term popularized by Boyatzis (1982), which attracted significant attention in the last few years. He defined competence as *'an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job'*. Another, yet more specific, definition propounded by Nordhaug and Gronhaug (1994) defines competence as *'work-related knowledge, skills and abilities'*.

In his research attempt to establish the parameters that differentiate successful from less successful managers Boyatzis (1982) suggested the following 'clusters' of competencies: goal and action management; directing subordinates; human resource management; and leadership. Since then, numerous expounds of the term competence have been expressed about just what the concept means and how it can be applied (Roberts, 1997; Woodruff, 1990; Spencer *et al.*, 1990; Furnham, 1990). They all propound a common theme, that competencies are criterion validated; they are stemming from the behaviour of people and their performance in doing a piece of work. They are concerned with the fundamental aspects of behaviour which make the distinction between effective and less effective performance.

Competency is now a key element in the design of management development and training programs. An understanding of the competencies required for performing a

specific role is the best basis for creating learning situations. The use of competency frameworks, maps and profiles to indicate learning needs – the particular set of competencies that require to be addressed through the provision of learning opportunities and the stimulation of self-development. Competency frameworks, despite the ongoing debate presented in Woodruffe's (1991) confusion concerning their definitions and the vast number of variations used and their lack of validation, there is claimed to be a dramatic increase in the number of companies using them (Walsh, 1998).

Learning being established as an innate characteristic of organizations and the people therein, and knowledge and competence as learning's offspring. They have become to be viewed as sources from which both the individual and the organization obtain their ongoing keenness to excel and succeed, and the dynamics upon which organizations are or should be based. In the next section, several models for management development are presented and discussed.

4.3 Management Development Models and Approaches

The resource-based theory of the organization considers internal knowledge and skill as key elements towards achieving and maintaining a competitive advantage (Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990). Human capital theory argues that organizations should realize that the human asset is by far one of the most important assets organizations will ever have at their disposal through whom organizations can accomplish success and growth- human asset constitute a core competency. According to this important assumption, organizations should protect core competencies through investment in training and development (Lepak and Snell, 1999). Furthermore, Handy (1999) argued that the value of employees to the firm is related to the uniqueness and value of their capabilities and skills. This far, the previously mentioned and established assumptions about learning and its outcomes, indicate that both competitive advantage and growth are best secured when organizations have skills and capabilities that are unique, difficult to replicate and imitate by competitors.

Management development have recently attracted increased attention from scholars and practitioners alike that resulted in spurring a view to management development as a strategic tool (McClelland, 1994). This somehow recent view set the grounds for integrating management development within the broader organizational setting where managers are prepared for the complexity, uncertainty, uniqueness, and changing goals and priorities embedded in the organizations in which they are working.

The following section will present and analyze several models for management development, yet, despite the fact that some of these models do overlap with one

another at a very general level, the fine prints of each model have led to the conceptualization of management development in a different way- to some extent they are situation specific. All the models presented in the next section revolve around the very basic three stages process highlighted in chapter two.

4.3.1 Mumford's Model to Management Development

Mumford (1993) classified three approaches to management development with considerable implications for management development strategies. These approaches reflect different sets of situational factors that could occur in an organization. Alternatively, depending on organizational contingencies an approach is selected that best matches the attributes and needs of the organization. Table 4.1 illustrates the three approaches.

Table 4.1

Mumford Three Approaches to Management Development

Type 1 Informal managerial - accidental process	Type 2 Integrated managerial – opportunistic process	Type 3 Formalized development – planned processes
Occurs within manager’s activities Explicit intention is task performance No clear development objectives Unstructured in development terms Owned by managers.	Occurs within managerial activities Explicit intention is both task performance and development Clear development objectives Structured for development by boss and subordinate Planned beforehand and/or reviewed subsequently as learning experiences Owned by managers.	Often away from normal managerial activities Explicit intention is development Clear development objectives Structured for development by developers Planned beforehand or reviewed subsequently as learning experiences Owned more by developers than managers.
Learning real, direct, natural, unconscious and insufficient	Learning real, direct conscious and more substantial	Learning may be real (through a job) or detached (through a course) Is more likely to be conscious, relatively infrequent and contrived.

Source: Adapted from Mumford (1993)

Mumford’s Type 1 and Type 3 have a propensity to result in fragmented and discrete management development strategies which will most likely fail to fulfil personal and organization expectations. Additionally, both types fail to adopt a holistic view of the organization where issues like culture, structure, rules and procedures are not addressed. Development initiatives representing Type 1 and Type 3 would not produce the desired

changes unless wider issues connected with culture and structures were addressed (Beardwell and Holden, 2001).

Type 2 on the other hand views management development as an integral part of a wider organizational context as opposed to viewing it in isolation. Thus, this approach to management development emphasizes the conceptualization of the organization as an open system. Moreover and more importantly, Type 2 is seen as linked closely to the context and reality of managerial work.

4.3.2 The Burgoyne Model: Levels of Maturity of Organizational Management Development

Burgoyne (1988) similarly suggested that management development can be conceptualized as progressing through different levels of maturity (see Table 4.2), a sequence that can only take place in the context of a holistic approach to management development in which both “hard” and “soft” managerial issues are considered in framing the right strategy.

Table 4.2

Burgoyne Levels of Maturity of Organizational Management Development

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level 6
No systematic management development	Isolated tactical management development	Integrated and coordinated structural and developmental tactics	A management development strategy input to corporate policy	Management development strategy input to corporate policy formation	Strategic development of the management of corporate policy

Source: Adapted from Burgoyne (1988)

Burgoyne’s model described an evolutionary logic, which leads gradually from a practically missing relationship to the most powerful integration between strategic management and management development. The model included six levels of maturity that organizations tend to follow when they seek to strengthen the role of management development as strategic activity.

At Level 1 there is no systematic approach to management development, and at Level 6 management development not only shapes and informs corporate strategy, it actually enhances the process of strategy formation. In practice, management development approaches for most organizations rarely extend beyond Levels 1 and 2. Those who reach Levels 5 and 6 are often unsteadily attained and gone astray. Burgoyne argued that to progress through the levels of maturity to the point where management development is making the fullest contribution to organization development demands a much more holistic approach to development, in which a group of elements (roles, duties, career, quality of life, values, etc.) are given enough attention in formulating the right approach.

Burgoyne's model as well as Mumford's model emphasized different aspects of strategic management development. Burgoyne's model highlighted the depth of integration and the development in the management activity, whereas Mumford's model highlighted a variety of forms in which integration may take place and the nature of learning that results. Strategies with qualities of Mumford's Type 1 and Type 3 and Burgoyne's Level 1 and level 2 are inclined to lead to 'piecemeal' approaches. Such fragmented and discrete approaches are described in the next section.

4.3.3 A 'Piecemeal' Approach

Management development approaches that have characteristics similar to Mumford's Type 1 and Type 3 development and Burgoyne's Level 1 and Level 2 result in inefficient and ineffective development. To this end, a significant contribution of the failure of management development to fulfil personal and organizational expectations may be attributed (Mumford, 1993). A piecemeal approach can result from a number of reasons including resource constraints, organizational policies, groups who seek to exert control over development, or a focus on formalized, intensive management training program. According to Doyle (2000) approaches of such nature were characterized by the following:

- The absence of management development infrastructure where activities are unrelated and lack direction or philosophy. They fail to increase organizational effectiveness.

- Development is based on the organizations' needs failing to incorporate the needs and expectations of the individual.
- Development is largely viewed as ready-to-go internal and external courses.
- The support for management development is quite often unrelated to organizational needs.
- Lack of consensus on the role and importance of management development.
- Sometimes it is used as a remedy to an erroneous problem. In some cases the solution might reside in changing the structure or systems within an organization - not necessarily management development.
- An inherent problem with piecemeal approaches is the difficulty in evaluating the effectiveness of such approaches since they lack clear objectives and direction.

Unfortunately, disorganized and detached approaches to management development are widespread across many organizations (Roberts and McDonald, 1995; Hitt, 1987). Aside from being a bad investment in terms of money, time and effort, these approaches may hurt existing levels of morale and loyalty among managers as efforts to develop them break down on organizational barriers to change (Doyle, 2000). Furthermore, Molander and Winterton (1994) argued that when such barriers to change exist, the focus should not be on developing managers since it will not produce the required change. Instead, an assessment of the issues which require change must be completed and an effective change program should follow suit; hence the organization itself becomes the focus of change.

4.3.4 The Three-Stage Model

To help them identify the problem of the research more clearly Luomo *et al.* (2005) have created a three-stage model which was the outcome of merging together Burgoyne's model with that of Mumford's.

The three-stage model emphasized the strong relationship between strategic management and management development wherein differences between real stages of development are clearly illustrated and organizes them so that they reflect the progress to a higher level of integration between strategic management and management development. Luomo *et al.* (2005) argued that there is no reason why some organizations could not start its management development directly from any of the higher stages, yet this model can be viewed as creating a stepwise model for organization to follow. It is argued that this model is capable of providing the organization with a clear roadmap to achieve higher integration between the strategies that the organizations conceive as important and the function of management development. Thus, management development according to this model assumed a dynamic role in supporting the organization to accomplish its strategic goals. Table 4.3 demonstrates the stages, their basic content, and resemblance with the levels and types presented in Burgoyne and Mumford models.

Table 4.3

The Three-stage model

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Sporadic Management Development	Reactive Management Development	Integrative Management Development

- Strengthening integration between management development and strategic management
- More systematic and purposeful use of various management development activities

Source: adapted from Luomo *et al.* (2005)

- *Sporadic management development:* management development lacks clear objectives and the initiatives for development are out of sync with the organizational strategy. Line organization ownership of management development initiatives is weak. Learning benefits the individual rather than the organization because such management development initiatives are loosely fixed with specific development needs or future aspirations of the organization. (This stage relates to Levels 1 and 2 in Burgoyne’s model and Type 1 in Mumford’s model)
- *Reactive management development:* management development is used as a remedy to recognized problems or projected pitfalls in performance. It contributes to supplementing the organization with technical, financial, product/market know how in accordance with the organization strategy. Contrary to the first stage,

management development initiatives are seen to be more consistent particularly representing formal learning. Also, management development initiatives in this stage benefit the organization rather than individual. (Burgoyne's Levels 2 and 3, Mumford's Type 3)

- *Integrative management development*: the organization at this stage is committed to providing a mix of management development programs, formal and non-formal, that complement each other. At this stage the link between strategic management and management development is strengthened wherein management development focuses on key elements in the current strategy. At the same time management development is used as an input to the business strategy where this process is intentionally sought after. Both the organization and the individual shall reap the benefits of management development (In accord with Burgoyne's and Mumford's Models Levels 4, 5, and 6 and Type 2 respectively).

4.3.5 An Open Systems Approach

In Chapter Two the open systems perspective was introduced as a way of conceptualizing and gaining a deeper meaning of the intricacy of organizational life (Morgan 1997; Burns, 1992). A major contribution of systems perspective is that it discloses the synthesizing, relational, and integrative qualities of an organization and promotes an awareness of the complex connections and patterns of causal relationships that exist both internally and externally to the organization (Morgan, 1986). A system approach, as advocated by Doyle

(1994), viewed management development in terms of an integral part of a wider organizational system, and linked to the context and reality of managerial work. It is argued that if organizations can be influenced to assume an open systems perspective they are likely to surmount many of the problems embedded in a piecemeal approach to management development and training. Such a perspective recognized that management development at one and the same time both a system and process which composed of identifiable parts that act together in an organized fashion. It is a dynamic activity which is constantly interacting with actors and forces from other environmental and organizational subsystems, such as culture, technology, structure, and social. Stewart (1994) and Burgoyne (1988) argued that not only does management development become involved in developing new skills but it also has to confront and adapt to changing career patterns. At the same time, a well integrated strategic plan must integrate management development as key component to develop managerial skills and knowledge.

Having said this, Doyle (1994) argued that adopting a systems perspective would lead to the development of a broader set of strategies, policies and plans; it allows the idea that if you develop the manager, you develop the organization and vice versa- organizational development through management development; it promotes improved individual and organizational performance and greater responsiveness in the face of change; it is capable of being a more objective approach and a better assessment tool of performance and overall effectiveness; and according to Garavan *et al.* (1999) viewing management

development in open systems terms contributed to the creation of a positive learning culture enabling the encompassing of generative learning.

In view of the above, management development is best characterized as a subsystem in a larger system where all parts (subsystems) are integrated to achieve a common goal. Hence, it is insightful to infer that management development interacts with and influences other parts that make up a complete system and in return management development effectiveness in terms of planning and performance will, to a large extent, depend on the influence that other subsystems wield. Many researchers (Gravan, 1999; Doyle, 1994; Hitt, 1987), therefore, advised that management development is best conceptualized as an open system- Figure 4.1 illustrates the open systems perspective of management development as conceptualized by Doyle (2004). It views management development as a process (three sequential stages: development needs identification; development activities; and evaluation of outcomes), and as a system of interrelated elements whereby these elements affect and are affected by management development.

Figure 4.1

A View of Management Development from an Open Systems Perspective

Source: Adapted from Doyle (2004)

4.3.6 A Strategic Multi-level Model for Human Resource Development

Thomas Garavan (2007) proposed a model for strategic management development that is multi-level and concentrates on the interplay between context, human resource development processes, stakeholder satisfaction, and characteristics of the human resource profession. Garavan presented a model (Figure 4.2) where he argued that four levels of context are important to capture the contributions of strategic human resource development. The four levels of context are as follows:

Level 1: The Global Environment

It has been argued by many academics and practitioners (Morrow and Hitt, 2000; Semler, 1997) that an organization need to stay alert and attentive to the external environment even if it enjoys a remarkable internal strength. Accordingly, the model proposed three categories from which the global environment can be best viewed, local, national, and multinational. For example, social and cultural forces, economic and political conditions, technological advancements, and labour market conditions can all have a profound impact on the effectiveness and strength of management development.

Level 2: Strategy, Structure, Culture, and Leadership

At this level the model emphasizes the importance of internal context (strategic orientation, organization structure, organization culture and leadership) for management development to achieve its aspirations.

Garavan (2007) argued that the strategic orientation of an organization will influence its perception and application of management development programs that best allow the organization to achieve its planned strategic objectives. For instance, organizations pursuing an innovative strategy should strive to create change by fostering a flexible and dynamic internal environment conducive for and capable of change.

At the same time, an organization structure poses an important element of internal context. Here Garavan (2007) differentiated between organizations with 'domestic' or 'global' structures wherein he argues that organizations of domestic structure enjoy more choices in terms of management development practices but with lowered level of sophistication than global structures. Organizations also need to achieve structural alignment which is the level of congruence between the processes of the organization and the behaviours elicited by management development practices (Semler, 1997).

An important ingredient in management development practices and processes is organization culture. Culture (values, language, traditions) provides a measurement yardstick to assess whether management development practices are coherent with organization culture and supports organizational strategies and objectives.

Leadership is significant to supporting the practice and process of management development. It can emphasize the multifarious investment or divestment in management development. Leadership provides legitimacy for management development programs and activities. Equally, Collins and Clark (2003) argued that management development enhances organization performance because it motivates

leaders to develop internal and external social networks that they leverage to enhance the financial bottom-line.

Level 3: Job Value and Uniqueness

The nature and importance of the job to the organization is of great significance to which management development programs and activities are applied. The value aspect refers to the employee potential to help the build up the organization performance. The uniqueness aspect is concerned with the degree to which human resource is rare, specialist, and organization specific. Not all jobs have the same level of value and uniqueness. Therefore, organizations will decide on which practices to use in relation with the job. In the same line, Wood and deMenezes (1998) found that differences in the application of management development programs were intended and more sophisticated ones were applied to jobs with more value and uniqueness.

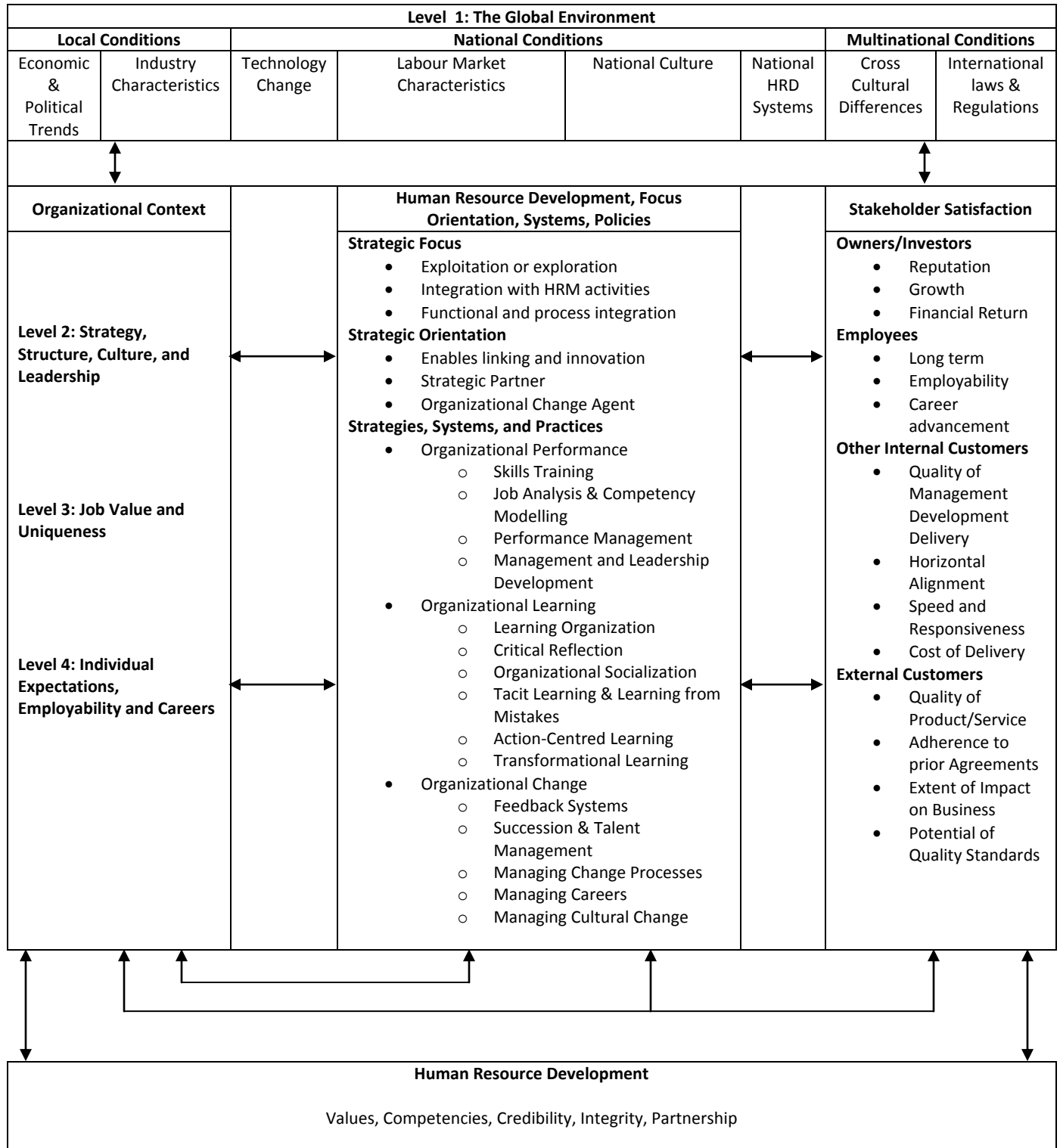
Level 4: Individual Expectations, Employability, and Careers

Employee expectations are an important element in the decisions that organizations make regarding management development programs. Kanter (1997) argued that in a post-entrepreneurial world, the best source of security for people is a guarantee not of a specific job, or a specific employer, but of their employability. According to research concerning how organizations respond to employability, it shows that a discrepancy exist between what organizations have offered their employees and what employees regarded as necessary for their future in terms of management development.

This model emphasized the view of management development as a *'coherent, vertically aligned and horizontally integrated set of learning and development activities which contributed to the achievement of strategic goals'* (Garavan, 2007). The model highlighted that management development is best understood as a multi-level concept that is dynamic in nature and enables the firm to achieve both efficiency and adaptability. In its making, the model incorporated valid discussions within strategic management as well as the open-systems theory, and the stakeholder theory. Hence, Garavan (2007) disagreed with the notion that management development is best characterized as an open system. He argued that there are multiple variables that influence the effectiveness of management development planning and implementation and ultimately the performance of the organization. He therefore proposed that it is advisable to focus on the various actions and stakeholders involved, the values of the organization and the nature of management development processes themselves.

Figure 4.2

Contextual and Dynamic Framework for Strategic Human Resource Development



Source: Adapted from Garavan (2007)

4.3.7 Analoui's Model for Strategic Human Resource Development

A similar model to that of Garavan's is proposed by Analoui (2007) which underlined the fact that for management development to achieve its objectives in developing the individual as well as the organization, a more holistic and strategic approach to management development was needed - a strategic link between management development as a function and other organizational functions must be in tact at all times, thus improving the performance of the various functions undertaken by an organization. It is worth mentioning that Analoui's extensive research in the field of management development in transitional economies have brought him to the realization that in these countries activities and programs concerning management development and training are carried out without any concern or relationship to the strategic aims and objectives of the organization.

Garavan's influence is somewhat clear in the model conceived by Analoui where he made use of the training, education and development elements as the main pillars upon which the whole model sits. The model is composed of five stages: *policy formulation* which requires that policies for management development must be established at all levels and communicated to all parties involved in the process; *awareness raising* where the organization needs to increase the level of awareness of those individuals/groups involved in the process of development concerning development programs and activities and how they fit with organizational context and its associated objectives; *intervention* is the stage in which the required developmental activities and programs are implemented

to bring about the anticipated change; *transfer* and *utilization* are the fourth and fifth stages, respectively, where organizations must attain the transferability of newly learned or acquired information and skills to 'actual job situations' (Analoui, 2007) and from one individual/group to another. Proper utilization of the available resources, new or old, should provide for better and improved performance on one's job.

This study will depend to some extent on the above model since it incorporates a variety of important issues not only regarding the details of a specific development program but also how these programs fit within the wider context of the organization. Also, the context of the study corresponds with those contexts wherein this model was envisaged.

4.3.8 A Conceptual Model for Analyzing Management Development

Sandra Watson (2008) presented a conceptual contingent model of hospitality management development. The model, however, assumed that hospitality management education has evolved and became a distinct field of study which suggested that hospitality managers have distinct educational development needs. The model built on the work of Doyle (2004) by articulating the hospitality industry as a distinct contextual domain that influences approaches to, and content of, management development. In developing her proposed model, Watson (2008) involved identifying the core constituents or dimensions and exploration of its boundaries and their characteristics. The core dimensions of management development are identification of development needs, management development activities (designing development and training solutions), and

evaluating development outcomes. These dimensions can be viewed as the norm for almost every management development model which assumes that management development is a process involving three main stages: diagnosis, treatment, and evaluation. Yet, Watson's model (2008) suggested a situational perspective which places management development within various contexts- in this case the hospitality environment. Accordingly, the researcher identified multiple domains in which management development is expected to perform. Precisely four domains that bound management development were identified, the domain of the management development process, the domain of management development systems, the domain of hospitality organization and the domain of contextual hospitality environments. The domain perspective underlines the open system approach to management development where each domain affects and is affected by the other domains- constant exchange of information and resources.

The above model is embryonic which has not been tested yet, however, it is derived from a diverse range of literatures mainly Doyle (2004). Although, it was developed purposefully for hospitality managers, there is still the potential possibility of applying it across different sectors to explore and compare distinct features.

4.3.9 The Competency-Based Management Development Model

The concept of competency was first popularized by Boyatzis (1982) that suggested that there was no single factor but a range of factors that differentiated successful from less

successful managers. The range of factors included personal qualities, motives, experience and behavioural characteristics. Boyatzis defined competency as '*a capacity that exists in a person that leads to behaviour that meets the job demands within the parameters of the organizational environment and that, in turn, brings about desired results*'. Thereafter, numerous definitions by different researchers were produced such as Roberts, 1997; Woodruffe, 1990; Spencer *et al.*, 1990; and Furnham, 1990. They all emphasized the behaviour of people and its impact on their performance with frequent stress on 'soft skills'.

Competency-based management development applies competency frameworks, maps or profiles as a means of identifying and expressing development needs and pointing the way to self-managed learning programs or the provision of learning opportunities by the organization (Armstrong, 1999). The model has a tendency to focus on a limited number of core or general competences which the organization has decided will be an indispensable part of the skills of their managers if they are going to take the organization onward in line with its strategic plans. For example:

- *Strategic capability* to recognize and adjust their strategic fit with the changing external and internal environment in which their organization performs to maximize their strategic response.
- *Change management capability* to identify areas that require change, developing plans for change and convincing others to participate in the process of implementation.

- *Team management capability* to understand the dynamics of teamwork and how to foster a good environment for people from different backgrounds to work well together.
- *Relationship management capability* to develop effectively a network of people through which an exchange of information and resources can lead to the accomplishment of common objectives.
- *International management* to manage your relationships with people effectively in different cultural contexts across different geographical regions of the globe.

Storey (1989a) argued that the competency-based approach to management development has gained popularity and work on refining competency profiles is currently at the cutting edge of activity. This model is more and more becoming a commonplace for management development and training in organizations (O'Donnell and Garavan, 1997).

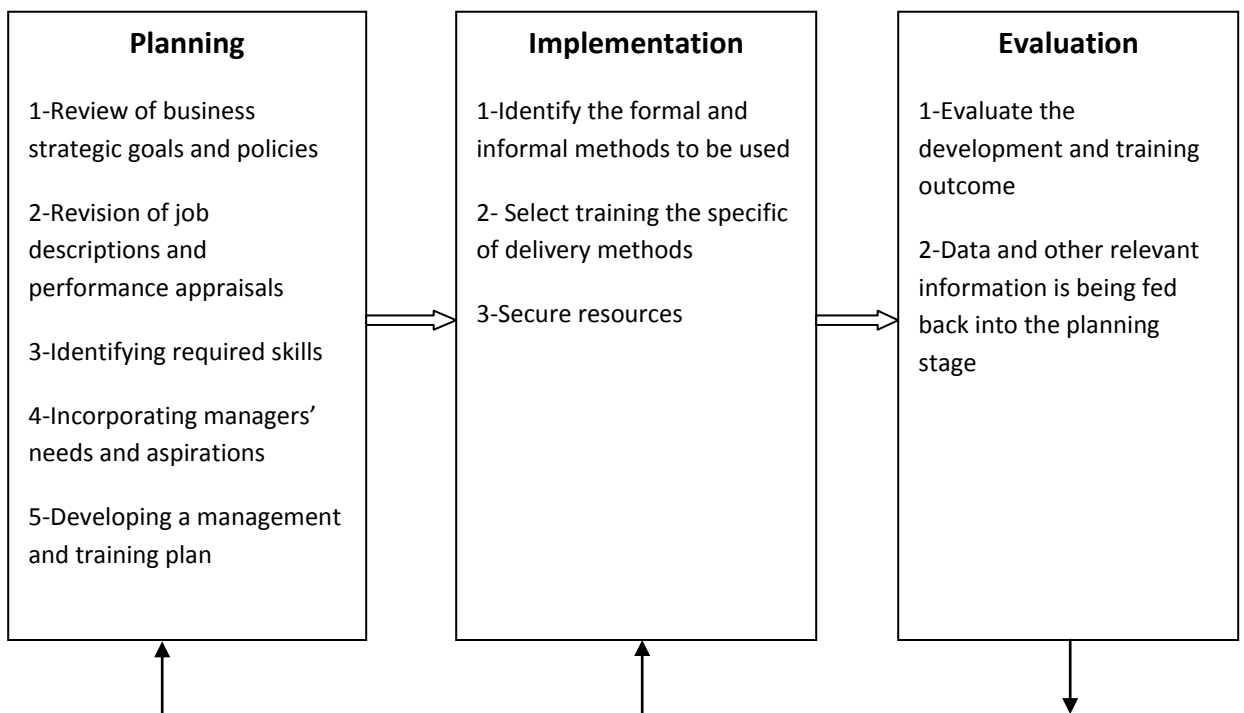
This approach to management development has sought to develop managers through workplace activities with the concentration on the manager's ability to perform and deliver predetermined outcomes rather than the achievement of specific knowledge and qualifications. Particularly those programs with the most standardized structure have attracted considerable criticism among practitioners and scholars alike. For instance, competency-based models were criticized with being too functional and behavioural in orientation, and too simplistic and bureaucratic.

4.3.10 The Conceptual Model Guiding this Study

In pursuit of achieving the objectives of the study, a guiding model is needed on which the researcher will depend, whilst steering his research efforts. It will also provide insights on the type and extent of information required to answer the research questions. The model to be used in this study is based on the researcher's understanding of the previously mentioned models that highlight the field of management development and training. Therefore, the model developed for this particular study is a mixture of what other researchers have proposed, while maintaining the basic tenets of management at the heart of it.

Figure 4.3

The Basic Model for Management Development and Training



Source: Adapted from Watson, 2008; Analoui, 2007; Garavan, 2007; and Doyle, 2004

Figure 4.3 shows the basic tenets of the model, namely planning, implementation, and evaluation. These three tenets are then broken down into a set of activities that are thought to be vital for achieving effectiveness in management development and training. Each phase must be completed and satisfied before moving to the next phase in order to have a gradual and clear process; the underlying fundamental of this model is the system thinking which means in this model that the three tenets are interrelated and interdependent. The fact that anything could go wrong in one of the three phases could have negative consequences on the entire process.

The study will use this model as a guiding model when formulating its data collection instruments and in exploring the views and opinions of the respective managers.

4.4 Summary and Implications: On the Road to a More Unified and Successful Approach to Management Development and Training

This chapter has examined conceptual aspects around which the whole function of management development and training progress: learning, knowledge, and competency. Given that these concepts residing at the centre of many of the developmental initiatives, they should not be viewed as end results, yet they are milestones towards achieving organizational success and individual growth. The importance of such concepts were discussed, the need to fit them to the structure and culture of the organization, and how organizations should go about in managing them.

This chapter has also reviewed the main models and approaches to management development and in this section it goes on to suggest a synthesis of what was discussed in the above sections. The models and approaches reviewed were Mumford's model to management development, the Burgoyne model: levels of maturity of organizational management development, the three-stage model, an open systems approach, a strategic multi-level model for human resource development, Analoui's model for strategic human resource development, a conceptual model for analyzing management development, and the competency-based management development model.

The main theme that was evident through the preceding sections has been that management development cannot be seen as a closed system. Viewing management development as a closed system would lead to a piecemeal and fragmented approach with consequences for organizational success and development. Management development may suffer in terms of not achieving its objectives when managers encounter structural, cultural and political obstacles to their development. Running through these contextual obstacles managers may quickly become frustrated and disillusioned. The consequences can be disastrous in terms of managers' morale and motivation as aspirations and expectations are not satisfied (Doyle, 1995).

In a unified program, management development rests at the very heart of the organization's philosophy, mission, business goals and human resource strategy. As Hitt (1987: 53) argues *'effective management of the enterprise and development of*

managerial talent are a single integrated activity'. Ready *et al.* (1994) have emphasized this by arguing that when organizations adopt a unified approach to management development all components of the executive process will come together to concentrate on the most essential result of the process: the development of a sustainable focus on organizational learning and ultimately competitiveness.

Organizations require a more holistic, integrated perspective in which management development is both dependent upon the interaction of contextual variables and embraces formal and informal learning opportunities and processes. Management development is best seen as an open subsystem that concentrates on the interplay between a range of elements that is concerned with managing the complexity embedded in organizations- it stresses the interaction between management development as a subsystem and other organizational subsystems. This view will require a new attitude and scope of work towards making sure that managers will deliver business goals.

This, however, would have implications for those with responsibilities for management development who ultimately have to move away from the role of needs assessor, program coordinator and administrator to a role that is much more results and change oriented (Temporal, 1990).

4.5 Need for the Study and Research Question Reiterated

The need for research to cover the area of management development and training has never been more important. Also, to advance further the awareness and quality of programs and activities that assumes the development of managers and their organizations. Given the constant flux in the environment in which organizations operate, increased competitiveness among organizations, and heightened pressure to accommodate employees - provided that they are now more savvy and capable - within organizations that allow them to grow and prosper side by side with their organizations. Organizations are showing greater than before commitment to a critical function: management development. After all, this important function can assume greater responsibility – provided that keen attention and dedication of resources have been allocated to this function - in elevating the performance and spirit of the organization; organizations can become more adaptable and accommodating to change, challenges are better managed and taken advantage of, people are feeling more appreciated and valued.

This study is hoped to contribute to the literature on management development and training, especially in the Palestinian telecommunication sector, by filling the gap that already exists in such an important field. It is meant to be an instrument for discovering how the Palestinian telecommunication sector goes about managing this function and how it is perceived by various parties involved in the process. In the eventual completion of the study it is also hoped that it can provoke the brains of

people who assume responsibility for this function by emphasizing its importance and prowess in carrying the organization, and the people therein, from a current state to a better future state: where the organization is capable of growing above and beyond its traditional boundaries. Handy (1993: 371), stated that 'organizations which can allow old ways to die and new ways to grow will survive and have the chance to prosper'.

Development is an instrument for all subjects and meddles everywhere. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832) put it best, 'nature knows no pause in progress and development, and attaches her curse on all inaction'. Change is a permanent characteristic of an organization: organizations change over time, either voluntarily or coercively. However, the ones that will survive are the ones most responsive to change. Management development is an important function or activity capable of enhancing the responsive aptitude in organizations to challenge all that they are confronted with. It is also capable of transforming individual managers by developing and changing their competencies, attitudes, skills, and beliefs into managers better led, better-equipped, up to the challenges they face within and outside their realm of work.

This study will depend on both desk and field research in answering the following research question:

1- How training and development programs for senior and middle managers are conceived and implemented within the telecommunication sector in Palestine?
What are the nature and extent of such programs?

This research question stems from the researcher's attempt to explore the current status of training and development in the surveyed organizations, how programs are planned, implemented and evaluated. Answering this research question will ensure that the aims and objectives of the study are achieved.

4.6 Summary

Being an important activity/function in terms of its ability to contribute immensely, to the attainment of organizational goals, developing managerial and organizational effectiveness, and improving organizational capacity represented in its managers to cope with changes in the environment, management development should be viewed as a strategic tool used in envisaging organizational strategic aspirations. On a national scale, the fruition of economic development and well-being can be exacerbated unless initiatives are taken to incorporate and integrate management development within a much wider national scale where it becomes one of the key fundamentals upon which economic prosperity is achieved.

Management development must be established on the grounds that it will generate several benefits to the organization as well as the individual manager who above all

else is the most dynamic and valuable asset organizations will ever possess- at least in the foreseeable future. It is equally important to view management development as the behind the scene energy directed towards increased individual productivity and motivation. The intensity and form of such energy must be adaptable to the context in which organizations operate. This means that organizations must be aware of and pay close attention to, the simple but extremely important contextual factors capable of either improving the quality of management development programs or vice versa.

So far, the models presented throughout this chapter emphasize several equally important dimensions of an effective management development programs. Notwithstanding piecemeal approaches, management development models focus on a more holistic view to management development, heightened attention to the interplay that management development has with other organizational activities, and the role assumed in the overall wider spectrum of the organization concerning developing managerial effectiveness and adaptability. Therefore, any suggested model capable of better developing the managers in the telecommunication sector in Palestine must take into account cultural, economic, socio-political, and individual differences with increased alertness to the needs and goals of the organization.

The next chapter presents the methods and techniques used in this research in order to answer the research question.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

As was introduced in Chapter One, this study aims at examining the current condition of management development and training programs in the telecommunication sector, in particular those related to senior (top) and middle managers.

This section of the study provides background information related to the research method and design. It intends to present the methodological procedures that were employed to collect the data during the field research conducted in Palestine. Robson (2002; 223) stated that the selection of a method or methods is based on what kind of information is sought, from whom and under what circumstances. Therefore, to be able to solve or answer research problems or questions there need to be a systematic, focused and orderly collection of data.

The chapter begins with a presentation of the main research methods available and a rationalization for the chosen approach for this research. This is followed by a discussion of the research methodology used in this study by expounding the dichotomy in research between quantitative and qualitative orientations to research. A description of the tools used in collecting the data is then presented, in tandem with the limitations of the research. Also, in this section, a discussion of how the questionnaire was developed, translated into Arabic, piloted and administered in conjunction with actions taken to improve response rates. The nature and purpose of the interviews conducted for this

study are also discussed. Next, the chapter highlights some salient issues of sampling, which then follows through to identifying the exact sampling strategy and procedures in selecting the sample in this research.

Finally, the chapter concludes with a consideration for the methods to be used in analyzing collected data as well as the obstacles/difficulties faced by the researcher during fieldwork.

5.2 Research Design and Method Appropriateness

Designing a research and deciding on the methods to be used therein is a very delicate matter, which require due diligence and attention. Researchers are expected to select the most appropriate design for their own research in order to accomplish the goals thereof. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), the researcher must define her or his chosen research design in order to set the direction for the study as well as to what and why data are being collected. Without it, the researcher will neither be able to solve the problem under investigation nor make sense of data collected.

On one hand, McMillan and Schumacher (1993: 8) defined research as ‘systematic process of collecting and logically analyzing information for some purpose’. On the other hand, their definition corresponds with that of Davis and Cosenza (1985: 90) which stated that ‘research design can be thought of as a road map for researchers...’ and that of Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 99), ‘the program that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting observations’. Furthermore, Zikmund

(1997) represented research design as a 'master plan' that designates the methods and procedures for gathering and interpreting information.

This being said, research design is a must do stage in any research undertaking which denotes an effort to systematize and map out the work of the researcher in clear and sequential order. It constitutes a predetermination of the information required, techniques deployed, sampling plan plus a corresponding budget. In other words, research design should answer the following questions: what information is needed; how to collect it; and, why information is collected.

'Design is concerned with turning research questions into projects.' (Robson, 2002: 79)

Robson (2002) stated that research designs fall under two general categories: *fixed design* which is tightly pre-specified before you reach the main data collection stage, where data are almost always in the form of numbers - hence this type is commonly referred to as a quantitative strategy; *flexible design* - the second category - evolves during data collection, where data are typically non-numerical (usually in the form of words) - hence this type is often referred to as a qualitative strategy. The fact that a research design can be either fixed or flexible does not prohibit that certain research designs can include a flexible phase or element within an otherwise fixed design or more often the reverse sequence. As table 5.1 shows, further dissection of research designs under fixed and flexible research designs are possible, allowing the researcher to choose or even combine different types - one or multiple strategies.

Table 5.1

Traditional Fixed and Flexible Design Research Strategies

Fixed design research strategies	Features
<p><i>Experimental Strategy</i> The central feature is that the researcher actively and deliberately introduces some form of change in the situation, circumstances or experiences of participants with a view to producing a resultant change in their behaviour.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Selection of samples of individuals from known populations - Allocation of samples to different experimental conditions - Introduction of planned change on one or more variable - Control of other variables - Usually involves hypothesis testing
<p><i>Non-experimental strategy</i> The overall approach is the same as in the experimental strategy but the researcher does not attempt to change the situation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Selection of samples of individuals from known populations - Allocation of samples to different experimental conditions - Measurement on small number of variables - Control of other variables - May or may not involve hypothesis testing
Flexible design research strategies	
<p><i>Case study</i> Development of detailed, intensive knowledge about a single case or of a small number of related cases.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Selection of a single case or a small number of cases - Study of the case in its context - Collection of information via a range of data collection techniques including observation, interview and documentary analysis
<p><i>Ethnographic study</i> Seeks to capture, interpret and explain how a group, organization or community lives, experience and make sense of their lives and their world.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Selection of a group, organization or community of interest - Immersion of the researcher in that setting - Use of participant observation
<p><i>Grounded theory study</i> The central aim is to generate theory from data collected during the study.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Applicable to a wide variety of phenomena - Commonly interview-based - A systematic but flexible research strategy which provides detailed prescriptions for data analysis and theory generation

Source: Robson (2002: 88-90)

Furthermore, a quadripartite classification is commonly used distinguishing between exploratory, descriptive, explanatory and emancipator (Marshall and Rossman, 1999) approaches according to the purpose of enquiry (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009; Robson, 2002; Zikmund, 1997). Brief descriptions of the four classifications are as follows:

- 1- Exploratory research is undertaken to find out what is happening when researchers do not know much about a situation. To seek new insights. To ask questions and generate ideas for future research. Almost exclusively of flexible design.
- 2- Descriptive research is undertaken to portray an accurate profile of persons or situations. Previous knowledge is required to know appropriate aspects on which to gather information and to answer questions like who, what, when, where, and how (Zikmund, 1997). May be of flexible and/or fixed design.
- 3- Explanatory research is undertaken when the researcher seeks an explanation of a situation or problem, or to explain the nature of certain relationships, traditionally but not necessarily in the form of causal relationships. May be of flexible and/or fixed design.
- 4- Emancipatory research is undertaken to create opportunities and the will to engage in social action. Almost exclusively of flexible design.

Based on the above discussion and brief presentation of the types of research designs and approaches to doing research, the approach most appropriate for the present research is mainly an exploratory non-experimental research. The research, however, will

combine both quantitative and qualitative methods in gathering and analyzing data during field work. The reason behind this choice is mostly because this type of research would allow the researcher to portray the state of the current situation and existing conditions of management development and training in the Palestinian telecommunication sector with the hope to point out areas for improvement. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), an exploratory research can yield several advantages if data is presented in a meaningful form. For one, exploratory research provides useful insights about a specific situation; second, it offers the researcher a systematic approach to conceptualizing on certain ideas; thirdly, not as low as descriptive research does, exploratory research offers ideas for further research.

Although this research is mainly exploratory in nature, it will also attempt to identify possible relationships and trends as well as how certain variables are related - a correlation aspect of the design.

5.3 The Methodology in this Research

Prior to discussing the methodology used in this research, any researcher is expected to have acquired some fundamental skills and knowledge before being entrusted with this significant responsibility. A review of the two major research methods in social sciences – quantitative and qualitative - is always useful at this point.

5.3.1 Quantitative Method

In many cases quantitative research methods and the survey method are used interchangeably as a result of the increased association of survey methods with that of quantitative research (Burns and Bush, 1995). According to Robson (2002), quantitative research refers to the orderly empirical examination of quantitative characteristics and phenomena and their relationships. The objective of this method is to classify features, count them, and construct statistical and mathematical models, theories, and hypothesis in an attempt to explain what is observed.

Quantitative research is widely used in social sciences with vast history which contributed substantially to knowledge in many disciplines (Burnett and Holton, 1997). A study conducted by Hunter and Leahey (2008) showed that two thirds of 1,274 articles published in two major American sociology journals between 1935 and 2005 have used quantitative methods.

Several characteristics of quantitative research were put forward by Sekaran and Bougie (2009). Below is a summary of those characteristics:

- Deductive or top-down approach to research wherein the researcher tests hypothesis and theory with data.
- The objectives of research are of a descriptive, explanatory, and predictive nature.
- The research involves two or more variables by which the researcher attempts to point out relationships.
- Data gathered is in the form of numbers and statistics.

- Reality is objective separated from individual beliefs and feelings (consensus among observers concerning what is being observed).
- The results of research are of generalizable nature.

5.3.2 Qualitative Method

In contrast, qualitative research is usually small scale focusing on explaining a situation or a social setting in great detail with no dependence on numerical data analysis or a formal hypothesis. Using several types of qualitative data gathering techniques such as observations, recordings, documents, etc..., this method aims for a detailed description and understanding of the situation under investigation (Robson, 2002). Hakim (1987) argued that this method is more often used in disciplines where emphasis is on description and explanation rather than on prediction. Layder (1993), furthermore, argued that a qualitative method is more appropriate when a micro level of social organization is under investigation as opposed to quantitative method appropriateness at a macro level. Similar to the above, a summary of the main characteristics of qualitative method is presented below as stated by Sekaran and Bougie (2009):

- Inductive or bottom-up approach to research wherein the researcher generates new hypotheses from data collected during fieldwork.
- This type of research demands a profound knowledge of and familiarization with a specific situation or case.
- The research objectives are of a descriptive, explanatory, and discovery nature.

- Attempts to study behaviour in which behaviour occurs (e.g. Natural environment).
- Reality is subjective, personal, and socially constructed (e.g. multiple realities can be socially constructed about a specific situation).
- The results of research are specific to the situation or case.

5.3.3 Using Multiple Methods

A research question or problem can be tackled by more than one method. Often, it is the personal preference of an investigator influenced by his or her past experience, which dictate that they should use a particular method. Many researchers (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009; Robson, 2002; and Jankowicz, 1995) conferred on this argument with each other by stating that there is no one best method, however there are some methods more used than others depending on the nature of the research.

The fact that there is no such thing as a rule that says that only one method must be used in a particular research may complicate things for the researcher. Cooper and Schindler (1998), maintain that this might be a difficult decision at first sight, however consolidating the advantages and disadvantages of each method with the purpose and questions of the research will make this seemingly difficult decision a far more easier one and more suitable to the researcher needs.

Using more than one method can have substantial advantages, even though it almost inevitably adds to time investment required (Robson, 2002). Researches may mix methods generating quantitative data with others yielding qualitative data. Thus, the use

of a single method and finding a pretty straightforward result may mislead researchers into believing that they have found the correct answer. Although the increasing impact of using additional/other methods has produced some confusion and uncertainty, it does help remove erroneous certainty. There is also the general problem that, in so far it is impossible to avoid the confounding effects of methods on our measurements. A high possibility that some unknown aspect/s of the results obtained is attributable to the method used in obtaining the result. The fact, hence, those results cannot be obtained for which some method has not been used to collect them, the only feasible strategy is to use a variety of methods.

Using more than one method can also help allowing the researcher to answer or address different but complementary questions (Robson, 2002); the researcher does not have to focus his research on a single question (e.g. exploratory work using unstructured interviews followed by a descriptive work conducting survey).

According to Robson (2002), using several methods can also enhance interpretability if used in a complementary fashion. For example, the narrative report (qualitative in nature) can augment the statistical analysis (quantitative in nature), and vice versa, an account of statistical analysis can help clarify the qualitative aspect of a study.

The list below provided by Robson (2002) identified several approaches to combining qualitative and quantitative methods. The following list summarizes the major ones:

- Triangulation: matching the results of qualitative method with those of quantitative method.

- Hybrids: one way to combine the approaches is to use qualitative methods in a fixed design, or quantitative methods in a flexible design (e.g. quantitative methods employed in a case study).
- Relations between macro and micro levels: as mentioned above qualitative methods tend to focus on micro aspects of social life. Quantitative methods are often concerned with more macro aspects. Using both can help integrate both levels.

Throughout the above section the reader is encouraged not to fall a prisoner of a particular method when he/she undertakes a research project. Apart from the few disadvantages of using multiple methods, such as time and resources needed and the need for proper interpretation of mixed, sometime conflicting, results, the multi-method is greatly looked for in the world of research for the same advantages mentioned above.

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed as part of the exploratory technique in gathering data. The researcher use of the questionnaire, which constitutes the major data gathering tool, should take care of the quantitative side of the data. Interviews, on the other hand, are also used to cover the qualitative side. Both methods were viewed as complementary rather than in competition with each other.

The following section provides a discussion of both instruments (the questionnaire and the interview) that are used in this study.

5.4 Data Collection Methods

The next section in this chapter discusses the tools that were used in gathering primary information in relation to the subject matter of this study-namely questionnaire and interview.

5.4.1 Questionnaire

Robson (2002: 228) offers the following passage on surveys:

'Surveys are more like an overall approach (research strategy) to doing social research than a tactic or a specific method. However, many issues involved in undertaking a survey are not so much involved with questions of overall strategic design as with practical and tactical matters to do with the detailed design of the instrument to be used (almost always a questionnaire, largely or wholly composed of fixed-choice questions), determining the sample to be surveyed and ensuring high response rates'.

The fact that many research studies have been labelled as surveys makes it very difficult to provide a concise definition of a survey. However, the use of fixed quantitative design, the collection of a small amount of data in standardized form from relatively large number of respondents, and the selection of representative samples are but typical and central features to almost all surveys. Almost always, surveys are carried out as part of a non-experimental fixed design. While surveys can fit any of the research purposes – exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory- most surveys are carried out for descriptive purposes. Aside from the vast information it can provide, surveys can help establish relationships. There is also the interpretive side of surveys, that is, to use the survey to provide explanations of the subject studied.

Most surveys involve the use of a questionnaire. According to Emory (1976) questionnaires are the only practical way to learn many types of information. De Vaus (1996) makes a related point in referring to questionnaires as the most widely used data collection technique. There are many advantages resulting from using a questionnaire in survey design research. To name few: (1) the only and easiest way of retrieving past information; (2) they secure large amount of information at a low cost in relatively short period of time; (3) they allow anonymity which can encourage frankness (Robson, 2002). On the other hand, questionnaires are characterized with a set of disadvantages such as low response rates, ambiguities in and misunderstanding of questions, and lack of seriousness on behalf of the respondents in their treatment of this exercise.

There are three main ways in which a questionnaire is administered: *self-completion* (respondents fill in the answers by themselves); *face-to-face interview* (an interviewer completes the questionnaire in the presence of the respondent); *telephone interview* (the interviewer records the answers of the respondent obtained via a telephone conversation). Researchers sending their questionnaires by post can benefit from covering a wide geographical area, while those who choose to administer their questionnaires personally have their respondents or participating organizations located in proximity to each other (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009).

In summary, the objective of any questionnaire is to gather information about a specific situation or phenomenon, and to assess existing attitudes and opinions of the investigated subject. Any questionnaire should be characterized by clarity of wording with clear instructions, good arrangement of contents to maximize cooperation, and

explicitness (Robson, 2002: 249). These characteristics should help produce accurate and relevant information suitable for processing by the researcher.

5.4.2 Interview

The interview as a data collection method involves the researcher asking questions and receiving answers from interviewed participants. It is widely used in social research; this is perhaps the second most widely used method of data collection after surveys. Interviews can be used as the primary method in collecting information for a study; however, they lend themselves to be used in combination with methods, in a multi-method approach (Robson, 2002). For example, in some studies the researcher might choose to use post intervention interviews to incorporate the views of the participants into the findings.

According to Wise *et al.* (1967), interviews are defined as an interaction in which the interviewer is primarily seeking information from interviewees. A commonly used typology distinguishes among structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. These typologies are lined along a continuum of depth with regards to the response sought; the less structured an interview is, the more in-depth information is obtained (Robson, 2002). Structured, or semi-structured, interviews are carefully constructed involving the interviewer asking structured as well as open ended questions; prior testing is advisable to check for ambiguity and making adjustments. Quite the opposite, the unstructured interview is one in which the interviewer does not follow a specific structure, hence unstructured, allowing for flexibility in the interview course; no specific

questions are asked, the interviewer works according to a directional plan rather than a specific plan.

Another distinction between different types of interviews was provided by Powney and Watts, (1987), making a basic distinction between *respondent interviews* and *informant interviews*. In the former, the interviewer remains in control; both structured and semi-structured interviews fall under this type of interviews. In informant interviews (referred to as non-directive, in reference to the interviewer's role), the main concern is for the interviewee's perceptions within a specific context; hence the unstructured type. Most interviews take place in face-to-face setting or by telephone or in group setting. Regardless of the setting in which the interview is being conducted, the interviewer should guard against interview bias which could impact the respondents ability to provide concise information on the subject matter. As such, facial expressions, intonation, pausing at certain points, leading questions, subtle cues, and interviewer's personal convictions may jeopardize the effectiveness of this method.

This method as well has its advantages and disadvantages just like any other method being used in a particular study. According to Robson (2002) advantages are, *flexibility*- interviews allow the researcher to adjust questions and probe for more information during the interview process; *penetrative*- they provide rich and highly illuminating material which other methods fail to obtain (e.g. postal and self-administered questionnaires); *higher response rates* - they give the researcher more control over the response rate; *respondents freedom* - respondents can experience more freedom of expression. As for the disadvantages of using the interview method, the first is high

administration costs, especially when the sample is geographically dispersed. Second, conducting interviews can be time consuming and arduous process (e.g. making arrangements to visit, securing necessary permissions, etc...). Thirdly, collected information is not easy to analyze, which also requires more time.

5.4.3 Multiple Methods Approach

This study employed both – the questionnaire and interview- methods in gathering the required data. The use of both instruments has strengthened the ability of the researcher in obtaining the necessary information required for answering the questions posed in the study. Sekaran and Bougie (2009), Robson (2002), and Jankowicz (1995) to name a few, emphasized the importance of using multi-method approach in social science researches. Hence, the questionnaire used in this study, which constitutes the main data collection instrument, will be responsible for extracting information from top and middle managers on management development and training in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. The objectives of the questionnaire are to uncover the nature of such activity, how development and training programs are implemented, and identify obstacles facing this important activity.

As mentioned above, interview was the secondary instrument used in this study complementing the use of the questionnaire. The researcher conducted face-to-face semi-structured interviews with 10 top level managers in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. As for the objective of conducting interviews, it was to examine how these managers perceive development and training in their organizations, their future outlook

for this activity, and any impediments facing their organizations in carrying out this activity. Further discussion concerning details on the development of these instruments is presented shortly.

5.5 Scope of the Study and Its implications

In the previous chapter, a discussion of the political and economic situation in the Palestinian territories was presented which constitute to a large extent some potential problems and difficulties in conducting any research of any sort. The military closures imposed on some Palestinian cities/governorates have hindered the distribution of the questionnaire efforts. This has resulted in confining the distribution of the questionnaire to the Ramallah area which on the other hand constitutes the hub for all telecommunication organizations included in this study.

This study is no different from any other research project, in which specific limitations to the nature and context of the study may present themselves. As such the nature of the problem under investigation, the environment, and the available time for the study could hamper the implementation of the study. The list below presents specific implications as a result of the scope of the study:

- 1- The results and findings of this research apply only to Palestinian Telecommunication Group (Paltel); the market leader in the telecommunication sector with a very high market share as a result of a ten years exclusivity contract with the Palestinian Authority to operate alone. Hence, the study is not concerned with all telecommunication organizations.

2- The generalizability aspect of this study is limited to large-size telecommunication organizations. This presents the extent of applying the conclusions found in this study. According to the Palestinian Bureau of Statistics (PCBS), a large-size organization is a one that employs twenty or more employees. The researcher is well aware of the fact that different countries and regions use different terms in defining small, medium, and large size organizations. However, the researcher has used local definitions which concur with the context of the study.

The fact that this study focuses on large organizations is justified by the reality that management development and training programs is in direct relationship with organizational size. According to a study carried out by Knoke and Kalleberg (1994), major result of their analysis of diverse organizations was that job training programs are more likely to be provided by large establishments than by small ones.

This is also evident through the availability of resources which are more abundant in large organizations than in small ones. This is in line with what Sud (1997) propounded that large organizations often have the capabilities and resources to develop their managers.

3- The small number of participants in the study as a result of the study's focus on senior (top) and middle managers working in Paltel Group constitutes another implication. Yet, the purpose of the study is to explore management development and training programs designed and implemented at the top and middle managerial levels.

- 4- Human resource management is a multifaceted field wherein management development and training is just a single function thereof. In this study little attention is given to the designing of such program or activities and more attention is directed towards the process in general, how it is perceived and the degree of involvement of different stakeholders.

In the above paragraphs, the researcher provided a description of the scope and extent for generalization of the findings that are substantiated in this study. In addition, this study faced some problems which were dealt with appropriately and in some cases promptly. As such some of the main difficulties are as follows:

- *Postal and self-administered problems:* Given the unreliability of the current postal system in the Palestinian territories with a very high percentage of mail is never delivered, and the long period of time it takes to deliver mail. The researcher decision to deliver the questionnaire himself to participating organizations, which required additional time and cost, has resulted in extending the time for completing the fieldwork stage. The higher than expected response rate, however, justified these extra efforts.
- *Translating and decoding problems:* Although the questionnaire was tested prior to conducting the actual fieldwork to avoid misleading questions and poor wording, there was difficulty in understanding and coding some of the respondents' answers. This was due to ambiguities created by translating the instrument into another language –Arabic- and the fact that the researcher did

not provide any assistance in explaining vague or unclear questions at the time of filling out the questionnaire.

- *Accessibility:* An actual fact of life in the Palestinian territories is that people have to come highly recommended in order to get what they want-it is not what you know it is who you know. The researcher had to rely on personal relationships and the influence of people he knew in order to have access to participating organizations and the people therein. Developing initial rapport with top managers in these organizations was necessary and could not be done with depending on other people who contributed positively to this development.
- *Open-ended questions:* Some respondents did not treat open-ended questions as seriously as they should be while others have ignored these questions completely. This discrepancy was dealt with during the analysis stage.
- *Postponement and other disturbances:* As you all know, managers are most of the time very busy working with tight schedules, which resulted in some instances to postponing the time of the interview. Nevertheless, some interviews were elongated due to frequent interruptions.
- *Poor roads and transportation systems:* This problem made certain areas hard to reach, made personal delivery of the questionnaire and personal interviews difficult and expensive.

5.6 Population and Sample in the Study

The population in this study constitutes the total number of all senior and middle managers working in the Palestinian telecommunication sector- population refer to all the cases (Robson, 2002). Sekaran and Bougie (2009) advocated that a population is made up of the entire group of subjects that the researcher wishes to investigate. To cover the whole population would be unnecessary and costly; hence selecting a sample that is representative of the population is preferred and desired.

Sampling is considered to be an important part of research which allows the researcher to extract inferences about people, places and things on the basis of fragmentary evidence (Robson, 2002: 260); a sample is a selection from the population. Similarly, Zikmund (1997) suggested that sampling is using a representative small number of items of a whole population to make conclusions concerning the whole population. Alternatively, Sudman (1976) argued that studying a sufficient number of cases - a sample from the population- enables the researcher to draw conclusions and generalize them to the whole population. The importance of sampling in conducting research is magnified due to its ability to achieve higher accuracy than a census. According to Saunders *et al.* (1997), the fact that concentrating time, energy, and resources to study fewer cases but in more details and depth would lead to attaining higher accuracy.

5.6.1 The Sampling Strategy Implemented in this Study

Sampling design and size are important elements in research to establish the representativeness of the sample for generalizability (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009).

Inadequacy of precision and confidence in the sample size may result in not achieving the study objectives, no matter how sophisticated the sampling design is. Therefore, decisions concerning the sampling strategy must consider both the sampling design and the sample size in light of several constraints such as time, resources, among others (Davis and Cosenza, 1985). The process of choosing an appropriate sampling design requires the researcher to recognize various sampling techniques in view of their specific characteristics. In any case, the researcher should consider accuracy, resources, time, knowledge, and analytical requirements.

For this study the researcher decided to use stratified random sampling, which offers the researcher a greater advantage in ensuring representativeness of the sample for generalizability. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) argued that 'stratified random sampling involves a process of stratification or segregation, followed by random selection of subjects from each stratum. This sampling design have an efficiency advantage over simple random sampling design because it allows for dividing the population into mutually exclusive subgroups that are relevant and meaningful in the context of the study as well as obtaining differentiated information with respect to each subgroup'. Below are few pros, adopted from Emory (1976: 154) in support of stratified random sampling implemented in this study.

- Increase a sample's statistical efficiency
- Provide adequate data for analyzing the various sub-samples
- Enable different research methods and procedures to be used in different strata.

More specifically, a disproportionately stratified random sampling strategy was chosen here wherein the sample size of each stratum was allocated according to analytical considerations. In the following paragraphs a discussion of the three main steps in implementing the sampling strategy mentioned above is provided.

Sampling Frame Identification

After contacting the management at Paltel Group (the sole operator of telecommunication services-landline, wireless, internet service provider - in Palestine), a list of top and middle level managers was obtained and used as a basis for developing a sampling frame. The population of managers (top and middle level) is 197 (Source: Paltel Group, 2010).

The Sample Size in this Study

A sample size of 142 managers has been chosen as suitable and appropriate for this study. An almost 72 percent of the population total will ensure the generalizability to the population. As Ghauri *et al.* (1995), and Saunders *et al.* (1997) argued that the larger the sample size, the lower the likely error in generalizing to the population.

Since the sample size is governed by the extent of precision and confidence desired where most researchers would like to work to a 95 percent level of certainty, Sekaran and Bougie (2009: 294) has provided a table of different population sizes accompanying their respective sample sizes at 95 percent level of certainty. From this table, it is shown that a population of 220 requires a sample size of 140. In this study, the population is 197 and the sample size is 142.

Furthermore, Roscoe (1975) stated that a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for almost any research. He also argued that where samples are broken down into subsamples, a minimum of 30 for each category is necessary. In the same way, Ghauri *et al.* (1995) elaborated further by saying that there is no lower limit to the size of a sample that can be useful. A sample of 100 can often reveal interesting and valuable information.

Sampling technique selection and used in this study

As mentioned previously, a stratified random sampling strategy was chosen as the best alternative for this study. Knowledge of the composition of the population and knowing that it can be broken down into two sets (top-level managers: 32; and, middle-level managers: 165) provided the basis for stratifying the sample.

Disproportionate stratified random sampling is the best alternative to use in this study due to the disproportionately large number of middle-level managers compared to top managers. This technique has ensured that sufficient numbers of managers from both strata are included in the sample. There is however instances where the different sizes of strata could result in inadequate data collected from the relatively small stratum (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009). In response to this and because there are fewer top-level managers, the researcher has decided to increase the subsample size of top-level managers by applying a 91 percent, thus giving a number of 29 (91 percent * 32 top-level managers). Also, a 68 percent is applied to the population of middle-level managers giving a number of 113 managers (68 percent * 165 middle-level managers). In total this has given a number of 142 managers. Zikmund (1997) stressed that the above mechanism is allowed

only if the objective of the study is to bring forward some related characteristics of each stratum.

The first step in the stratification process was to put together all managers under top and middle level managers. Second, a randomly selected sample of top and middle level managers was accomplished where each manager has an equal probability of being included. The table below gives a summary of the total population and sample sizes used in this study.

Table 5.2

Total Population and Target Sample Sizes for this Study

Managerial Level	Population N	Sample Size (%)	Sample n
Top-level Managers	32	91%	29
Middle-level Managers	165	68%	113
Total	197	72%	142

Source: Data Analysis

5.7 Data Collection Procedures

Soon after permission was granted from the researcher's supervisor to start the field study, and after Paltel Group offered the researcher its consent for the field study to be carried out within its premises, the process of data collection started in May 2011. Prior to commencing the field study, a formal letter from the researcher's supervisor was sent

to Paltel Group informing them of our intent of carrying out a field study and requesting their support for that matter.

In the following sections, a discussion of the methods used for collecting the data for this study is presented, namely the questionnaire and interview.

5.7.1 Questionnaire Development

The main purpose behind using the questionnaire was to enable the researcher to collect data that would make the task of answering the research questions in this study possible. While designing the questionnaire, the researcher maintained both facts, first it is directed towards top and middle level managers working in the telecommunication sector in Palestine, and second it should gather information from fellow participants concerning the function of management development and training within their respected organizations.

Revision of the available literature on management development and training in addition to questionnaires that were used in previously implemented studies constituted the first step in developing the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the researcher have made some changes to questions that were obtained from other studies to make them adaptable to the context of his research - management development and training in the Palestinian telecommunication sector.

After completing the first draft of the questionnaire, copies were distributed to selected staff members and a group of PhD students in Bradford Centre for International Development who possess proficiency and ability to constructively critique the

questionnaire. As a result of the feedback obtained from this stage in developing the questionnaire, and to make sure that the questionnaire is appropriate and comprehensive in terms of covering all important aspects of the study and answering the research questions, changes were made. As such some questions were added, removed and altered; hence producing a second draft of the questionnaire.

Following the first stage, copies of the second draft were given to an array of colleagues working as instructors in Birzeit University. They were asked to answer a set of questions thus indicating the usability and appropriateness of the second draft questionnaire. The answers provided were insightful in terms of highlighting the clarity of the questionnaire, easy to understand and complete, the length of the questionnaire, presence of repetitiveness, layout, and any further suggestions that they would like to see in the questionnaire (see Appendix A).

The third and final stage was to give the questionnaire to a colleague (a staff member in Birzeit University) who is an expert with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), who provided valuable information concerning the possibility of analyzing the questions using SPSS.

5.7.1.1 Translation of the Questionnaire

Upon completing the final version of the questionnaire which was done in the English language and after it has been distributed to and evaluated by a number of PhD faculty members working in the Faculty of Commerce and Economics at Birzeit University where

the researcher is currently working, it was sent to the researcher's supervisor for his approval.

When the approval was granted, the researcher went ahead with translating the English version of the questionnaire into the Arabic language, since all the participants taking part in the research are Arabs and they speak the Arabic language which compelled the researcher to include this important stage in his research. This is done in hope that the participants won't face the problem of not understanding certain parts of the questionnaire in its original language- English.

At first, this may seem an easy step, although very important, to translate the questionnaire from English into Arabic, however, this step is extremely a delicate step that requires careful vigilance on behalf of the researcher. Researchers such as Bulmer and Warwick (1993) argued that great care must be taken in rendering a questionnaire from one language into another so that the translation does not affect its concepts and meaning. They also suggested that 'back-translation' can sort out errors and distortions. The researcher started first with translating the interview questions and then translated back from Arabic into English by another independent translator where the results were compared against the original version (English) to identify and correct semantic errors in translation.

Almost similarly and to ensure uniformity, the researcher first translated the questionnaire into the Arabic language and then asked an expert translator for a revision of the translation. Then, the researcher gave the Arabic version of the questionnaire to another expert translator to translate it back into English. Finally, in an effort to shake-up

any deviations or errors that could have resulted from translating the original questionnaire into Arabic, the questionnaire both versions –English and Arabic- were given to professor in the department of Business administration at Birzeit University. The professor happened to be an authority in business vocabulary which deemed his evaluation and remarks as extremely valuable (see Appendix C).

5.7.1.2 Pilot Testing

A pilot study experiment is viewed as helping researchers to refine their data collection plans with respect to both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed. According to Yin (1994: 74) the pilot is a ‘laboratory for the investigators, allowing them to observe different phenomena from many different angles or to try different approaches on a trial basis’. Being a mini-version of the study carried out before committing yourself to the big one, a pilot study allows the researcher to sort out technical issues that has to do with data collection methods to ensure the clarity and comprehensibility of the questions in a questionnaire. Equally important, it gives the researcher an idea whether his or her study is conceptually sound and right (Robson, 2002). In other words, it presents itself as an opportunity to revise the design, to sharpen up the theoretical framework, develop the research questions and rethink the sampling strategy.

Henerson et al. (1978) stated that there are three objectives behind pilot testing:

- To ensure the clarity of the questionnaires
- To estimate the initial reliability and validity of the questionnaires

- To eliminate items that do not help to discriminate between subjects

Thus, to ensure that the data obtained from the questionnaire used in this research are valid and reliable, a pilot study was conducted in Palestine in a single telecommunication company where the questionnaire was sent to people who are similar to the selected sample. The number of participants was (14) which are in line with Fink's (1995) recommended number of piloting (10). Upon completing the questionnaire, the participants were asked a number of questions addressing important aspects of the questionnaire such as, time needed to complete the questionnaire, clarity of the instructions, which questions are unclear, topics that were not sufficiently covered, feeling uncomfortable in answering some questions, and finally if they have additional comments they would like to share with the researcher.

The participants' feedback was greatly valued since it has contributed to the refinement of the questionnaire which made it clearer and more reliable. Many questions were revised accordingly, in addition to the adding of two questions (No. 76 & 85, Appendix A).

5.7.1.3 Distributed Questionnaire

After an initial meeting with the CEO of Paltel Group on May 30, 2011 wherein the researcher obtained the approval to go ahead and distribute the questionnaires in coordination with an assigned contact person from the Group's Human Resource Department. Accordingly, the assigned employee will facilitate the distribution of the questionnaires and the scheduling of interviews with various senior and middle

managers. Any communication thereafter to be transmitted to participants should go through this employee.

On Sunday the 12th of June 2011, the researcher through the assigned employee has emailed the questionnaire to the 142 senior and middle managers in Paltel Group. The researcher believed that Sunday, the beginning of the week for almost all organizations working in Palestine would be very appropriate and when participants are likely to be more receptive. Each distributed questionnaire included a covering letter indicating the purpose of the study and a promise that participants' responses would be dealt with strict confidentiality. The cover letter included the researcher and supervisor telephone and email addresses in case the participants require further information or clarification (see Appendix A).

Each distributed questionnaire has 95 questions grouped into four main parts. The following list draws out the structure of the questionnaire:

Part 1: Information about the organization that the participant is currently working in (11 questions), and information about the participant herself or himself (9 questions).

Part 2: Information about the organization plans and policies with regards to management development and training that are in effect (12 questions).

Part 3: In this part all questions deal with the process of management development and training: Assessment (17 questions); Implementation (16 questions); and, evaluation (9 questions).

Part 4: Information about current and future challenges and obstacles that obstruct the implementation of management development and training programs (21 questions).

5.7.1.4 Response Rate

A rule of thumb in conducting questionnaire based surveys is that the higher the response rate, the more accurate the results of the research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009; Robson, 2002; Babbie, 1991). Response rate, however, remains a major problem in many of the surveys conducted because of the low response rate they achieve; this problem is magnified when using mail questionnaires. According to Williamson *et al.* (1977), as low as 10 percent could be the result of the self-administered questionnaires and thus it is recommended that the researcher enlarges his or her sample size in order to guarantee that a large enough number of questionnaires are returned.

In general, a response rate of 50 percent would be considered acceptable with mail questionnaires. Zikmund (1997) and Babbie (1991) argued that a response rate below the 50 percent threshold would negatively affect the results of the survey. Babbie (1991) furthermore stated a response rate of 50 percent is adequate, 60 percent is good, and 70 percent is very good. So the aim of the researcher became very clear at this point, the higher the response rate the better the results of the study.

Now, to ensure the reliability of the results of the study and therefore be able to present a strong case, a sufficient response rate was imperative thereby requiring the researcher to take a number of measures. These measures can be summarized in the follow up process or communication that was maintained throughout the field work period. Accordingly, through the assigned employee at Paltel group Headquarters, the first follow up took place two weeks after the distribution of the questionnaires; this was done via the organization internal email system. 10 days later, after the first follow up, the second

follow up took place by calling those managers and reminding them of completing the questionnaire. The third follow up was administered almost 40 days after the distribution of the questionnaires. This was carried out via a formal letter from the researcher to the managers' mail box in their respective departments requesting their assistance in completing the questionnaire. Each time a reminder or a follow up was made the number of returned questionnaires increased. It is also worth mentioning here that the initial meeting with the CEO of Paltel group in which he gave his consent to be a part of the study has given the research good support. Also, the assigning of a contact person from inside the group was another step forward in making certain that enough support is being provided for the research to conduct and complete his field work.

Table 5.3 provides a summary of the total number of questionnaires distributed and the total number of returned questionnaires.

Table 5.3

Response Rate by Different Managerial Levels

Managerial level	Distributed questionnaires	Retuned questionnaires	Response Rate
Top-level managers	29	11	38%
Middle-level managers	113	99	88%
Total	142	110	77%

Source: Data Analysis

In line with section 5.6.1 above, the researcher has distributed 142 questionnaires (top-level managers, 29; middle-level managers, 113). A total of 110 questionnaires were

returned representing a response rate of 77 percent; a very good response rate. Some of those who did not complete and return their questionnaires had to be excused because they were very busy and others were on vacation.

Once the field work was completed, returned questionnaires were checked for non-responses and incomplete answers. For the most part, all questionnaires were considered usable for the study although there were some missing answers in a small number of questionnaires.

5.7.2 Research Selected Interviews

A secondary data gathering tool was the interview, which was primarily used to support data gathered through the questionnaire. In an effort to collect primary data that would assist the researcher in answering the research questions posed in this study, semi-structured interviews with 10 top-level managers in five companies part of Paltel Group. Table 5.4 shows the distribution of interviewed top managers according to their respective organizations.

Table 5.4

Distribution of Interviewed Managers according to Participant Organizations

Name of Organization	Number of Top-managers Interviewed
Paltel Group (Headquarters)	2
Jawwal (Mobile Telecommunication Services)	3
Paltel (Land or Fixed line Company)	2
Hulul (ICT Solutions)	1
Hadara (Internet Service Provider)	1
Reach (Call or Contact Centre)	1
Total	10

Source: Data Analysis

On average the duration of each interview was about 45 minutes with some that have extended over an hour as a result of the ongoing discussion. Below is a sample of questions that were used during the interview process in support of the main instrument for data collection – the questionnaire (See Appendix B for the complete interview questions).

- Do you think that organizations should have management development and training as a separate but integrated function of HRM?
- Comparing internally (on the job) versus externally (off the job) conducted programs, which do you think is more beneficial? And why?
- Which training and development methods are used most by your organization? And Why?
- Do you evaluate training and development programs conducted in your organization? If yes, please describe how?

Another main reason behind conducting those interviews was to grasp and discern the true nature with regards to how keen top management is on management development and training. As for the reason of why the researcher chose semi-structured interviews, it was to allow greater flexibility in administering the interviews as well as to allow the interviewer to talk more freely on the subject matter. As a result several questions were posed during the interviews. Emory (1976) argued that interviews should be flexible to allow the researcher to explore in more depth the relevant issues which sometimes emerge during the interview.

A summary of the main questions are provided in Appendix B, but as mentioned above some questions were added as a result of the discussion. All questions were of open-end and very general in nature. The interview procedure would start by the researcher introducing himself and the reason for conducting the interview by describing the purpose of the study. Right after the brief introduction, the researcher would assure interviewees that all disclosed information will be protected thus preserving confidentiality and anonymity for the interviewee and his or her organization. In addition, all interviewees were offered the possibility of sharing the results of the study as a token of appreciation for their assistance as well as to encourage them answer more openly.

5.8 Data Analysis

As far as data is concerned, two instruments for collecting primary data namely the semi-structured interview and the questionnaire were used in this research. The questionnaire, being the main research instrument as well as being comprised of several Likert Scale

questions, was to be tested for reliability. A Cronbach's Alpha test was carried out to measure for internal consistency for all Likert Scale questions. McMillan and Schumacher (1993) argued that in general Cronbach's Alpha test is the most appropriate type of reliability test for survey research. The results indicate that Cronbach's Alpha for all Likert Scale questions range between as low as 0.650 and 0.906; the closer the result of the test to 1.0 the more consistent the questions (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009).

In chapter six, an analysis of the findings was carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Skinner (1991), stated that SPSS is a very popular and convenient for the variety of programs that it contains, and particularly useful with survey data. Before the analysis took place, raw data had to be transformed and coded to allow SPSS to properly process it. Once data was coded and entered into SPSS, several descriptive statistics was generated such as frequencies (mean, mode and standard deviation), percentages and graphs, and cross-tabulations. Additional statistical tests such as the t-test, Mann-Whitney U test, and the Chi-square were used, where possible, to test the difference between the two sets of answers. In this regard, several tables and figures were produced to help in presenting the findings in the best possible way. The sequence of analysis was systematic following the same structure of the questionnaire therefore dividing the analysis of findings into four main sections.

Analysis of data obtained through the questionnaire will be complemented and supported with data collected through the semi-structured interviews. Qualitative data from interviews will be analyzed by identifying and categorizing patterns or themes found in the data along the lines of data collected through the questionnaire. This is in addition

to using of the statistical technique of frequency distribution where possible and furthermore statements were quoted to illustrate relevant issues. The objective was to obtain an idea of management attitudes and perceptions towards management development and training in their respective organizations. Quotes made by participants were marked with manager 1 through 10 for confidentiality purposes and to safeguard the anonymity of participants.

5.9 The Research Ethical Considerations

In this section, a discussion of an extremely important aspect of doing research is presented – the ethical considerations involved in this study. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) contended that almost every research being carried out could pose some type of harm or threat of some sort especially when humans are involved. Across the same lines, Robson (2002) has also emphasized the importance of maintaining integrity and the highest ethical standards when conducting research. He argued that every researcher should foremost, respect the participants' right to choose to take part or not in the study, preserve the confidentiality of records and information, as well as maintain the anonymity of respondents.

As far as this research was concerned, the initial meeting with the CEO of Paltel Group, which took place before conducting the field study, has offered, not only support for the researcher to conduct his study, but also the needed consent to move ahead. In this regard, consent from interviewees was obtained ahead of the interview. In addition, each

interviewee was informed of the right to withdraw should she or he wish to. At the start of each interview, each interviewee was informed of the fact that his or her name will remain confidential and their responses will be anonymous.

As for the questionnaire, each one was accompanied with a cover letter which included information about the research title and objective as well as details about the researcher (Appendix A). Also, a subsection in the cover letter was dedicated to expressing the researcher's intent to keep all information obtained in confidentiality.

This being concerned with primary data collected from the participants either through interviews or questionnaires, the researcher has also maintained integrity and full disclosure of authorship of secondary data. Both in-text citations and full referencing of information was maintained throughout the study.

5.10 Difficulties

In general every research mission does not achieve its targeted objectives without encountering problems or difficulties of any sort. This research is not an exception whereby some related difficulties were encountered and dealt with in the most appropriate way. Some of the difficulties encountered are presented and discussed as follows:

- The Occupation and the subsequent instable political situation with its closures and mayhem in the occupied territories of Palestine. The researcher had to prepare in advance the program of field work in order to overcome any nuisance

that were anticipated. For example, upon conducting and completing the interviews in Nablus, a city about 40 kilometres north of Ramallah, the researcher was obliged to spend the night in a tiny motel because the checkpoint leading to Ramallah was closed upon the researcher return. Another example with regards to the interviews was the cancelation of two interviews in Hebron City because for some time people were not permitted to go there; it was a military zone. The researcher in coordination with the assigned employee from Paltel Group managed to replace these two interviews with another two interviews that were administered in the Ramallah area.

- The delay experienced in completing and returning the questionnaires which resulted in extending the time period for field work. At first, the response rate at the original submission date was below 50 percent. In response, several reminders were sent to the managers requesting their assistance and as a result the time period for the field work had to be extended. Furthermore, some managers have misplaced their copies of the questionnaire and eventually could not find them. These copies were replaced with new ones. Eventually all efforts paid off nicely.
- In the Palestinian society, access to people is sometimes difficult thereby restricting the amount and quality of information needed. Therefore, some forms of personal relationships were put to action in order to warrant cooperation on behalf of the managers. An initial meeting with the CEO of Paltel Group was made possible by a colleague of mine who knew him. Gaining the CEO's support was imperative to the fulfilling of the field work.

- Conducting research in business-like organizations (private sector) has a price premium. Managers in those organizations were very busy resulting in rescheduling some of the interviews as well as extending the length of interviews as a result of interruptions such as phone calls and visitors. Patience and fortitude were indispensable that kept researcher moving forward.

5.11 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present and describe in details the methods and approaches used to explore the status of management development and training in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. The chapter starts by describing different approaches of research methodologies such as qualitative versus quantitative methods, sampling procedures and data collection, and continues to providing justification for selecting the specific research methods used in this study.

Having an exploratory nature, this study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis. It was specified that a triangulation approach for data collection was implemented throughout the study, where the research used both questionnaire and interview for primary data collection and literature review for secondary data collection. The questionnaire was used with top and middle level managers to explore their views and opinions on the current status of management development and training in their respective organizations. On the other hand it was indicated that interviews were conducted with only top-level managers in those organizations included in the study. The total population was 197 made up of 32 top-level

managers and 165 middle-level managers. A disproportionate stratified random sampling was used as the sampling strategy in this research, thereby ensuring that sufficient numbers of managers from both strata are included in the sample. The sample size was 142 (29 top-level managers and 113 middle-level managers) a 72 percent of the total population.

In addition, the chapter described how the questionnaire was constructed and how a pilot study was implemented. Thereafter, it was specified that 142 questionnaires were distributed to top and middle level managers. 110 questionnaires were completed and returned thus achieving a response rate of 77 percent, which was only after several measures were taken to increase that rate of response. Also in this chapter, the researcher identified and explained the main difficulties encountered during the field work.

CHAPTER SIX

SURVEY DATA FINDINGS AND DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a thorough and comprehensive presentation is made based on the findings and analysis of the data collected using the questionnaire- main data collection instrument- as well as the interview instrument. Both the questionnaire and the interview were used to extract information from top and middle managers working in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. Out of 142 distributed questionnaires, the total number of returned questionnaires was 110, a 77 per cent of the total population sample. The total of 110 returned questionnaires represents the following distribution: 11 questionnaires from top-level managers, and 99 questionnaires from middle-level managers. On the other hand and in order to find out how top and middle level managers look onto management development and training, 10 interviews were conducted as follows: one interview with Paltel CEO and the remaining interviews were conducted with top-level managers across the surveyed organizations (Paltel Headquarters and its subsidiaries). The data collected from the interviews and questionnaires should form complete well-integrated insights into management development and training in the Palestinian telecommunication sector.

Following the same order or presentation of the sections in the questionnaire, this chapter starts with a presentation of the characteristics of the organizations and the individuals therein (section one in the questionnaire), followed by an analysis of empirical

findings pertaining to the provision of management development and training in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. The chapter is divided into six main sections: a) information concerning the characteristics of the sample in this study-organizations and individuals; b) management development and training plans and policies; c) management development and training as a process of three basic interrelated functions-needs assessment, implementation, and evaluation; d) problems and future challenges facing management development and training; e) analysis of findings from the interviews. A final section at the end of the chapter is dedicated to providing a summary and a discussion.

6.2 Descriptive Analysis of Sample Characteristics: Organizations and Managers

In line with section one in the questionnaire, this section presents data on the characteristics of the participant organizations and the managers (unit of analysis) working in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. Table 6.1 provides a profile summary of participant organizations and managers, followed by a one-by-one more detailed description of the main characteristics.

Table 6.1

Sample Characteristics (Managers & Organizations)

Managers/Respondents' Characteristics		
Respondents according to type of organization (%)	Mobile Telephones	43.6
	Landline Telephones	32.7
	Internet Provider	4.6
	Information Technology Services	13.6
	Contact Centre	5.5
Respondents' age (years)		31-40
Respondents' gender (%female)		19.1
Respondents' years of experience		6-10
Respondents' educational level (%)	Bachelor degree	73.6
	Master	25.5
	PhD	.9
Respondents' job title (%)	Top-level manager	11
	Middle-level manager	99
Participant Organizations' Characteristics		
Average number of employees		> 201 and above
Mean capital in Jordanian Dinars (JOD)		25 Million JOD
Average years of operations		8 – 15
Average Market performance		Above average

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.1 Type of Participant Organizations

Table 6.2 below shows clearly the distribution of managers, top and middle, among the different types of participant organizations. It also shows that the Mobile and Landline telecommunication organizations represent, for the most part, the largest segment of managers who participated in this study 76%. Given that these two companies are the oldest and the pioneers in establishing the telecommunication sector in the Palestinian territories after the Oslo agreement and given their size in terms of number of employees, it is not surprising that they account for the largest share of managers participating in the study.

Table 6.2

Distribution of Participants by Service Organizations

Type of Service Organization	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Mobile Telephones	44	44.9	4	36.36
Landline (Fixed) Telephones	33	33.67	2	18.18
Internet Provider	4	4.08	1	9.09
Local Area Networks and Wide Area Networks	11	11.22	4	36.36
Contact Centre (Other)	6	6.121	-	-
Total	98	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.2 History of Surveyed Organizations

The information in Table 6.3 indicates that Contact centre has been in business for no more than three years, followed by IT services and Internet provider companies who have been in business for a period of four and seven years. The Mobile Telecommunication company has been in business for a period between eight and twelve years, and as for the landline company which is considered the first Palestinian telecommunication company, it has been operating in the Palestinian territories for more than 13 years.

From the data in Table 6.3 two observations can be made in relation to size and age of participant organizations. First, large organizations are significantly older. Second, the age of telecommunication companies operating in Palestine is relatively young compared with European and American companies.

Table 6.3

Distribution of Organizations by Age

Years in Operation	Type of Service Organization				
	Mobile	Landline	Internet provider	IT Services	Contact Centre
Less than 3 years					×
4-7 years			×	×	
8-12 years	×				
13 and above		×			

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.3 Size of Participant Organizations

Table 6.4 presents the size of participant organizations based on the number of employees. Most studied organizations are relatively large scale organizations in accordance with the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics (PCBS) definition of large-scale institutions. It is noticed that these organizations are for the most part human-based organizations that employ a large number of human capital to meet customer needs and expectations. It is also observed that a relationship exists between the size of the organization and its age. In this case, the Internet provider which employs the lowest has the least number of years in business.

Table 6.4

Number of Employees by Participant Organizations

Number of Employees	Type of Service Organization				
	Mobile	Landline	Internet provider	IT services	Contact centre
Less than 20 employees					
20-50 employees					
51-100 employees			x		
101-150 employees				x	
201 and above	X	x			x

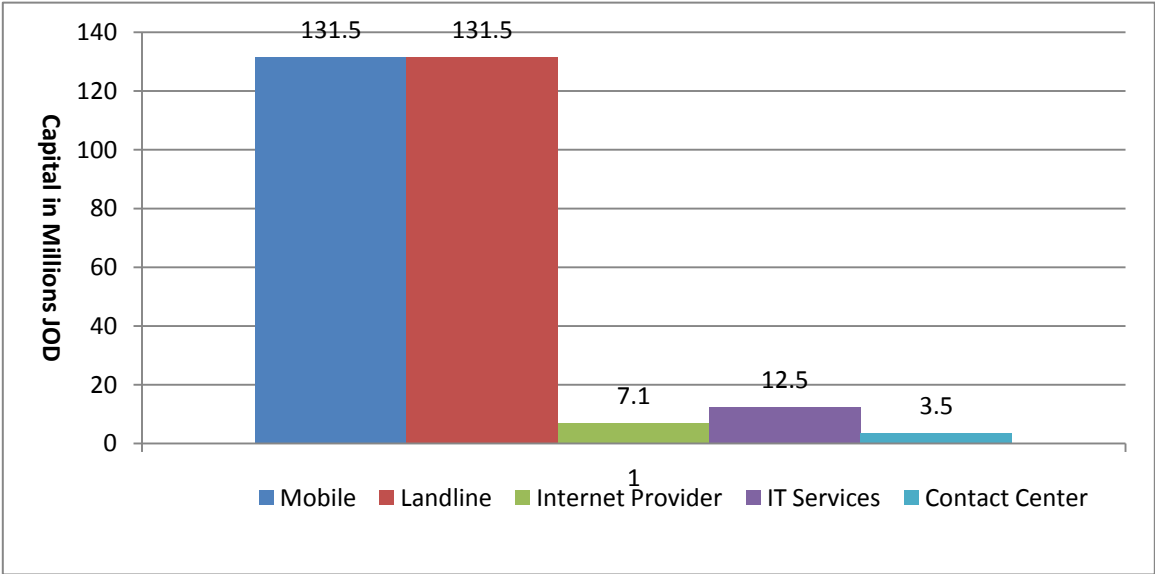
Source: Data Analysis

6.2.4 Size of Capital by Participant Organizations

Figure 6.1 shows that both Mobile and landline organizations tops the list for capital size with 131.5 million Jordanian Dinars (JOD) followed by the IT Services organization with 12.5 million. The Internet provider organization has a capital of 7.1 million and finally the Contact Centre with 3.5 million. A somehow logical justification for this discrepancy is that Mobile and Landline organizations are considered capital intensive organizations requiring large investments of money for machinery and infrastructure. Moreover, the size of the company is generally a good indicator of the relative strength of its working capital. It is clearly evident from the data revealed that the Landline and Mobile organizations while enjoying relatively large size in terms of manpower; they also have the largest capital investment.

Figure 6.1

Capital Size in Participant Organizations



Source: Data Analysis

6.2.5 Management Development and Training Unit in the Surveyed Organizations

From the table 6.5 it is clear that the majority of participant organizations have human resource management departments. Respondents (99 out of 106) indicated that management development and training unit was part of their human resource management departments. The figures clearly show that participant organizations value the importance of human resource function as the basis for management development.

Table 6.5

Human Resource Department and Management Development and Training Unit

	Does your organization have an HR department?	
	Yes	NO
There is management development and training unit	99	-
There is no management development and training unit	7	1
Total	106	1

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.6 Responsibility for Management Development and Training

Table 6.6

Management Development and Training: Whose Responsibility?

	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
Who is responsible for training and development function at your organization	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Other- (Al-Etesalat Communication Academy)	37	49.4	1	10
Human resource managers	18	24	4	40
Line managers	17	22.6	4	40
Top managers	3	4	1	10
Total	75	100	10	100

Source: Data Analysis

It can be inferred from the table above that several bodies are responsible for management development and training function. In this case top level managers indicated that direct supervisors and HR managers are for the most part responsible for determining the development and training venues for employees. Similarly, middle managers have indicated the same result. Moreover, the figures in Table 6.6 show that responsibility for management development and training is assumed by Al Etesalat Communication Academy: a training academy founded by Paltel Group to serve as a hub responsible for providing various development and training services for all employees of Paltel group.

6.2.7 Age and Size of Development and Training Unit

In the table 6.7 below most of the development and training units operating in participant organizations employ between two to five employees. This also comes in line with the aforementioned table (6.5) concerning the importance of management development and training in participant organizations.

Table 6.7
Development and Training Unit Size

Number of Employees	Size of Development and Training Unit	
	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
1 employee	14	13.8
2-5 employees	77	75.5
More than 5 employees	11	10.7
Total	102	100

Source: Data Analysis

As shown in Table 6.8 more than 50% of these units have been in operation for more than 10 years. This is consistent with the number of years participant organizations have been in business; the establishment of these units coincides with the inception of participant organizations.

Table 6.8

Development and Training Unit Age

Number of Years	Age of Development and Training Unit	
	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
1-3 years	9	9.3
4-7 years	26	26.5
7-10 years	10	10.2
Over 10 years	53	54
Total	98	100

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.8 Organization Performance (Market Performance)

Regarding the organizations' market performance, Table 6.9 shows that most managers indicated that their respective organizations are performing either above or well above market average, whereas only sixteen managers (top and middle) have indicated that their organizations' market performance is average. The criteria used to assess market performance were market share and customer satisfaction levels. It is important, however, to note that PALTEL group has been dominating the market since the inception of the Palestinian statehood; being the only player with very little competition if any, justifies to some degree the managers' perceptions and responses thereof.

Table 6.9

Market Performance of Participant Organizations

Market performance	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Well above average	13	15	1	9
Above Average	65	72	6	55
Average	12	13	4	36
Total	90	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

6.2.9 Age of Participant Managers

Table 6.10

Distribution of Managers by Age

Age	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
20 – 30 years	17	17	1	9
31 – 40 years	65	67	7	63
41 – 50 years	15	15	3	28
Over 50 years	1	1	-	-
Total	98	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

Regarding the age of the participant respondents, table 6.10 shows that most of the managers (66%) who participated in this study are aged between 31 and 40 years compared with 16.5% who are aged between 41 and 50 years and 16.5% aged between 20 and 30 years. Only 1% of the total sample are aged over 50 years.

From the table above, it can be inferred that the vast majority of managers are of young age (31-40 years). It can be assumed that there is an association between the average age of participant organizations, 8-15 years (Table 6.1), and the young age of the managers therein. The relative young age of managers is consistent with the life span of the organizations which explains the density of managers in this particular group (31 – 40 years).

6.2.10 Gender of Participant Managers

Table 6.11
Distribution of Managers by Gender

Gender	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Female	19	20	1	9
Male	74	80	10	91
Total	93	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.11 above shows that higher level of management is predominantly occupied by males. With males representing 91 percent as opposed to only 9 percent of females at top-level management positions, these percentages highlight the patriarchal society in Palestine where women are still facing cultural and conventional forces that work against their development. On the other hand, at the middle level management positions, the percentages are improved where 20 percent of managers are females and 80 percent are males.

6.2.11 Participant Managers' Level of Education

Table 6.12

Level of Education of Participant Managers

Level of Education	Distribution of Managers	
	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
Bachelor degree	81	73.6
Master's degree	28	25.5
Doctorate	1	.9
Total	110	100

Source: Data Analysis

Although additional options were provided to fellow respondents such as technical degree and high school education, table 6.12 above shows that all respondents have acquired a certain level of higher education with 73.6 percent possessing a bachelor

degree, and 25.5 percent possessing a master’s degree. Only one respondent has acquired a PhD degree.

6.2.12 Participant Managers’ Years of Experience

Table 6.13

Years of Experience of Participant Managers

Years of Experience	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 5 years	14	14	-	-
6 - 10 years	44	45	4	36
11 - 15 years	39	40	7	64
Over 15 years	1	1	-	-
Total	98	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.13 shows that almost half of the managers in these companies have between 6 – 10 years of experience with 45 percent in middle-level management positions and 36 percent in top-level positions. Almost similarly, managers who have experience between 11 – 15 years represent 40 percent of middle managers and 64 percent of top managers. There are 14 managers occupying middle-level positions as opposed to none at a top position with years of experience less than 5 years. As for those managers with over 15 years of experience, they represent only 1 percent occupying a middle position.

The chi-square test shows that there is no significant difference between middle-level managers and top-level managers based on their years of experience ($\chi^2 = 4.532$, $df = 6$, $P > 0.05$). This result comes in line with the cross-tabulation table above which shows that the majority of responses are concentrated in only two categories (6 -10, and 11 – 15 years).

6.2.13 Participant Managers by Title

Table 6.14

Distribution of Participant Managers by Level

Managers' Level in the Organization	Distribution of Managers	
	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
Top-level managers	11	10
Middle-level managers	99	90
Total	110	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.14 shows the total number of managers who actually participated in this research as well as their distribution based on their position in the hierarchy of the organization. The total number of top-level managers was 11 out 110 who actually accepted to participate, thus their contribution to the total received and accepted questionnaires was 10 percent. As for the middle-level managers the number was 99 with a 90 percent. Note that there are 16 managers who occupy junior-level management positions included in

the total number of middle-level managers. The decision for this inclusion was made after discussing the issue with Paltel Group management team which advised the researcher to do so, given the complexity and uniqueness of the structures in the studied organizations. When these managers were asked whether they have received any training and development, the majority of responses were positive with only 4 middle-level managers who did not receive any training and development. Table 6.15 shows the distribution of managers according to their responses.

Table 6.15

Distribution of Managers With or Without Previous Training and Development

Have You Received Any Training or Development?	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	94	96	10	100
No	4	4	-	
Total	98	100	10	100

Source: Data Analysis

Running the chi-square test reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between middle-level managers who did or did not receive training and development and top-level managers ($\chi^2 = 4.240$, $df = 3$, $P > 0.05$).

6.3 Findings Involving Training and Development Plans and Policies

The following section presents an analysis of results related to section two in the questionnaire. More specifically, it presents an empirical analysis of plans and policies involving training and development in the organizations studied in this research. Variables such as the availability, nature, time span of such plans and policies are explored, as well as to how these plans and policies are implemented and to what extent they are effective.

6.3.1 Plan for Training and Development

Table 6.16

Distribution of Managers by Availability of Training and Development Plans

Organizations with Training and Development Plans	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	78	80	9	90
No	4	4	0	-
Don't know	15	16	1	10
Total	97	100	10	100

Source: Data Analysis

Meeting the needs of training and development in an organization, as Harrison (1992) puts it requires the production of policy, strategy and plans. A plan should be produced only after an identification of current and future needs stage is complete as well as an

assessment of skills and competencies to meet those needs. Consequently, a proper implementation of the plan will compensate employees with the skills and competencies needed to improve their performance and ultimately the overall performance of the organization. Table 6.16 shows that 90 percent of top-level managers have answered yes to whether there is a training and development plan. Only 10 percent answered no. As for middle-level managers, 80 percent answered yes, 4 percent answered no, and 15 percent answered don't know. Therefore in total, 87 out of 110 employees that were surveyed stated that their organizations have training and development plans.

Furthermore, table 6.17 below reveals the time span for those plans. It shows whether these plans have long-term (3 years and above), or medium-term (1 -3 years), or short-term (less than 1 year) time frame according to the responses of participant managers.

Table 6.17
Training and Development Plans' Time Span

Training and Development Plans' Time Span	Organizations with Training and Development Plans					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Short-term	30	36	1	100	3	50
Medium-term	53	62	-	-	3	50
Long-term	2	2	-	-	-	-
Total	85	100	1	100	6	100

Source: Data Analysis

Accordingly, 36 percent of those whose answers were yes to the availability of training and development plans stated that their plans have a short-term time span, 62 percent stated that their plans spanned over medium-term, and only a tiny portion of 2 percent stated that their plans extend over a long-term time span. Obviously enough, almost all answers indicate that plans relating to training and development tend to have a short to medium time horizon.

6.3.2 Responsibility for Formulating Training and Development Plans

Table 6.18
Responsibility for Planning the Training and Development Function

Responsibility for Formulating Plans	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Board of Directors	-	-	1	9
Senior Management	15	15	2	18
Human Resource Department	70	72	8	73
Employee Respective Department	13	13	-	-
Total	98	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

The main responsibility, according to Table 6.18, for formulating plans in relation to training and development resides in the hands of the Human Resource department (HR) according to 72 percent of respondents. Out of 98 middle managers, 72 percent stated that HR department is responsible for formulating plans while 15 percent and another 13

percent have said it is the responsibility of senior management and employee respective departments, respectively. Those of the top-level managers who stated that the HR department is responsible for formulating training and development plans account for 73 percent.

When respondents were asked if the plans for training and development were communicated to various levels in the organization, their answers appeared to be in agreement for the most part. Table 6.19 shows the distribution of the Managers' responses.

Table 6.19
Communicating Training and Development Plans

Training and Development Plans Being Communicated	Organizations with training and development plans					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	61	69	2	50	7	44
No	15	17	2	50	7	44
Don't know	12	14	-	-	2	12
Total	88	100	4	100	16	100

Source: Data Analysis

A 69 percent of those who answered yes to the availability of training and development plans have also stated that these plans were being communicated to different levels in the organization. On the other hand, of the same group only 17 percent answered no and another 12 percent checked the 'don't know' box. In other words, one third of the same

group did not either receive any communication in this regard or the communication process is incomplete for that matter.

Moreover, Table 6.20 provide a summary of the participant managers’ responses when asked about the degree of involvement in formulating plans for training and development; in other words the employee participation and contribution to the plans. The figures therein indicate clearly that managers’ participation in setting up the plans for training and development is common practice. 68 percent of middle-level managers as opposed to 73 percent of top-level managers have confirmed their participation in this process.

Table 6.20

Managers Participation and Contribution to the Plans

Manager’s Participation	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	65	68	8	73
No	31	32	3	27
Don’t know	-	-	-	-
Total	96	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

6.3.3 Training and Development Plan Specifics

Table 6.21

Budget and Nature of Training and Development Plans

Budget and Nature	Managers' Responses				Total Responses
	Yes		No		
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	
Does the plan have a budget?	100	93	8	7	108
Does the plan meet current and future needs?	97	91	10	9	107

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.21 shows that according to the participant managers' responses, 93 percent answered yes to the question concerning the availability of a budget that accompanies the training and development plan. The table also shows with a 91 percent that the formulation of the plan takes into consideration the current and future needs.

Table 6.22

Anticipated Implementation of Training and Development Plan

Plan Anticipated Percentage of Completion	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 30 %	3	3	-	-
30 – 49 %	12	12	1	9
50 – 69 %	19	20	3	27
70 – 89 %	53	55	6	55
90 – 100 %	10	10	1	9
Total	98	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

When the managers were asked about the expected level of implementation of the training and development plan, most of their answers (Table 6.22) confirms that more than 50 percent implementation of the plan is expected with 55 percent of respondents indicating a completion level between 70 – 89 percent. Both responses, those of middle and top level managers, are consistent in terms of the percentage of their plans which they expect to implement. This could also indicate the level of commitment towards implementing training and development plans in these organizations.

6.3.4 Policies in Relation to Training and Development

Table 6.23

Existence and Nature of Training and Development Policies

Are There Policies Regarding Training and Development?	Nature of Policies			
	Formal (written)	Informal (unwritten)	Don't Know	Total
Yes	73	8	2	83
No	5	2	-	7
Don't Know	10	4	1	15
Total	88	14	3	105

Source: Data Analysis

With regards to the policies and their nature, table 6.23 which is a cross-tabulation between the two variables (Rows- existence of policies; Columns- nature of policies). The table reveals that most responses indicate that there are training and development policies in place in these organizations and they exist in formal nature (written). 10 out of 15 responses whose answers were 'don't know' about the existence of policies confirmed that the nature of such policies is written, while only 4 responses confirmed that these policies have an informal nature (unwritten). As most responses indicate the existence and formal nature of training and development policies, they only reaffirm the commitment of these organizations towards training and development.

When these managers were asked about the availability of a training centre in their respective organizations, their answers are summarized in the table below.

Table 6.24

The Availability of a Training Centre in Participating Organizations

Existence of a Training Center	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	54	56	10	91
No	42	44	1	9
Total	96	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.24 shows the responses of middle and top level managers varying substantially for this specific variable. 56 percent of middle-level managers who answered this question stated that a training centre does exist in their organizations as opposed to 42 percent who answered no. On the other hand, 91 percent of top-level managers confirmed the existence of a training centre as opposed to only 9 percent whose answers were no. Given this discrepancy, one fact stands out clearly, the higher level of awareness among top-level managers regarding the existence of a training centre in their respective organizations. Note that Paltel group has a training academy that supposedly should serve all the group companies. One reason for this variation can be attributed to the fact of how was this question understood.

6.3.5 Training and Development Provision at Different Organizational Levels

Table 6.25

Training and Development Offered at Different Organizational Levels

Managerial levels	Amount of Training and Development Offered at Different Managerial Levels				Mean	Median
	High	Medium	Low	None		
Top-level management	17 (16%)	55 (51%)	32 (29%)	4 (4%)	2.21	2.00
Middle-level management	7 (6%)	64 (59%)	35 (32%)	3 (3%)	2.31	2.00
Lower –level management	10 (9%)	43 (39%)	53 (49%)	3 (3%)	2.45	3.00
Technical staff	18 (17%)	32 (30%)	53 (49%)	4 (4%)	2.40	3.00

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.25 provides very important results about the provision and intensity of training and development across different managerial levels in the studied organizations. The overall ranking for each level shows that the top-level managers receive the biggest chunk of training and development offered by these organizations with a mean of 2.21. The second in rank is the middle-level managers (mean = 2.31), followed by the technical staff (mean = 2.40), and lower-level managers (mean = 2.45). The table also shows that technical staff has scored the highest on the 'high' amount of training and development which could be contributed to the nature of their work.

Now, looking at the bigger picture shows that the further down the hierarchy of the organization the amount of training and development tends to become less. However, it is clear that in these organizations all employees are provided with some level of training and development regardless of her or his level in the organization. It is worth mentioning that both responses from top and middle level managers were consistent to this regard, yet when testing the normality of responses it is found that, as Table 6.26 below shows, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is actually significant suggesting that the distribution is significantly deviating from a normal distribution. More specifically, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov was an attempt to test for normality of the distribution where the results reaffirm the results shown in Table 6.25; top-level managers had the biggest share of training and development.

Table 6.26

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Normality

Managerial levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	P
Top-level management	.286	.00
Middle-level management	.338	.00
Lower –level management	.295	.00
Technical staff	.305	.00

Source: Data Analysis

6.4 Analysis of Results Related to the Process of Management Training and Development

In this section a presentation and analysis of the results pertaining to how the process of management development and training is carried out in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. Following the same structure used in the questionnaire, this section is divided into three main parts: the first part presents findings in relation to how the needs of training and development are assessed; second, analysis of training and development methods used; third, the methods used in evaluating training and development.

6.4.1 Assessing Training and Development Needs

Table 6.27

Distribution of Managers by Training and Development Needs' Assessment

Administering Needs Assessment	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	91	97	9	82
No	3	3	2	18
Total	94	100	11	100

Source: Data Analysis

It is very clear from table 6.27 above, that the organizations included in this study consistently carry out an assessment of training and development needs (91 percent of all the units of the study answered yes). With an 82 percent of all top-level managers a 97

percent of middle-level managers stating that an assessment of training and development needs is conducted. In contrast, only 3 percent of middle-level managers and 18 percent of top-level managers answered no, which conceivably might be the result of their dissatisfaction with the administered assessment or that the assessment does not cover all departments and/or functions of the organization and the employees therein. In addition, there are another four middle-level managers whose answers were ‘don’t know’.

6.4.2 Methods Used in Assessing Training and Development Needs

Table 6.28

Methods Used in Identifying Training and Development Needs

Methods used	Level of emphasis on each method				Mean	Median
	Yes	Often	Sometimes	Never		
Face-to-face interviews	12 (11%)	17 (16%)	51 (46%)	30 (27%)	2.90	3.00
Questionnaires	12 (11%)	16 (14%)	28 (26%)	54 (49%)	3.13	3.00
Observation	16 (15%)	45 (41%)	42 (38%)	6 (6%)	2.35	2.00
Performance appraisal	41 (37%)	51 (46%)	12 (11%)	6 (6%)	1.85	2.00
A special committee	39 (36%)	21 (20%)	23 (22%)	24 (22%)	2.30	2.00
Ad hoc	8 (7%)	18 (17%)	23 (21%)	59 (55%)	3.23	4.00

Source: Data Analysis

When the managers were asked about the methods used in their respective organizations to assess the needs of training and development, performance appraisal was by far the most frequently used method with a 37 percent answering yes and 46 percent whose answer was 'often' (the mean for this method = 1.85) (Table 6.28). This is followed by the special committee method with a mean of 2.30. In contrast, the least method used was the ad hoc with 55 percent (mean = 3.23), followed by a 49 percent for the questionnaire's method (mean = 3.13). Nonetheless, there also seem to be some emphasis, although occasionally performed, on additional methods such as observation and face-to-face interviews; a mean of 2.35 and 2.90 respectively.

6.4.3 Factors Considered when Assessing Training and Development Needs

Table 6.29 presents the individual respondent manager's level of agreement with the following factors; to what degree they are being taken into consideration by their organizations when an assessment of training needs is carried out. The list of factors hereafter is in line with the findings of the literature.

Table 6.29

Managers’ Perception of Factors Considered When Assessing Training and Development Needs

Factors	Managers’ Perception				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Internal Factors					
Future organizational aspirations are incorporated (e.g. long-term goals)	19 (17%)	53 (49%)	34 (31%)	1 (1%)	2 (2%)
Strategies that your organization is pursuing form an integral part in the assessment stage	9 (8%)	63 (57%)	32 (29%)	5 (5%)	1 (1%)
Assessment is task and/or job oriented	26 (23%)	79 (72%)	3 (3%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)
During the assessment phase, only organizational interests are considered	4 (3%)	45 (41%)	32 (29%)	27 (25%)	2 (2%)
Internal weaknesses are addressed during this stage	31 (28%)	55 (50%)	21 (19%)	3 (3%)	-
External Factors					
External challenges are considered	18 (16%)	75 (68%)	15 (14%)	-	2 (2%)
Government regulations and policies related to management development and training are considered	3 (3%)	35 (32%)	39 (36%)	27 (25%)	5 (4%)
The role of competition is considered in the assessment phase of training and development programs	21 (20%)	69 (64%)	12 (11%)	5 (5%)	-
Cultural factors are taken into consideration (e.g. if the training is to be administered by a foreign expert)	11 (10%)	38 (35%)	53 (48%)	6 (5%)	2 (2%)
Market needs and wants are considered during this stage	16 (15%)	82 (74%)	10 (9%)	2 (2%)	-
Individual Specific Factors					
Individual needs are taken into consideration	15 (14%)	47 (43%)	36 (33%)	9 (8%)	2 (2%)
During the assessment phase, both individual and organizational interests are considered	2 (2%)	31 (28%)	54 (49%)	20 (18%)	3 (3%)

Source: Data Analysis

As mentioned above, table 6.29 Provides a summary of the responses of managers when asked to rate their view on the factors that their respective organization take into consideration when assessing training and development needs. In other words, how do these organizations go about identifying and prioritizing their organizational needs as well as those of the individuals; what factors they consider and to what degree? The table shows the percentages of managers' level of agreement using a Likert scale for twelve statements (Cronbach Alpha's = .740) which are divided into three main categories: internal factors, external factors, and individual specific factors.

Overall, most managers tend to agree with most of the statements presented with. For the most part internal, external, and individual specific factors are taken into consideration when assessing training and development needs with more emphasis on both internal and external factors. An important note to be made here is regarding the percentages shown under the 'Neutral' column, which need not to be underestimated. There is a large number of responses which present a neutral stance on some of the items listed in the table above which can be attributed to a number of reasons, such as a possible assumption that they don't know or they do not want to disclose their perceptions regarding these statements.

6.4.4 The Existence of Job Descriptions

Table 6.30

Distribution of Managers' Responses According to Job Descriptions Existence

Administration of Training and Development Need Assessment	Existence of Job Descriptions					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	98	92	2	100	1	100
No	5	5	-	-	-	-
Don't know	4	3	-	-	-	-
Total	107	100	2	100	1	100

Source: Data Analysis

The Job description is an important reference that organizations normally use to assess training and development needs. Table 6.30 shows that almost all managers have confirmed the existence of job descriptions for all positions in their organizations with 92 percent whose answer was yes to job descriptions have also answered yes to whether their organization administer training need assessment. In addition, 5 percent of those who stated that their organizations do not administer training and development need assessment and another 3 percent whose answer was 'don't know' to the same question; they answered yes to the existence of job descriptions.

6.4.5 Performance Appraisal Administration

Table 6.31

Distribution of Managers' Responses According to Performance Appraisal Administration

Administration of Training and Development need assessment	Performance Appraisal Administration					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	101	92	-	-	-	-
No	5	5	-	-	-	-
Don't know	4	3	-	-	-	-
Total	110	100	-	-	-	-

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.32

Incorporating Feedback from Performance Appraisal in Need Assessment

Performance Appraisal Feedback	Performance Appraisal Administration					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	82	75	-	-	-	-
No	4	3	-	-	-	-
Don't know	24	22	-	-	-	-
Total	110	100	-	-	-	-

Source: Data Analysis

Another important ingredient in the assessment of training and development is the administration of performance appraisal. Accordingly, table 6.31 shows that managers

who answered 'yes' when asked about the administration of performance appraisal amount to 100 percent. Out of this 100 percent confirmation, only 5 percent answered 'no' and another 3 percent answered 'don't know' to the question regarding conducting training and development need assessment. The remaining 92 percent answered yes.

In addition, table 6.32 further illustrates the importance of performance appraisal and whether feedback from the performance appraisal process carried out in these organizations are incorporated in assessing the need for training and development. Out of 100 percent of responses that confirm the administration of a performance appraisal process (see table 6.32), 82 percent state that feedback from performance appraisal is incorporated in the need assessment. 24 percent stated that they are not aware whether feedback is incorporated or not. Taken as a whole, the figures indicate that performance appraisal is administered and the resulting feedback is predominantly taken into consideration in assessing training and development needs.

6.4.6 Participation of Managers in Management Development and Training

Table 6.33

Distribution of Managers' Participation in the Needs' Assessment

Managers Participation in the Needs' assessment process	Participant Managers by Title			
	Middle-level Managers		Top-level Managers	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	81	83	8	80
No	17	17	2	20
Total	98	100	10	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.34

Number of Training Courses Attended by Managers

Managers Who Did or Didn't Participate	Number of Courses					
	1 course		2-5 courses		More than 5 courses	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	26	76	56	88	8	89
No	8	24	8	12	1	11
Total	34	100	64	100	9	100

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.33 shows the percentages of top and middle level managers who had participated in a training course. 80 percent of top-level managers and 81 percent of middle managers did participate in some kind of management development and training course.

In addition, table 6.34 shows that the majority of managers over the past two years have participated in more than 1 course (88 percent of those who participated in a training

course have stated that they received between 2 - 5 courses). 26 managers out 110 stated that they have participated in 1 course in the past two years. Interestingly, some of the managers whose answer was no to whether they have participated or not, 8 managers responded that they participated in at least one course while another 8 managers have indicated their participation in 2 -5 courses. The Chi-square test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between those who participated in a management development and training course and those who did not ($\chi^2 = 11.683$, $df = 3$, $P > 0.009$), in favour of participating managers.

As for the nature or types of these courses which were attended by the managers, they are summarized in table 6.35. The table shows that the technical training (task related) type is the most frequent type of training courses being offered to managers, 63 percent of managers have at least once participated in a technical course. This is followed by the career development course with 49 percent. It is clear that in those organizations, there seems to be high emphasis on technical training as opposed to other types of training such as marketing, social (people related), and financial.

Table 6.35

Nature of Training Courses Attended

Nature of Courses Attended	Managers' Responses			
	Yes		No	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Financial	20	18	89	82
Strategic planning	37	34	72	66
Marketing	8	7	101	93
Self and career development	53	49	56	51
Technical (task related)	69	63	40	37
Social (people related)	19	17	90	83
Social and technical	11	10	98	90

Source: Data Analysis

6.4.7 Settings and Specific Delivery Methods of Management Development and Training Courses

Table 6.36
Preferred Settings of Training Courses

Setting	Managers' Responses							
	Yes		Sometimes		No		Mean	Median
	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)		
On-the-job training	29	28	55	54	18	18	1.89	2.00
Off-the-job training (inside the organization)	16	16	67	67	17	17	2.01	2.00
Off-the-job training (outside the organization)	35	34	62	60	6	6	1.72	2.00

*Freq. stands for frequency.

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.37

Specific Methods of Delivery

Methods of Delivery	Managers' Responses							
	Yes		Sometimes		No		Mean	Median
	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)		
Lecture	39	37	61	58	5	5	1.68	2.00
A conference or seminar	26	26	64	63	11	11	1.85	2.00
Role play	22	22	37	37	41	41	2.19	2.00
Case studies	27	28	41	42	30	31	2.03	2.00
Group or individual projects	12	12	57	57	30	30	2.18	2.00
Virtual courses (online)	6	6	35	36	55	57	2.51	3.00

*Freq. stands for frequency.

Source: Data Analysis

From table 6.36, the managers' responses indicate that off-the job training (outside the organization) is the most preferred setting by their organizations with a mean of 1.72 followed by on the job training with a mean score of 1.89. As for table 6.37 it shows which specific methods of delivery were mostly used during the training courses that these managers have attended. The lecture style was the most common among the training courses which were delivered to these managers (mean = 1.68) and followed by a conference or seminar (mean = 1.85). The least used methods of delivery were the online (mean = 2.51) and role play (mean = 2.19).

6.4.8 Provision of Training and Development

Table 6.38

Distribution of Managers' Responses by Provision of Training and Development Criteria

Criteria For Training and Development Provision	Managers' Responses					
	Yes		No		Don't know	
	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)
Invitation of external experts	91	83	15	14	4	3
Training and development in a foreign country	103	94	5	4	2	2
Third party support is acquired	85	77	17	16	8	7
Induction for newly recruited employees	84	77	18	17	7	6
Training for promoted employees	66	60	33	30	11	10

*Freq. stands for frequency.

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.38 shows a number of variables (criteria) that affect the provision of training and development. When managers were asked if their organizations invite external experts, 83 percent answered yes. When asked about attending training in a foreign country, managers who answered yes amount to 94 percent. This is in addition to 77 percent of managers confirming that their organizations acquire third party support in providing and delivering training and development. As for whether induction takes place for newly

recruited employees or not, 77 percent of managers confirmed the provision of such undertaking. Regarding the lowest score among the criteria presented in the table above, provision of training and development for promoted employees had a confirmation rate of 60 percent.

6.4.9 Managers' Satisfaction Levels with Previously Attended Training and Development Program

Table 6.39

Managers' Level of Satisfaction Considering their Previous Attended Training

Program Attributes	Managers' Level of Satisfaction				
	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
The methods of training and development	23 (21%)	75 (69%)	5 (5%)	5 (5%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.93</i>					
The quality of the material used	20 (19%)	77 (71%)	8 (7%)	3 (3%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.94</i>					
The ability of the trainers	25 (23%)	69 (64%)	10 (9%)	4 (4%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.94</i>					
The location of the training program	20 (18%)	68 (63%)	18 (17%)	2 (2%)	-
<i>Mean = 2.02</i>					
Audio visual supporting material	16 (15%)	74 (68%)	12 (11%)	6 (6%)	-
<i>Mean = 2.07</i>					
The overall administration of the program	23 (21%)	52 (49%)	13 (12%)	19 (18%)	-
<i>Mean = 2.26</i>					

Source: Data Analysis

A summary of the managers' responses regarding their level of satisfaction towards their previously attended training and development program is provided in table 6.39. The table shows the percentages of managers' level of satisfaction using a Likert scale for six attributes (Cronbach Alpha's = .778).

The managers' highest level of satisfaction was with the methods that were applied in the training program (mean = 1.93), followed by both the quality of the material used as well as the ability of the trainers (mean = 1.94). With a small drop in the level of satisfaction concerning the administration of the program, but still is considered relatively high score of satisfaction (mean = 2.26). In general, the results indicate that the managers' perception and attitudes towards an earlier attended training and development program is positive.

6.4.10 Evaluation of Training and Development Programs

Table 6.40

Distribution of Managers' Responses by Whether or Not an Evaluation of Training and Development Programs Takes Place

Whether an Evaluation Takes Place or Not	Managers Participated or Not in Evaluating Training and Development Programs			
	Yes		No	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	62	93	20	47
Sometimes	2	3	10	23
No	3	4	13	30
Total	67	100	43	100

Source: Data Analysis

Evaluating programs provided to managers represent an important stage in the process of building an effective management development and training programs that will ultimately achieve organization and individual goals. As discussed in more details in chapter two, several researchers have emphasized the importance of evaluation of development and training programs, which without it organizations can never be sure of the impact of such programs and the outcome of the process as a whole will remain

uncertain (Kirkpatrick, 1959; Hamblin, 1974; Goldstein, 1986; Doyle, 1994; Sogunro, 1997; Colins, 2002; Analoui, 2003).

Table 6.40 shows the amount of attention given by these organizations to the evaluation component in the process of management development and training. More than half of the managers (67 out of 110 managers) have stated that they have participated in some way in evaluating development and training programs with 93 percent of them confirming that an evaluation is conducted. As for those who did not participate in the evaluation process, 47 percent of them have confirmed its administration. From the table above it is clear that an evaluation stage is administered for the training and development programs conducted by the managers' respective organizations, however not all managers have participated. The Chi-square test found that there is a statistically significant difference between those who answered yes and those whose answer was no favouring managers whose answer was yes ($\chi^2 = 29.252$, $df = 2$, $P > 0.000$).

6.4.11 The Methods Used in Evaluating Training and Development Programs

Table 6.41
Methods Used in the Evaluation of Training and Development Programs

Methods of Evaluation	Managers' Responses							Mean	Median
	Yes		Sometimes		No				
	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)	Freq.*	(%)			
Trainees filling out a questionnaire	74	68	18	17	16	15	1.46	1.00	
Trainee performance before and after the training	29	27	59	55	19	18	1.91	2.00	
Interviewing the trainees	13	13	56	54	34	33	2.20	2.00	
Asking the trainees' supervisors for their opinions	15	14	61	58	30	28	2.14	2.00	
Testing the trainees' level of learning	17	17	43	42	42	41	2.25	2.00	
Assessing impact on employee performance	12	12	64	67	20	21	2.08	2.00	

*Freq. stands for frequency.

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.41 shows the managers' responses with regards to the frequency of different methods used in evaluating training and development programs. No surprise, the questionnaire method is the most frequently used method with a mean of 1.46 followed by observing the trainee performance before and after the provision of training with a mean of 1.91. Among the least frequently used methods is to test the trainee learning experience using formal and standardized testing tools.

6.4.12 Factors that Affect the Evaluation of Training and Development Programs

Table 6.42

Managers' Level of Agreement with Factors That Affect the Evaluation of Training and Development Programs

Factors Affecting the Evaluation of Training and Development	Managers' Level of Agreement				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
It is difficult to evaluate training and development programs	-	19 (17%)	10 (9%)	75 (69%)	5 (5%)
<i>Mean = 3.62</i>					
There is inadequate data to evaluate trainees' behaviour such as performance reports	2 (2%)	13 (12%)	38 (35%)	50 (46%)	6 (5%)
<i>Mean = 3.41</i>					
Evaluation is costly	-	1 (1%)	19 (17%)	76 (70%)	13 (12%)
<i>Mean = 3.93</i>					
Evaluation is time consuming	-	35 (32%)	7 (6%)	52 (48%)	15 (14%)
<i>Mean = 3.43</i>					
Goals of training and development are not clear therefore evaluation becomes difficult	-	9 (8%)	35 (32%)	59 (54%)	6 (6%)
<i>Mean = 3.57</i>					

Source: Data Analysis

A summary of the managers' attitudes (level of agreement) towards specific factors that affect the evaluation of training and development programs is given in table 6.42. The

table shows the percentages of managers' level of agreement using a Likert scale on five attributes (Cronbach Alpha's = .650).

For the most part, the table shows that managers' attitudes towards evaluation are positive and that it should be undertaken. The majority of managers tend to disagree with the statements presented above. With a mean of 3.93 most managers disagree with the statement that it is costly to evaluate training programs. This is followed by the statement on the difficulty of running an evaluation which also most managers have disagreed with (mean = 3.62). In contrast, the inadequate data to evaluate trainees' behaviour (performance reports) had the lowest mean among all other statements (mean = 3.41).

6.5 Problems and Future Challenges Affecting Management Development and Training in the Studied Organizations

The following section presents the results in relation to the problems and future challenges facing the management development and training. The section is divided into four main parts where in each part a number of issues is tackled.

Table 6.43

Various Organizational Constrains that Obstruct Management Development and Training

Managerial Constrains Affecting Management Development and Training	Managers' Level of Agreement				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Part 1: Managerial constrains					
Lack of commitment by senior management to training and development	17 (16%)	3 (3%)	34 (31%)	49 (44%)	7 (6%)
<i>Mean = 3.24</i>					
Absence of plans to develop the human asset in the organization	14 (13%)	4 (4%)	33 (30%)	40 (36%)	19 (17%)
<i>Mean = 3.42</i>					
Inability to determine the real needs of the organization and the individual employee	11 (10%)	8 (7%)	30 (28%)	49 (44%)	12 (11%)
<i>Mean = 3.39</i>					
None-existence of training and development function	5 (4%)	7 (6%)	28 (26%)	61 (56%)	9 (8%)
<i>Mean = 3.56</i>					
Negative stereo-typing of management development and training	9 (8%)	5 (4%)	17 (16%)	65 (59%)	14 (13%)
<i>Mean = 3.64</i>					
Training and development is not part of the overall strategic plan of my organization	2 (2%)	5 (4%)	31 (28%)	51 (47%)	21 (19%)
<i>Mean = 3.76</i>					
Management sees training and development as cost rather than investment	5 (4%)	10 (9%)	24 (22%)	48 (44%)	23 (21%)
<i>Mean = 3.67</i>					

Managerial Constrains Affecting Management Development and Training	Managers' Level of Agreement				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Part 2: Administrative Constrains					
Low quality of available training and development programs	4 (4%)	9 (8%)	33 (30%)	53 (48%)	11 (10%)
<i>Mean = 3.53</i>					
Lack of training and management development agencies	10 (9%)	4 (4%)	16 (14%)	68 (62%)	12 (11%)
<i>Mean = 3.62</i>					
Hard to evaluate training programs	8 (7%)	9 (8%)	31 (28%)	46 (42%)	16 (15%)
<i>Mean = 3.48</i>					
Not enough people in your organization handle this activity/function	11 (10%)	8 (7%)	14 (13%)	63 (57%)	14 (13%)
<i>Mean = 3.55</i>					
Part 4: Cost related constrains					
Not enough funds to allocate to this activity	4 (4%)	6 (5%)	27 (25%)	52 (47%)	21 (19%)
<i>Mean = 3.73</i>					
High employee turnover in your organization	8 (7%)	5 (4%)	25 (23%)	61 (56%)	11 (10%)
<i>Mean = 3.56</i>					
Part 4: Structural constrains					
Unclear organizational structure	2 (2%)	4 (4%)	12 (11%)	76 (69%)	16 (14%)
<i>Mean = 3.91</i>					
How jobs are organized does not allow your organization to benefit from training	12 (11%)	4 (4%)	13 (12%)	64 (58%)	17 (15%)
<i>Mean = 3.64</i>					

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.43 shows the percentages of managers' level of agreement using a Likert scale on fifteen statements (Cronbach Alpha's = .906).

Part 1 in table 6.43 above presents a summary of the managers' responses to statements regarding managerial issues that could obstruct the effectiveness of management development and training. With a mean of 3.76 managers are confident that management development and training is part of the strategic plans in the organizations they work in. The managers also disagree with the assumption that their organizations sees development and training as an additional unwanted cost (mean 3.67). On the other side of the continuum, the managers' responses indicated that it is the lack of commitment by senior management which needs to be strengthened, although a mean of 3.24 is considered relatively high.

Part two in table 6.43 relates to administrative constrains that obstruct the effectiveness of management development and training. With little variation in the managers' responses among the different constrains, the difficulty of evaluating training programs had the lowest level of agreement (mean = 3.48). The lack of specialized agencies in the field of management development and training had the highest level of disagreement among respondents (mean = 3.62).

As for part three and four in table 6.43, they deal with cost and structural constrains respectively. Managers' tend to disagree with the statement on lack of funds (mean = 3.73) much more than high employee turnover which also had a relatively high level of disagreement (mean = 3.56). Structural constrains such as the statement on unclear organizational structure had the highest level of disagreement (mean = 3.91), which,

according to the managers, means that they have a clear structure which should not impede the effectiveness of management development and training programs. Similarly but with less intensity, the managers disagree on the statement that how jobs are organized should in any way obstruct management development and training.

6.5.1 Challenges that may Require a Heightened Attention from your Organization towards Management Development and Training

Table 6.44

Distribution of Managers' Responses by their Level of Agreement on the Following Challenges

Challenges That Require Increased Attention to Management Development and Training	Managers' Level of Agreement				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Entry of new local competitors into the market	50 (46%)	38 (34%)	(9%)	12 (11%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.85</i>					
Entry of new external competitor(s) into the market	23 (21%)	36 (33%)	22 (20%)	28 (25%)	1 (1%)
<i>Mean = 2.53</i>					
Changes in technology	63 (57%)	39 (36%)	7 (6%)	1 (1%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.51</i>					
Changes in customer preference	46 (42%)	49 (45%)	10 (9%)	5 (4%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.76</i>					
New regulations and laws	16 (15%)	57 (52%)	29 (26%)	8 (7%)	-
<i>Mean = 2.26</i>					
Changes in the labour market	44 (40%)	58 (53%)	6 (5%)	2 (2%)	-
<i>Mean = 1.69</i>					

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.44 gives a summary of the managers' level of agreement on six future challenges facing management development and training using Likert scale (Cronbach Alpha's = .652). According to the managers, changes in technology pose the biggest threat that demands the utmost attention from their respective organizations (mean = 1.51). Table 6.44 also shows that this challenge is closely followed by changes in labour market (mean = 1.69) as well as changes in customer preference (mean = 1.76) and entry of a new local competitor (mean = 1.85). In contrast, both challenges the entry of new external competitor (mean = 2.53) and the introduction of new regulations and laws (mean = 2.26) attracted the lowest level of agreement in terms of their force to increase the organizations' attention to management development and training.

6.6 Analysis of Data Collected through Interviews

This section analyses and tabulates data that gathered as a result of interviewing 10 managers in top level positions in the surveyed organizations. In addition, statements that are relevant to the research objectives will be quoted where possible.

6.6.1 Managers' Attitudes towards the Importance of Training and Development

Table 6.45

Managers' Attitudes towards Training and Development

Managers' Attitudes	Managers' Responses
Positive	10
Negative	-
Total	10

Source: Data Analysis

As shown in table 6.45, all the managers that were interviewed have shown their zeal and interest in training and development. All in all, during the interviews all the managers expressed their positive attitudes towards training and development in their organizations. One interviewee's comment was that "training and development is extremely needed in our organization and therefore we are trying to push for more investment and attention towards it" (Manager 7). Another reason given by another interviewee was: "I see training and development as very important aspect of what we do and more so the path for improved organizational performance" (Manager 5).

One commentator viewed training and development as necessary however for those who can afford it. His comments were: "I totally understand the importance of this function

and I am for it, however not all organizations can afford this kind of investment and if they can they would not know how” (Manager 2).

6.6.2 Management Development and Training as a Separate Unit

Table 6.46

Managers’ Responses on Training and Development as a Separate Unit

Training as a Separate Unit	Managers’ Responses
Yes	6
No	4
Total	10

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.46 shows that the results almost have a split decision among those interviewed managers. 6 out of 10 managers say that training and development should have a separate entity including people and funding. The other 4 managers viewed training and development as part of the human resource department.

Garavan (2007) emphasized the importance of having a separate function for training and development given its immediate impact on performance in general as well as its vigour in driving the organization towards its aspirations. Several Researchers have argued that more recently organizations are setting up separate units or department for training and development given the scope and extent of such function (Garavan, 2007; Buckley and Kemp, 1989; McCall *et al.*, 1988).

The following quote is made by one of the managers who thought that there was no need to have a separate function for training and development. His words were: “I disagree

with establishing a separate unit for training and development. On the contrary, training and development as a function or set of activities should be integrated within the larger function that is human resource management” (Manager 1). On the other hand, another commentator who approved of the idea of setting up a separate unit, his words were the following: “Given the importance and extent of activities that are entrusted to training and development, this function ought to have its own unit or department” (Manager 9).

6.6.3 How Effective Planning and Budgeting for Training and Development

Table 6.47

Managers’ Perception of Planning and Budgeting for Training and Development

Managers’ Responses	Training Plans’ effectiveness	Training Budget Adequacy
Yes	8	6
No	2	4
Total	10	10

Source: Data Analysis

Obviously, Table 6.47 shows that overall training and development as a function in the surveyed organizations has plans of its own which are accompanied or supported with budgets. Yet, some managers had more to say about the effectiveness of these plans as well as the adequacy of allocated budgets. One interviewee put it bluntly: “Yes, we have plans but these plans seem a bit separated from reality; they do not correspond to the true needs of the organization and they lack the strategic scope or direction” (Manager 1). Regarding the budget, one of the interviewees who commented about their inadequacy has this to say: “On yearly basis, budgets are allocated to fund the activities of

training and development, yet it is not know whether the allocated budgets are sufficient or not; anyway they are predetermined and their size are dependent on the performance of the organization as a whole rather than according to the objectives of the relevant plans” (Manager 5).

There quite a number of researchers that underscored the importance of having specific plans for training and development which should be linked to and derived from the strategic direction of the entire organization. Training and development should not be a standalone but integrated with the plans of other functions or departments (See for example Doyle, 2000; Storey *et al.*, 1997; Thomson, *et al.*, 1997).

6.6.4 Managers’ Attitudes towards the Process of Training and Development

Table 6.48

Managers’ Attitudes towards the process of Training and Development

Managers’ Responses	Needs Assessment for Training programs	Delivery of Training Programs	Evaluation of Training Programs
Positive	7	5	6
Negative	3	5	4
Total	10	10	10

Source: Data Analysis

At some point in the interview, the interviewees were asked to express their views and attitudes towards the process of management development and training in their respective organizations. The results in Table 6.48 show that to a large degree the

managers seem to have a positive attitude towards the process, however few comments did stand out. The following comment was made by one interviewee:

“The entire process lacks continuity and integration. What I want to say is that there is no systematic and cumulative build up of knowledge for how activities are planned and implemented. In terms of the process it is very much like a set of routine tasks being performed over and over” (Manager 3).

Most literature suggested otherwise. Many researchers emphasized the importance of having a system for training and development with its parts well integrated and where this system is part of a larger system (See for example Arnold *et al.*, 1998; Doyle, 1994; Mumford, 1993; Margerson, 1991). Garavan (2007) argued that these three different parts, namely the needs assessment, delivery, and evaluation should make up a complete and unified system with a holistic view of the organization and its context.

Another commentator has expressed his concerns regarding the evaluation process of such programs and their impact on performance. The following statement was made:

“Except for the questionnaire which the trainees are asked to fill out at the end of the training activity, there is nothing much to talk about when it comes to evaluation. Currently, there is no mechanism to assess the impact of training activity on the performance of the individual” (Manager 8).

6.6.5 The Constraints Facing Training and Development

When managers were asked about their perceptions of possible constraints facing the further development of training in their organizations, the entire interviewees had one

constraint in common, that is the Israeli occupation. One comment was that “the occupation denies us the basic human rights such as freedom of movement and the right to choose. The occupation interferes to a large degree in our work by imposing military restrictions on the organizations in general and telecommunication organizations in particular” (Manager 2).

Another Manager concluded that the lack of training professionals, and to be more exact, the inexistence of specialized training agencies, makes it hard for our organizations to move forward with training and development” (Manager 10).

6.6.6 Future Challenges Facing Training and Development

When it comes to the challenge posed by a new competitor, one comment summed it up: “we are not fearful of competition because no investor or a company would be interested in operating in an environment like ours characterized by political turmoil and economic stability and these ailments are just temporary, they are stagnant and perpetual” (Manager 9).

Another comment made by one of the interviewees concerning the introduction of new regulations and laws. Said Manager (3): “Our government is incapable of doing anything at the moment given the restrictions and bottlenecked negotiations with the Israeli government”. This exact statement shows that although the Palestinian government needs to free itself from the shackles of the occupation, they need to step up their zeal and act in the interests of the Palestinian consumer; this is also in accordance with a

report issued by the World Bank under the title of 'Introducing Competition in the Palestinian Telecommunications Sector (2008)'.

6.7 Summary

Chapter six, in its entirety, has laid out a descriptive analysis of the of the major survey findings concerning the management development and training in the telecommunication sector in Palestine. The findings relate to top-level and middle level managers' perceptions and attitudes to management development and training in their organizations. The presentation therein follows the same structure of the questionnaire; the presentation of findings, therefore, was divided into four main sections. The chapter first set out with a profile of the organizations concerned; a description of the organizations, years in operations, number of employees, and general results on the function of Human Resource in those organizations. In addition, the section presents some demographic data on the respondents including age, gender, level of education, years of experience, and job titles. Section two has set out a description and analysis of findings in relation to the plans and policies concerned with management development and training in the studied organizations. Findings such as the nature of these plans, who is responsible for their formulation, their time span, and whether these plans have a budget component were presented. In section three, the managers reveal their views on their experience with the process of management development and training in their respective organizations. This section provides a summary of the major findings concerning the planning (need assessment), implementation, and evaluation of

management development and training programs. As such, methods and criteria used in those organizations to assess development and training needs, types and frequency of training and development programs, as well as how often evaluation of such programs takes place and the methods used for evaluation were presented in this section. The fourth section in this chapter highlights the respondents' views on problems and future challenges facing management development and training in their respective organizations; findings with regards to main obstacles which obstruct the effective planning, implementation, and evaluation of training and development programs, and forces that push in the direction of increased attention and investment in training and development by the concerned organizations were presented. A final section was entirely devoted to the analysis of findings resulting from the interviews that were conducted with top managers in the surveyed organizations. This section was an attempt to uncover top-management attitudes towards training and development in the same spirit of the questionnaire. In the next chapter, a comprehensive discussion of the findings and results of the survey, including information gathered through interviews and relevant literature is presented.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the main findings that came about through out this research. The chapter is intended to review all evidence, brought together either through desk research or field work, in order to provide insights and answers to the research questions posed in this study. In other words, the chapter will put together those fragmented pieces of information presented in previous chapters into a whole picture through a discussion of the main issues along with their implications. The chapter will start with a discussion of the main themes and research questions which mainly include the nature and extent of management development and training in the studied organizations, the effectiveness of the process of management development and training and how its effectiveness is perceived by top and middle level managers, the obstacles that encounter training and development programs, and what the future challenges facing development and training are and to what extent they are likely to demand an increased investment in management development and training. This will be followed by an explanation of the most desirable training and development process to top and middle managers; a discussion of the guiding model in this study (section 3.2.10) plus suggestions for modifying the model will be presented along with its implications. The chapter will combine the survey results and the interviewees' comments with relevant pieces of the literature in an effort to produce a complete and comprehensive idea.

To begin with, it is worth to restate that the main objective of this research was to explore the nature and extent of management development and training within the telecommunication sector in Palestine. Consequently, this main objective was broken down into a set of objectives allowing the researcher to pursue each using different approaches.

7.2 Discussion of the Main Findings

7.2.1 Participant Organizations

The highest level of contribution of data in relation to this research was dominated by Jawwal (Mobile Telephone Company), Paltel (Landline Telephone Company), followed by Hadara (Internet Provider) and Hulul (information Technology Services). All participating organizations have their headquarters in the Ramallah governorate with branches across the west bank and Gaza strip. In addition, the number of years in operation for these organizations ranges between 8 and 15 years. The mobile and landline telephone companies had the highest number of years in operation. The five participating organizations make up the Corporate Group called Paltel (See Table 6.1 and Table 6.2).

The average capital in those organizations is 25 million Jordanian Dinars; here as well both the mobile and landline companies had the highest capital threshold. In addition, according to the respondents as well as local Palestinian market indicators, all organizations enjoy an above average market performance. Note that these organizations were the first movers into the Palestinian market which gave them edge against other

competing businesses. They were also given exclusive contracts to be the sole operators of such services for a number of years; for example Jawwal the mobile company had an exclusive contract for 10 years since the start of its operation in year 1995. In this respect, one interviewer made the following comment: “We were the sole operators of telecommunication in Palestine; we enjoyed an exclusivity contract which allowed us to be the first mover and the only operator for the past 10 years. This has had very positive impact on our performance results” (Manager 8).

All participating organizations have a human resource department and amongst its roles are the development and training of employees (Table 6.5); in fact 77 percent of participating managers stated that within their human resource department, there is an established unit responsible for training and development. The number of years in operation for these units is well above 7 years and employ on average between 2 to 5 employees. A case in point, said one manager: “the human resource department in our organization complement what we do; they support our work by recruiting and selecting potential individuals who will add value to our work” (Manager 7).

7.2.2 Participant Managers (Profile)

As discussed in the previous section, the largest number of respondents came from Jawwal the mobile company followed by Paltel the landline company; this was due to the fact that they are the largest businesses in terms of size and capital owned by Paltel Group. The age of participating managers ranges between 31 and 40 years old, a young age range which reflects the not so old age (years in operations) of their respective

businesses. Female representation among those who have participated in the study amounts to 19 percent which is thought to be the result of a society that is patriarchal in nature with consequences on selection and hiring decisions. All participating managers hold a university degree with well over 70 percent of them holding a bachelor degree and 25 percent holding a master's degree (Table 6.12). With this in mind, the following remark is made by one of interviewed managers: "We enjoy a good reputation in our community which makes us the place for many job seekers; our pool of potential job seekers is extremely versatile and to some extent of high calibre" (Manager 1).

As for the participating managers' years of experience, they range between 6 and 10 years. The number of completed and returned questionnaires was 110 with a 10 percent representation for top-level managers and 90 percent for middle-level managers (see Table 6.14).

7.2.3 The Nature and Extent of Current Role of Development and Training

Throughout the review of the literature, several researchers argue that top-management commitment is extremely important for management development and training to be effective. Hence the relationship between training and development and the level and intensity of top-management commitment was at the receiving end for lot of praise (Longenecker and Fink, 2001; Thomson, *et al.*, 1997; Storey *et al.*, 1997; Jennings *et al.*, 1995; Cannon and Taylor 1994; Buckley and Kemp, 1989; Harrison, 1989). As a result, there was a need to further explore the perceptions and attitudes of top-management towards training and development. With that in mind, parts of all the interviews

conducted with top officials in the surveyed organizations were dedicated to exploring that particular aspect. Top-management in those organizations are strongly committed and are in full support of training and development as well as being aware of the positive impact of such an important function. Moreover, all top officials think that this was their obligation towards their employees; to improve their skills and performance. Almost all interviewed managers emphasized that a potential way to strengthen the link between organizational performance and the employees' calibre is through training and development. They have also disclosed their thoughts on the financial support that their respective organizations have contributed in the past and will continue to do so.

Similarly, part of section two in the questionnaire was also concerned with exploring the commitment of top-management to training and development. It is important however to recall from section 6.2.5 (Table 6.5) that in those surveyed organizations a unit for training and development has been set up and it is being comprised of 2 to 5 employees. This gives an indication of the commitment that top-management in those organizations have towards training and development. According to the managers' responses, more than 80 percent have confirmed that a written plan for training and development is present. In addition, almost 50 percent of participant managers have agreed that their plans have a medium time horizon. Thus, it can be said that the data collected through the questionnaire represent further evidence that top-management in the surveyed organizations are in support of management development and training; the availability and time frame of such plans is considered a very good initial step in the direction to an effective training and development system in these organizations. In this respect, the

following comment is brought forward: “perhaps our plans lack the long-term scope because they are set up annually. This will lessen the impact of such plans on long range strategic objectives” (Manager 6).

As for the communication of the plans of management development and training to different stakeholders, more importantly to the various organizational levels, the result (approximately 70 percent of managers) shows that the plans are being communicated to different levels in the organization. On the other hand, the channel of communication in which the plans are conveyed through are not satisfying and lacking according to managers’ perception; certain aspects of the plan are not shared across different levels in the organization. When it comes to communicating plans of training and development, the literature holds a firm stance on this issue. Arnold *et al.* (1998), Kotter (1996), and Armstrong (1995) argue that for training and development plans to be effective they should be able to instil a sense of ownership in virtually all employees; employees should contribute to the formulation of such plans as well as being kept in the loop. This can be done when organizations have an effective and transparent communication system.

In addition, the communication medium used does not allow for initiating discussion and input from other quite relevant parties. This being said, the degree of contribution to the plans of training and development is limited to the human resource department, which according to the results obtained from the survey show that overall, the human resource department has the responsibility for developing such plans. It can be inferred that none of the surveyed organizations follows a joint approach in developing such plans which according to the literature requires the input of several stakeholders such as supervisors,

managers, human resource staff, and more importantly the commitment of top-management (Buckley and Kemp, 1989). One comment which is found to be relevant in this context is made by Manager 7: “We have loop holes on our communication system; it is fragmented and has weak integration with other systems in the organization”. Another comment made with regards to the formulation of training and development plans is made by Manager 10: “the formulation of training and development plans is dominated by human resource personnel leaving small room for contributions from other departments; this is not to say however that this is what the human resource department want, the system does not allow for a good participatory approach in formulating these plans”.

Concerning the important issue of an available budget that would fund the key activities noted in the plan for training and development, most managers have confirmed of an existing budget to support such activities. Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2003), Abu Doleh (1998), Al-Ali and Taylor (1997), Palmer *et al.* (1987) and Zoubi (1982) argue that in the Arab world, there are a number of factors that negatively influence the effectiveness of training and development, among those factors is the lack of budgeting. This however, is not the case in the surveyed organizations; the budget represents an integral part of the plan for which funds have been allocated. Across the same lines, the level of budgeting is quite satisfactory. A significant number of managers have note that the budget set for funding such activities is sufficient allowing the organization to meet not only the present needs of training and development but future ones as well (see Table 6.21). This is also an indication of top-management commitment to training and development manifested in

their view of management development and training, not as an expendable function, but as an investment into the organizations' future. Yet another indication of the effectiveness of management development and training is the percentage of completion of such plans. The results show that well above 70 percent of such plans are implemented. One interviewee noted that two factors affect the implementation of plans aimed at improving the workforce: a) the occupation and political unrest; b) the lack of local experts in specified areas. The other interviewees, with no exception, showed resilience and commented on the keenness of their organizations towards implementing their plans to the fullest.

As for the policies that are currently in place in the surveyed organizations that are specifically concerned with management development and training, the result show that written policies do exist in those organizations - a confirmation from more than 80 percent of the participating managers (see Table 6.23). Correspondingly, several interviewees have elaborated on the fact that their policies were formal enough so that their application would achieve the aim of the organization as well as its staff. On the other hand, two interviewees have stated their concern regarding the revision of such policies by saying that it is not being done frequently enough so that they are kept current and effective; certain policies have become obsolete. For example, the organization's training self-sufficiency policy is obsolete and costly for the organization. Furthermore, a review of the literature reveals that for training and development to be effective in meeting the needs of both the organization and the individuals therein, an effective policy must be in place and kept current (Harrison, 1992). Similarly, Carnevale *et*

al. (1990) went further by arguing that for a policy to be successful in the long run it should be based on the development of the local workforce thus maintaining and sustaining local organizations in the future. Other researchers maintained a strong position on the issue of developing training and development specific policies at the organization policy level (see for example Gravan (2007) Grieves (2003), Garavan *et al.* (1995), Handy (1987), and Constable McCormick (1987)).

The result of training and development provision to top and middle managers has proved to be significant and pervasive, which means that almost all the managers' have received some form of training and development in the past - well above 95 percent. The results also show that there is more concentration in the provision of training and development among top-level managers as opposed to middle-level managers. The results indicate that the lower the managerial level and its position in the organizational hierarchy the less intense and extent training and development provision become.

This far, the discussion generated regarding the nature and extent of training and development in the surveyed organizations demonstrate the existence of a significant attention in terms of planning, budgeting, and even at the policy-making level. However, the results show that the communication of such plans should be improved as well as allow further contributions from various levels and units in the organization into the making of such plans. In addition, findings indicate the need for more frequent revisions of policies with regards to training and development. Likewise, there is enough evidence on the provision of training and development to all levels in the organization, yet the

evidence also shows that the mechanism of training and development provision is not satisfactory enough given its concentration in high managerial levels.

7.2.4 Discussion of Findings on the Process of Management Development and Training

There are loads of available literature on management development and training describing it as a process- a continuous and dynamic one (Dessler, 2005; Clarke, 1999; Mabey and Salaman, 1995; Doyle, 1994; Mumford, 1993; Lees, 1992; Harrison, 1992; Margerison, 1991; Davis, 1990). The very nature of such writings emphasizes training and development as a process that is dynamic and changes according to the needs of the organization and the people therein. They also argue that in order for this process to be of great benefit, top-management commitment and funding is extremely important; without it, there can be no harvest of benefits. The literature on training and development in the Arab world view training and development as ineffective in terms of its inherent inconsistencies in achieving organizational goals and its inadequacy for failing to assume a holistic perspective. This position was also assumed by Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2003) on training and development in Palestine.

During the interviews, all the managers have stated their agreement to the fact that management development and training is a process divided into planning, implementation and evaluation. On the other hand, it was clear from their responses that their contribution to the planning stage was very limited by saying that it is the responsibility of the human resource department: "...they do all the planning for us and we are notified so we know what is expected" (Manager 5). Less than overwhelming, they

were also unanimous in recognizing the positive impact of training and development on the quality of the services offered to the market; improving the skills and competencies of the employees result in improved organizational performance. Yet, few managers, 3 out of 10 managers, brought forward the discussion of how this relationship is tested and how the impact of training and development is measured.

The sections hereafter present a discussion of the process of management development and training in the surveyed organizations according to the perceptions and views of participant managers.

7.2.4.1 Training and Development Needs' Assessment

It was clear from the findings in section 6.4.1 that a need assessment is frequently conducted in order to identify the needs of management development and training. The results indicate that the performance of the need assessment represent a corner stone in highlighting the specific issues that should be addressed during the implementation stage; according to their answers the objective of the need assessment was to underscore the gaps between the current performance and future anticipated performance. The most widely used method in assessing the needs for training and development is the performance appraisal tool followed by a special committee that helps in identifying those needs. Well, almost none of the respondents gave any indication to the possibility of them being part of the need assessment process, which could possibly give more weight to organizational goals over individual goals; individual goals are diluted (see Table 6.28). Supervisors also have very limited contribution to this process. This being said, the

process of identifying the needs of training and development is somewhat deficient in its ability to incorporate multidimensional views of different stakeholders, most importantly supervisors and the managers themselves. Again, there is too much dependence on the human resource department when it comes to assessing the needs for training and development, which could result in, at least sometimes, a less than comprehensive view and incomplete identification of needs. In this regard the literature encourages a participatory approach which allows a multiple stakeholders' views to be incorporated in the needs assessment stage (Doyle, 2000a; Mole, 1996; Mumford, 1987). Across the same lines, one manager said: "predominantly performance appraisal contributes to the needs assessment of training and development" (Manager 5).

As far as the survey concerned, the results show that there are a number of factors which these organizations take into consideration when assessing their needs for training and development. However, there seems to be a fuzzy view among participant managers regarding those factors, which in the considered opinion of the researcher is due to their lack of knowledge of how the needs assessment is conducted and to what extent the factors presented in the questionnaire are taken into consideration. On the other hand, the results show that there is a tendency in those organizations to overlook cultural factors as well as government regulations concerned with management development and training when conducting their assessment (Table 6.29). The literature in that regard holds a firm view (Analoui, 2002; Drost *et al.*, 2002; Hofstede, 1984), the impact of local culture on the reliability of management development and training must not be ignored; in many situations where culture was overlooked, the results of training and development

were found to be less than satisfactory. Factors associated with the organization and the individual are not well balanced when conducting the assessment; there is a tendency for organizational interests to surpass those of the individual.

Regarding the important factor of performance appraisal during the needs assessment stage, the results show that in these organizations a performance appraisal is conducted systematically and they also show that the outcome of such process is taken into consideration when assessing the needs for training and development. However, one drawback becomes evident which relates to the process being done by the human resource department without referring the employee's supervisor or the employee herself or himself.

In so far as to the administration of a need assessment for training and development in the surveyed organizations, a need assessment actually takes place. However, there is so much reliance on employees' performance appraisals which are normally backward looking and do not capture the future needs of neither the organization nor the individual. Literature as well identify this problem as a systematic error which means that those organizations rely on one method and undermine the other methods of assessment such as observation, questionnaires, interviews, organizational policies, and job descriptions. The idea here is to have a holistic view of the needs for training and development and not just a mere microscopic view. The more tools utilized the broader the scope of the assessment stage which also helps in establishing the grounds for post-training evaluation as well as identify non-training areas which influence performance.

7.2.4.2 Training and Development Implementation

The extent of implementing activities related to training and development in the surveyed organizations is wide-ranging; the results show that 80 percent of all participating managers have had some form of training and development. The results also show that over the past two years the majority of respondents have received on average more than 2 training courses (Table 6.34). This being said, it indicates that these organizations are relatively active when it comes to administering training related activities. According to one interviewer, he notes that the provision of some of these training courses are not planned, instead they come about as a result of the work of those responsible for the training and development units. Other interviewees have highlighted this issue by saying that there is a gap between the plan and its implementation which according to them is attributed to various weaknesses during the formulation stage of the plan; for the most part it is formulated by the human resource department. Interestingly enough, it has been pointed out that the administration of many training courses is on a need basis as well as what is available in terms of trainers, training manuals and other key components. Doyle (2000), Mole (1996) and Roberts and McDonald (1995) support this finding by stating that most organizations, when it comes to training and development, have a tendency to rely on typical over-simplified solutions rather than solutions that address the real challenges.

As it may be well understood, the fact that technical training is the most frequently administered type of training can be sometimes overrated. The results show that for the most part training is concentrated in technical areas and career related areas overlooking

other types such as social, strategic, marketing, and financial training. A comment by one manager stated that “the range of training and development in our organization is inadequate, hence limiting the types of training and development activities that can be delivered” (Manager 9).

Section 2.4.1 of chapter two examines the importance of management development and training in advancing current and future managerial performance by communicating knowledge, altering attitudes, and increasing skills (Dessler, 2005). In the researcher’s opinion, for training and development to be successful and for these organizations to reap the wide variety of its benefits, a more systematic and holistic approach should be followed in implementing training related activities. Thus, diversifying the portfolio of training and development provision is extremely important.

Off the job training (outside the organization) is the most commonly used method of training in the surveyed organizations which is mostly delivered through lectures (see Table 6.36). Most managers have received their training and development in Paltel academy where almost all training take place. Well, the literature on the methods of training and development holds an opposing view to what is being practiced in the surveyed organizations (section 2.4.5). Over-reliance on classroom learning as opposed to experiential learning and the failure to link the development needs of the organization with those of the individual manager will only produce mediocre results. The participant managers did not mention methods like job-rotation, coaching, action learning and research insight, through which training and development is delivered. Accordingly, it is suggested that these organizations should consider diversifying their training methods

which in their case is desirable if they want to achieve enhanced individual and organization performance and to eliminate complacency in their approach towards training and development. This suggestion comes in line with what the literature proposed (see for example Watson, 2008; Analoui, 2007; Doyle 2000a, 2000b; Armstrong, 1999; Mumford, 1993).

The main reason for the high frequency of conducting off-the-job training is the deficiency (lack of knowledge and skills) that local consultants suffer from, as several interviewees put it. Correspondingly, the evidence derived from the findings show that the majority of respondents confirmed that their organizations invite external consultants to conduct training for their managers, send their managers to attend training in other countries, and acquire the support of third party - a training agency. Hence, it is inferred that overall, in the surveyed organizations there is tendency towards the formal approach to training and development as opposed to an informal approach. Armstrong (1999) argues differently by saying that an informal approach is the most powerful form of learning under the assumption that managers learn by doing. He further adds that as a result of variations in the managers' abilities and learning experiences, a mixture of formal and informal approaches to management training and development can be judicious. The surveyed organizations should also consider that depending, almost entirely, on external consultants and training conducted outside the realm of their organizations, could spur certain problems to occur, best summarized in the higher costs of training and development, the general nature of the materials and manuals used, the lack of knowledge that an organization have about an external trainer, and failure of the

trainer to connect with the spirit, philosophy, and culture of the organization. Therefore, it is suggested that the surveyed organizations should consider the development of in-house trainers, and organize an integrated approach to training and development - one that balances between formal and informal approaches.

Other readings of the extent of training and development implementation refer to actual training provision to the newly hired and promoted managers. The results show a discrepancy between the level of training offered to newly hired managers and promoted managers, whereby the latter receives much less training than that received by the former. During the interviews managers showed unmindful remarks towards the importance of training provision to promoted managers assuming that promoted managers already know what they need to know about their new jobs and the organization. The literature disagrees with that notion, Shanley (2007) argues that supporting existing staff is crucial for succession planning and maintaining a good level of performance when managers are promoted to new positions. Accordingly, the researcher's suggestion for the surveyed organizations to start considering this aspect of training and development provision which will ensure lower level of disruptions in the workplace, a good handover and smooth transition, and less confusion on the part of the newly promoted manager. The list of tools for achieving this includes, but not limited to, coaching, mentoring, and peer support.

Regarding the results of the managers' levels of satisfaction with a previously attended training, they show that in general the managers were satisfied. This is good, however it should be noted that given the limited nature, methods, and tools utilized in training and

development in the surveyed organizations, the results are satisfying. In light of these results, the researcher thinks the managers' responses represent an acceptability threshold which is the opposite of optimization whereby other criteria are sacrificed. More specifically, their responses offer an acquiescence response bias.

To summarize this section, the literature as well as the findings of both the interviews and the survey suggest that the implementation of training and development in the surveyed organizations should be enabled and empowered further; off course, provided these organizations choose to reap greater benefits from this omnipotent managerial function. More specifically, they need to diversify their portfolio of training and development activities by integrating the formal with the informal approaches. A utilization of the wide variety of methods of training and development rather than focusing on few methods is also very important; otherwise the real outcome of such function would turn to be limited. In addition, the top-management in the surveyed organizations needs to reconsider their mechanism for distributing their training and development activities that will allow the outcome of this function to serve both the individual and the organization. Linking expenditures on training and development with the needs of the individual and the organization would allow a better redistribution of resources among different managerial levels.

7.2.4.3 Training and Development Evaluation

The last but not least stage in the training and development process is evaluation. A stage that describes how well the identification of needs were carried out during the assessment stage, and how good were the implementation of training and development activities thereafter. There is a wide array of literature that specifically addresses this extremely important stage dating back to the 1950s when Kirkpatrick introduced his method for training and development. At the present time, there are several approaches to evaluation which vary from those that are objective, meticulous and scientific to those that are practical, subjective, and interpretive in direction (Collins, 2002; Garavan et al., 1999; Sogunro, 1997; Thomson et al., 1997; Doyle 1994; Goldstein, 1986; Hamblin, 1974). Section 2.4.7 in chapter two discusses this important stage in great length. With that in mind, the result of all the interviews, conducted with top management officials in the surveyed organizations, was a consensus among all interviewees regarding the importance of evaluation and that an evaluation is conducted frequently. Said one manager: “conducting an evaluation is vital to the effectiveness of training and development, otherwise we would never know the goodness of what we do off course in relation to training” (Manager 3).

Similar to the results of the interview, the results of the survey confirm that an evaluation is conducted following any training and development activity (Table 6.40 and Table 6.41). The results also show that even though evaluation of training and development programs does exist, the level of participation on part of the trainees is low. Furthermore the results show that the use of the questionnaire is the most frequently applied method of

evaluation. Well, overall the participant managers seem to have a positive attitude towards evaluation.

In the researcher's opinion, top-management in the surveyed organizations is not giving enough attention to the evaluation of training and development programs. Those responsible for training and development are also lacking in terms of how much effort and knowledge they invest in trying to obtain feedback about the impact of their programs. To say the least, too much reliance on the questionnaire to collect information about the impact of a training program is somewhat deficient. Questionnaires can be inadequate source of information (emotions, behaviour, etc...), lack validity, ineffective detector whether the trainee is telling the truth or how much thought was invested, and questions may be interpreted differently based on the trainee own experience. In support of the researcher's opinion, researchers have propounded that organizations should have a comprehensive evaluation system capable of capturing the true effectiveness and impact of such activities (Swanson and Holton, 1999; Mole, 1996; Currie, 1994; Smith, 1993).

On the whole, the integration of an evaluation system within a systematic model for training and development is extremely important. An evaluation system that allows the surveyed organizations to measure performance level outcomes manifested in behavioural change and learning enhancement. It is therefore the responsibility of top-management to make sure that an evaluation system is set up, which adopts a more holistic, more systematic perspectives that places emphasis on the extent to which

training and development activity fits with individual needs and the organizational context.

7.2.5 Challenges Facing Management Development and Training

Our success, thus far, in seeing a system of training and development that is systematic and well integrated with individual and organizational goals has been limited. What the results show instead is a piecemeal approach to training and development, a system that embodies conventionality and conformity to mediocre, sometimes outdated, processes that impede the development and evolution of this important function. This section brings forward a discussion on a number of challenges that face management development and training in the surveyed organizations. They are as follows:

- 1- *Managerial:* Overall, the results derived from the survey and the interviews regarding the managerial challenges facing training and development are kept at bay. According to the managers' responses, it is mainly top-management commitment to training and development that needs to be strengthened. In the opinion of the researcher, the relatively low commitment of top-management could spawn additional challenges that are equally important. As such, the ability to determine the real needs of individuals and organizations are put at risk, the plans of training and development are not integrated at the strategic level of the organization, and finally the feelings of complacency among personnel responsible for development and training. As a case in point, Mole (1996) suggested that in some organizations the approach to management development programs is

narrow and limited to a type of off-the-shelf management training courses and education programs.

- 2- *Quality*: According to the literature, the quality of training and development programs in terms of content, delivery, and impact remain highly elusive, nevertheless researchers (Burnes, 2003; Doyle, 2000; Stuart, 1995) confirmed a strong link between the quality of such programs and improved individual and organizational performance. Results from the survey show that evaluation of training and development programs represent the biggest challenge. Yet another somehow unexpected result that is quite contrary to available literature (see Analoui, 2003; Abu Dole, 1998; Al-Ali and Taylor (1997); Palmer *et al.*, 1987; Zoubi, 1982) on training and development in Palestine and the Arab world, the participant managers disagree with the lack of training and development professionals, and low quality of programs. Despite the researcher's belief that the challenge of evaluation of training and development programs in the surveyed organizations represents a major impediment, he thinks this challenge is surmountable.

- 3- *Cost*: The issue of funding can sometimes be misleading; how much funding is enough? Are the surveyed organizations spending more than what is required or they are spending less? According to the managers' responses the challenge of funding should not pose a threat to the effectiveness of training and development

in their organizations. Researchers still emphasize that funding of management development and training in many organizations is the first to be affected during a setback in market performance (Winterton and Winterton, 1997). Still other organizations are struggling with seeing training and development as an investment into their future (Broussine *et al.*, 1998). Two things come to mind: a) the importance of setting up benchmarks that lead to superior performance in training and development, whereby the purpose is not copying practices by other similar organizations but to seek superior performance of training and development by looking outside their market; b) enhanced linkages between the objectives of training and development and the tasks that need implementation in order to achieve the objectives.

7.2.6 Future Challenges that would Require Increased Attention

Section 2.5 in chapter two presents a detailed argument for the importance of management development and training in the context of change. Garavan *et al.*, (1990) stated that several factors such as globalization, shorter product life-cycles, and changing consumer demands, just to name a few, have induced fundamental changes requiring a more strategic view from those who manage and lead organizations. Other researchers have advocated that the need for effective training and development system is inevitable in light of the current conditions that are present in the environment (Drucker, 1999; Fulmer, 1997; Thomson, *et al.*, 1997; Storey *et al.*, 1997; Jennings *et al.*, 1995; Cannon and Taylor 1994; Senge, 1990; Buckley and Kemp, 1989; King, 1969). Within this context

Training and development can help the surveyed organizations in supporting their managers when responding to change initiatives.

Participant managers and top-management officials equally agree about the changes that would require increased attention from all related stakeholders. As such, technological changes followed by changes in labour market and customer preferences present clear and present danger according to findings derived from the survey. In this respect, one manager's comment was the following: "by far technological changes account for the most pressing changes that our organization should be attentive to. Changes in technology would require changes in how we conduct our work as well as how our managers are performing their jobs. Here we turn to training and development in face of these changes" (Manager 2).

Surely, these future challenges present incentives to the surveyed organizations to develop a strategic view of management development and training. A view whereby the surveyed organizations would understand that training and development is not an end in itself but a mean to an end: enhanced individual and organizational performance.

On the other hand, challenges such as the entry of a competitor and introduction of new regulations and laws do not hold, in the view of participant managers, a serious threat to their organizations. Hence, their impact on management development and training is seen to be very limited. Well, without real enforcement for regulations on part of the Palestinian government, any regulation will be meaningless. As for the entry of a new competitor, Paltel Group is the first mover and the pioneer in the Palestinian telecommunication sector, which in the researcher's opinion is the main reason for the

respondents' disagreement with that statement. It should be noted however that as long as Paltel Group remains capable of capitalizing on its advantage by maintaining an innovation culture which requires huge investment in the human capital.

7.3 A Perspective on the Effectiveness of Management Development and Training System in the Surveyed Organizations

As discussed in the previous sections, findings derived at through both the survey questionnaire and interview instruments, taken at face value, present a rosy view of training and development. If all that is needed was top-managers' positive attitudes towards the position and function of training and development for it to be warranted the importance and the place it deserves within an organization, then the findings from the questionnaire and interviews conducted for this study are that such commodities are by no means scarce. The following sections present a discussion of factors that hinder the effectiveness of training and development.

7.3.1 Heavy Emphasis on Dogmas of the Past

As far as the surveyed organizations are concerned, the dissection of the training and development process shows that the approach and methods used in each stage are traditional and linear. By traditional, the researcher means that there is an increased emphasis on specific instruments as opposed to other. For example, heavy emphasis on performance appraisal in assessing the needs of training and development while overlooking other criteria that should be equally important such as the strategies, mission

and goals of the organization, just to name a few. Another example which relates to the implementation stage is the increased emphasis on the lecture style in preference to other forms of delivering training and development. The questionnaire is another example of a traditional inadequate method of measuring impact of training and development. It is thought that these traditional training and development methods can put managers off learning.

7.3.2 Training and Development Funding

Under budget or over budget, the whole issue of budgeting for training and development is noticed to be a perplexing one. The process of budgeting in the surveyed organizations starts at the beginning of each financial year and ends with a decision of how much is allocated to the function of training and development. According to one top-official, the allocation is made in light of what is available or how much can the organization afford to spend on training and development. This problem is multifaceted; however, couple of issues are extremely important: first, it indicates that planning cover a short period of time and has no strategic overview; second, the affordable method in budgeting prohibits top-management from knowing the real impact of training and development, hence training and development becomes a function of revenue and profits rather than revenue and profits being a function of how well this managerial area performs.

7.3.3 Lack of Training and Development Professionals

This is a fact and therefore it should be noted; it is the lack of training and development professionals in Palestine (Analoui, 2003) along with the absence of organizations specialized in this area that are contributing to the inferior quality of training and development. This problem is even magnified further with the current employees responsible for the training and development in the surveyed organizations and their lack of awareness in the field of training and development.

7.3.4 Culture

Although the word 'culture' can have elusive meanings, in this case reference is made to the cultural fit between the design and implementation of training and development programs and the contextual characteristics of trainees. Results from the survey show that more than 60 percent of managers are neutral, when asked about their organizations' consideration of cultural factors when designing training programs. It should be noted here that, a cultural fit becomes very important when superior outcome is expected. The resources used in the training as well as the trainer will influence the effectiveness of the delivery of training and ultimately its outcome. Cultural factors, therefore, should not be underestimated in terms of their implications for Palestinian employees, who would feel more comfortable to learn and train when their cultural identity is accepted, and when they are not obliged to comply with behaviours that contradict their values and beliefs.

7.4 An Update of the Conceptual Model Used in Guiding this Research

Section 4.2.10 in chapter four presented the conceptual model that was used to guide this research in exploring the status and the effectiveness of the current system of management development and training in the surveyed organizations. The model was the outcome of an exploration of different models viewing training and development as a process; these models were conceived by different researchers in the field of training and development. The model is very basic and compatible with the objective of the research which is exploratory in nature; it is comprised of three main interrelated and interdependent stages, namely planning, implementation, and evaluation (See Watson, 2008; Analoui, 2007; Doyle, 2004). Off course, there was mention too of certain activities to be accomplished within each stage which, in the following sections, will be discussed and improved as a result of the findings and the discussion thereafter. The discussion and modifications made to the model hereafter are the researcher's effort in suggesting a model that could be beneficial for the surveyed organizations to use. It is hoped that this model will bring forward numerous improvements within the function of management development and training in the surveyed organizations.

The proposed model consists of four major stages with different steps within each stage:

- 1- Analysis of the organization's present and future needs
 - a. At the environment level
 - i. Economy and market-specific trends
 - ii. Labour market conditions
 - iii. Technological developments and directions

- iv. Government policies and regulations
 - v. Culture
 - b. At the organization level
 - i. Strategy, policies, goals and culture
 - ii. Structure, jobs' organization
 - c. At the individual level
 - i. Profiling individual employees and their expectations
 - ii. Careers
- 2- Classification and assessment of skills and competencies
 - a. A review of performance
 - b. Identification of needed skills and competencies
- 3- Satisfying skills and competencies needs
 - a. Approach choice
 - i. Identifying alternatives (formal and/or informal approaches)
 - ii. Valuation of alternatives
 - iii. Choosing the best alternative
 - b. Design the training and development program
 - i. Content and material, delivery and other logistical issues
 - ii. Program trial
 - c. Implementing the program
- 4- Evaluation
 - a. Trainees' perceptions and attitudes

- b. Performance outcome
- c. Learning outcome
- d. Results outcome

A more detailed explanation of the model and the stages therein is presented next which is hoped to provide an appropriate foundation for its adoption and implementation.

1. Analysis of the organization's present and future needs

As the first stage in the proposed model, an analysis of several factors that influence the organization's performance should be conducted (Mumford, 1993). First, scanning the external environment of the organization is considered vital for the process of identifying present and future needs. As such, economic surveillance and country surveys must be gathered and analyzed in order to develop a future outlook for the national economy. Market trends must also be analyzed in terms of insights in to consumer needs and habits, as well as general movements in the investment markets. Furthermore, the labour market conditions in terms of available reports on job seekers, wage rates, and conditions of employment are analyzed thus assisting in pooling qualifications, skills, and their geographical distribution in the local labour market. In addition, staying current with technological advancements is also important as these developments might influence the skills and competencies necessary for employment and career development. Inevitably, technology will stimulate demand for certain skills while other skills will become obsolete. Although government regulations in Palestine are still lacking in regards to their enforcement, nonetheless any organization should always follow up on government

interaction with the economy. As for culture, this factor should represent a major concern to any organization especially in the context of management development and training. Understanding and embracing the norms and traditions of the local culture would offer insights to the process of identification of present and future needs.

Second, a review of the organization's strategic direction, goals and organizational policies are considered fundamental for management development and training to be effective. The process of identifying training and development needs should be always done in line with the business overall strategy (Analoui, 2007; Mumford, 1993). A review of organizational policies concerning training and development should be frequent enough to keep them current and in line with economic and organization trends. Also at this level, the culture within the organization is analyzed to highlight aspects of the culture that will be enhanced with training and development and to repel those unwanted aspects. Finally, a good review and analysis of the organization's strategies, policies, and culture would streamline the ability of training and development programs in addressing the real needs of the organization.

Third, developing a profile of current employees that includes available skills and competencies in addition to their individual expectations is also another important step in knowing what skills the organization has in its reservoir and what skills are missing. Also at this level, a review of career development for individual employees should be carried out. The analysis of such review will show how these individual managers go about managing their careers within and between organizations (Garavan, 2007). This step will also help the organization in structuring the career progress for their managers.

2. Classification and assessment of skills and competencies

At this stage a classification and an assessment of skills and competencies is carried out in accordance with performance management processes. The basic step in this stage is to classify those skills and competencies that individual managers possess, as a result of administering the third step in stage one, within specific groups and subgroups (Mumford, 1993). In addition, this step will include an assessment of the level and quality of these skills and competencies identified at the start of this step. The assessment should provide relevant information on the capacity using quantitative and qualitative measures. The outcome of this step will make sure that the organization is aware of the skills and competencies at their disposal and the skills and competencies in which supply falls short. The second step is to identify the needed skills and competencies which will be conducted against those needs identified in the first stage. The analysis of the environment of the organization, the internal analysis of the organization, and individuals' profiling will produce a set of needs that should be satisfied in order to improve organizational performance (see for example Analoui, 2007 and Doyle, 2004). Now, at the second stage available skills and competencies are classified and assessed, and later matched against those needs identified in the first stage. This procedure of matching the needs of the organization with available skills and competencies should identify skills and competencies not available to the organization, yet they must be developed.

3. Satisfying skills and competencies needs

In stage three, an identification of the available approaches from which organizations will choose the most appropriate approach; one that optimizes the benefits of training and

development against its costs at the same time filling the gaps in the organization's reservoir of skills and competencies. Therefore, formal and informal approaches along with the different methods used in each approach should be identified and evaluated against a set of criteria, followed by a decision on the approach to be pursued and the methods therein. Examples on the criteria used in evaluating the different approaches should include, but are not limited to, the skills and competencies which require development, cost, trainees' perceptions and attitudes, availability and accessibility, time and place.

Upon choosing the approach and methods, the training should be designed in terms of content, material, other physical resources, and logistics. Once these matters of designing the training are sorted out, the whole program will be ready for testing. This is the trial period where the whole program is being tested for flaws and modifications. It is believed that this trial period would provide useful feedback on the program before its rollout at a large scale. Depending on the results of the trial period, and if necessary any modifications thereafter, a full-fledged implementation is followed.

4. Evaluation

Perhaps this is the most intricate stage amongst all, nevertheless a very important one; a stage that should be as systematic and holistic as possible. According to the proposed model the system of evaluation should be pervasive enough to include the following four dimensions:

First, an evaluation of trainees' perceptions and attitudes should not only focus on trainees' participation but also the process of successful implementation, and to evaluate

program success in terms of employee attitudes and perceptions (e.g. satisfaction) (Swanson and Holton, 1999; Mole, 1996; Smith, 1993). To do this well, a reliance on both quantitative and qualitative methods should be utilized allowing the organization to collect as much relevant information as possible. Surveys using closed-ended and open-ended questions, complemented with observational techniques and focus groups will offer deeper insights on the trainees' perceptions and attitudes.

Second, at this level of the evaluation the organization needs to consider the performance targets that it wishes to measure such a relevance and importance of the training and relationship to end outcome. Next, specifying the performance measures and selecting which measures to monitor is crucial; some of the measures may require new data items and data collection procedures. Possible performance measures like training initiation, training engagement and training retention among others may well be considered.

Third, is to evaluate the core learning outcomes of those managers who attended training courses by focusing on skills that are common and organization-wide. Therefore, the organization should consider developing a set of criteria (skills) that defines the core learning outcome, e.g. analytic reasoning and critical thinking. One way to measure learning outcomes is through the administration of tests.

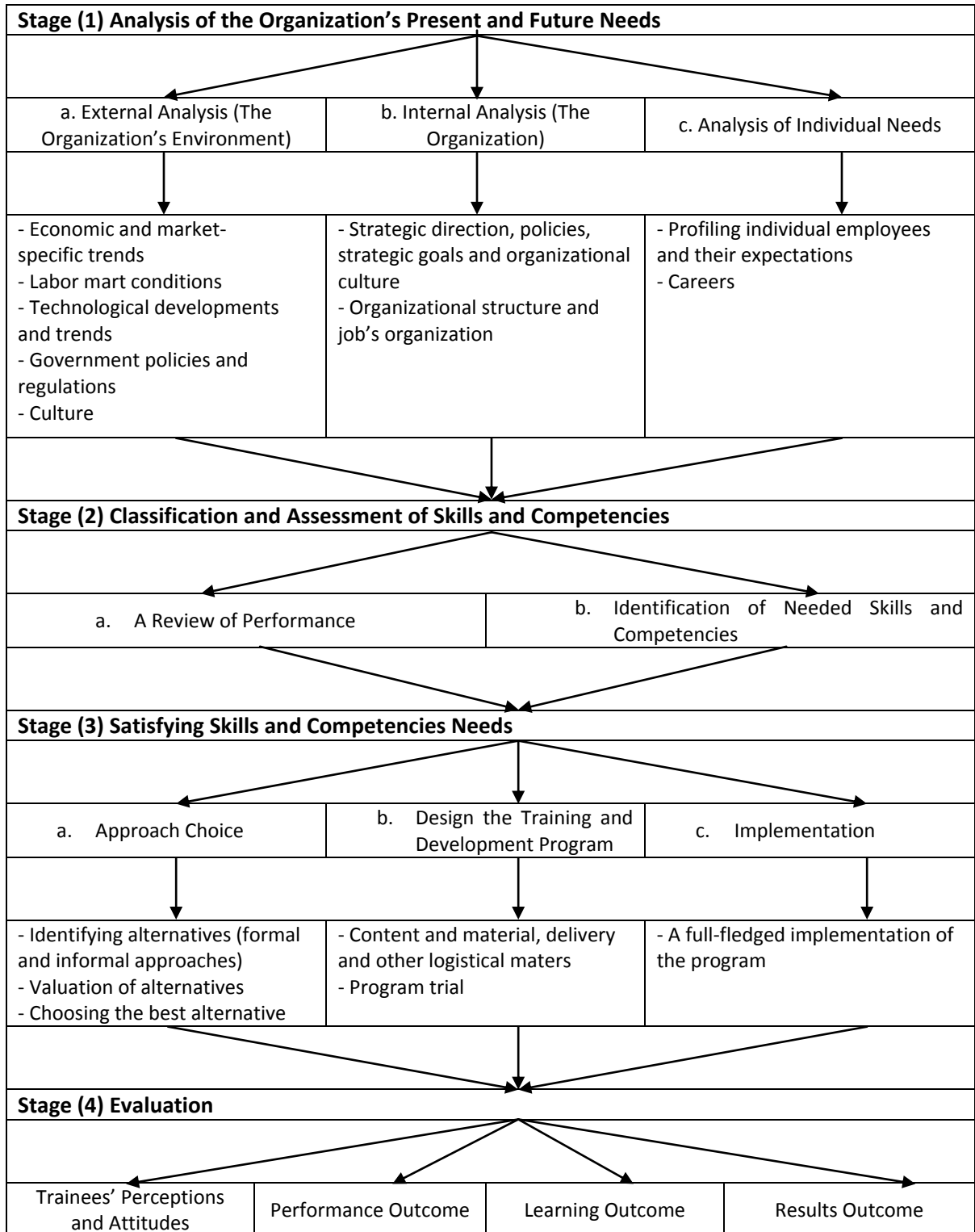
The fourth dimension of the evaluation process is results oriented. Being the most difficult outcome of training, results outcome is divided into two components: a) the application of the new skills to the necessary tasks in the organization and the results achieved thereafter; b) assessing the benefits of training against its costs.

All in all, for the proposed model for management development and training in the surveyed organizations to succeed and offer an optimal level of impact, several assumptions should be taken into account. Most importantly, the assumption that top-management is in full support of the new proposed model in terms of including the development and training of managers as an integral part of the overall strategy of the organization. Top-management should believe in the positive outcome of training and development, hence viewing this function as an investment into the future of the organization; funding training and development activities becomes a strategic inclination. Enhancing the work and the skills of those responsible for training and development is another important assumption. This assumption will have a direct impact on the quality of training activities provided to managers.

A depiction of the proposed model is shown in figure 7.1. The model is based on the researcher's revision of several models developed by a number of prominent researchers (Watson, 2008; Analoui, 2007; Garavan, 2007; Doyle, 2004; Mumford, 1993; and Kirkpatrick, 1959) in the field of management development and training.

Figure 7.1

Proposed Model for Management Development and Training



Source: Data Analysis

7.5 Managerial and Non-Managerial Implications

The proposed model for management development and training in the surveyed organizations is ought to have several implications on the organizations in general and their individual managers. To begin with, whereas the people in the surveyed organizations are thought to be satisfied with the current system, the adoption of the new model will introduce several advantages to the individual as well as the organization. The proposed model will be more comprehensive and systematic, and at the same time placing management development and training at the centre of what these organizations are doing. The suggested model is anticipated to facilitate and act as an organizational lifeline in today's competitive business climate.

In addition to affecting both the organization and individual performances, the suggested model will open up new horizons of interaction among different stakeholders which will ultimately strengthen communication and encourage the exchange of ideas. Therefore, it is believed that the adoption of the model will facilitate the generation of new ideas and help blur the boundaries between different departments. As a result of stage one and two in the proposed model, the different stakeholders' views and expectations are converged and opted for a common interest; responsibility for management development and training becomes spread across the different levels of the organization.

Another implication of the proposed model relates to the individual trainees. Senior management, especially with long years of service, can become less isolated by adopting new and current attitudes about modern work life. Equally, the proposed model enables

new and junior employees to develop their resilience and versatility. The model would allow further compilation of skills and competencies, not feasible through the old system. With respect to costs specifically, surveyed organizations need to consider total cost and per-trainer costs in the proposed model relative to the conventional system. Therefore, determining whether the new model is more or less cost-effective than the current system does not lend itself to a simple yes or no answer. Top-management require rigorous information regarding the effectiveness of the proposed model in comparison with other models that will require the attention to a host of factors, such as the trainees served, the subjects and content, quality, budget and design factors.

7.6 Summary

Although the overall assessment of management development and training within the organizations surveyed in the Palestinian telecommunication sector makes for rather satisfying results, it would be inaccurate to conclude that those organizations contacted for this study are exploiting and experiencing the required impact of training and development function. Indeed, it needs to be acknowledged that the majority of both top and middle level managers are satisfied with the status of training and development in their respective organizations. It also needs to be acknowledged that all the surveyed organizations possess a training and development unit employing on average between two to five staff members.

In addition, the majority of participant managers have indicated that in their organizations ongoing plans, though not long term, as well as formal training and development policies are in place, and to a large extent they were satisfied with the outcomes of its implementation. They have also indicated that there is a separate budget for training and development in their organizations, though on the whole it was judged to be ineffectively communicated to all levels in the organization. Altogether, the surveyed organizations appear to fulfil the three basic principles of management development and training: planning, implementation, and evaluation. Although not systematically distributed, the provision of training and development activities is spread across the entire levels in the surveyed organizations.

However, for the effectiveness of training and development in the surveyed organizations, it is difficult to state with any certainty that the process is adequate and

ultimately produces the outcomes it is ought to produce. Although on the surface these organizations appear to be in compliance with the basic principles of training and development, it is difficult to state that training and development occupies the place it deserves in these organizations. The system of training and development appears to be conventional utilizing limited, sometimes inadequate, methods that does not allow neither the individual manager nor the organizations to reap its true and potential benefits. An overreliance on traditional methods and techniques in planning, implementation and evaluation as well as having a narrow view of training and development will only weaken its effectiveness. Clearly, top-management are in favour of this important function, however this important function needs more of their attention and commitment; perhaps this is the time for top-management to break loose from the old shackles and commit itself to a more modern, more providential system of training and development. After all, continuous improvement in management development and training is not consistent with the often heard saying 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it'.

The literature is filled with evidence on organizations that are deeply and structurally committed to training and development; it occupies a high position on top-management agendas. Therefore, the surveyed organizations can no longer sustain a mediocre, middle-of-the-rod position in light of the challenges facing their future. Training and development is proved to be a powerful tool in combating these challenges, or at least some of them. As for the costs of training and development, surveyed organizations are opt to see it as an investment into their future, which will provide, if allocated and utilized appropriately, a satisfactory return on investment.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This last chapter in this study is intended to present several conclusions in relation to the status of management development and training in the surveyed organizations, which were brought to light as a result of this research. More specifically, conclusions from the literature review, interviews, and the survey will be spelt out. In addition, this chapter will bring forth a number of recommendations to different stakeholders that formed an integral part of this study, as well as suggestions for further and future research.

Prior to this, it is important to bring to mind that the aim of this study was to explore the nature and extent of senior and middle management training and development in the Palestinian telecommunication sector. It was hoped that this study will reveal important information about the effectiveness of training and development offered to top and middle management. A broad review of literature was done to ensure the researcher's familiarization with the most current issues in management development and training. Consequently, the researcher administered a field research which included interviews with top-management officials in the surveyed organizations, and the distribution and collection of questionnaires to both top and middle managers. Tabulations and analysis of data findings were presented in chapter six followed by a discussion of the main findings and results in chapter seven. In Chapter seven a presentation of a proposed model for

management development and training was included, which is hoped to capitalize on the current status and improve this function further in the surveyed organizations.

8.2 Conclusions from the Literature Review

The funnel approach used to explore the core fundamentals underlying the function of management development and training, allowed the researcher to commence his revision of the literature by shedding light on the main theories that have evolved throughout the history of the field of management. Most significant and recent theories have placed the human factor at the heart of their arguments; a transition from mechanistic approaches to more behavioural approaches in managing modern organizations, which focus on the substantial impact that people have on the overall performance of the organization as opposed to other factors. Organizations are recommended to pay more attention to their people through the provision of a good work environment, competitive pay systems, fair appraisal and reward systems, clear and objective career pathways, opportunities for development and effective communication channels where employees can voice their opinions and ideas. Yet other, more recent, theories have also discussed the evolution taking place within the organization context. A progression of knowledge-based organizations that place large emphasis on knowledge and learning as main engines in sustaining and optimizing organizational performance was becoming more relevant in an increased competitive environment. With the advent of such theories, emphasis on people has intensified, thus demanding a finely tuned level for people development and empowerment. The revision of such theories, deemed

necessary to illuminate the subject of management development and training, required an exploration of the concept of change management and its relationship with training and development.

Therefore, the next layer that was needed further exploration was the field of change management in organizations. The literature suggested that change has become so pervasive and intricate in our current times to the extent that it represents the most challenging task for organizations and individuals alike. Kotter (1996), to a large degree, attributed most failures in change projects to the human factor. Other change theories as well were noted for their emphasis on people and how effective people development may facilitate change projects much more than obstruct them. For change projects to succeed and for organizations to surmount the challenges facing them as a result of changes in their environment, people development is the key. In this section of the literature review as well, a conclusion is made that further highlights the need for an effective management development and training; preparing people within organizations may prove to be a basic ingredient for success.

Consequently, human resource management became influenced by the evolution of management thinking, whereby assuming and playing a more strategic role. Today, human resource strategies and activities are integrated with business overall strategies. As such, human resource development and performance management processes have an important impact on organizational productivity and performance. Throughout the literature review, the importance and role of training and development in modern organizations is greatly substantiated with supportive evidence provided by numerous

scholars in the field of management development and training (Dessler, 2005; Armstrong, 1999; Garavan *et al.*, 1999; Clarke, 1999; Dopson and Neumann, 1998; Winterton and Winterton, 1997; Mumford, 1993; Willmott, 1993; Coopers and Lybrand, 1992; Lees, 1992; Downham *et al.*, 1992; Beer *et al.*, 1990; Berry, 1990; Storey, 1989a, 1989b; Torrington and Hall, 1988; Hussey's, 1988; Carter and Lumsden, 1988; Coopers and Lybrand, 1985). In addition, these studies have highlighted with theoretical and empirical evidence the link between management development and training and a number of organizational aspects. These linkages can appear in many forms: employee knowledge, skills, attitudes, and morale, job satisfaction and loyalty, work safety, performance effectiveness and efficiency, organization's productivity and growth – to name just a few. In brief, a swarm of studies underscore the vitality of management development and training in the organization's ongoing endeavour towards success, the quality of goods and services produced, and the image and reputation of the organization.

8.2.1 Management Development and Training

A review of the literature has revealed a number of conditions that if satisfied would increase the effectiveness of training and development, either as an integrated role in human resource management and/or more generally as a separate function in an organization. Combining these conditions together would produce a feasible general framework within which training and development programs are designed and implemented successfully. Hence, successful training and development is more likely to happen when the following conditions are met:

- 1- Top-management commitment and engagement are agreed and made known.
- 2- Integrating a training and development component into the overall strategies and goals of the organization.
- 3- The development of training and development plans that are first coherent with other departmental plans, and second, encompassing all inputs from relevant constituents.
- 4- Effective communication of training and development plan and budget to all relevant parties. This should include a channel for feedback on these plans as well.
- 5- Policies should be formulated and reviewed frequently.
- 6- Training and development plans and policies should include both organization and individual needs.
- 7- Training and development processes should be viewed as ongoing.
- 8- A systematic approach to training and development would allow organizations to view training and development process as, at the basic level, three separate yet interdependent phases: planning (needs assessment); implementation; and evaluation.
- 9- Secured funding to training and development; top-management should allocate a budget that corresponds with the needs of training and development- both current and future needs.
- 10- Developing a learning culture within an organization where employees are motivated to learn and gain new skills and competencies.
- 11- Attracting instructors that are well equipped and enthusiastic.

Perhaps the list of conditions above does not capture all aspects when it comes to successful and effective training and development, however if organizations fail to meet one or more of these conditions, training and development is more likely to fail. From the literature, a consensus on the most important condition is generalized; it is top-management commitment that will ultimately make or break training and development.

8.2.2 The Link between Training and Development and Change Management

Throughout the literature, one conclusion appears to outshine all others. Management development and training is viewed as an indispensable part of change management. Hence, they are not to be, and should not be, dealt with as separate issues. Several researchers have highlighted the significant role management development and training can play within the context of organizational change; otherwise it will lose its relevance (Burnes, 2003; Doyle, 2000; Stuart, 1995; Stewart, 1994; Jackson and Humble, 1994). Other researchers (McClelland, 1994; Broussine *et al.*, 1998; Buckley and Kemp, 1989) viewed a strategic fit between management development and training and change management, arguing that the former can act as a catalyst for organizational change and transformation. On the other hand, this view is argued to suffer from difficulty of determining the exact value and effectiveness that management development may bring forward.

8.2.3 The Business Environment in Palestine

This part of the investigation presented in Chapter Three has revealed that well above 90 percent of businesses in Palestine are classified as micro and small size businesses employing between 1 and 10 people. Private ownership is the most common ownership among those businesses. Although there was a significant growth represented in terms of GDP and reduced unemployment rates, the Palestinian government still depends to a large extent on foreign aid that is used to fund many of its operations and activities and continues to suffer from relatively high unemployment rates despite recent efforts to reduce them.

Having said that, the main reason for these chronic agonies from which Palestine suffers, is the result of the ongoing occupation of its land and unwavering determination of the Israeli government to confine Palestine to a set of dispersed cantons separated by checkpoints. As a result, the business environment became largely affected by challenges such as the lack of freedom of the Palestinian business community to invest, restrictions on mobilizing foreign investment and trade as well as on the movement of people and goods. Off course, economic conditions are exacerbated by these results, presenting managers with a wide variety of challenges to surmount; challenges unfamiliar to normal situations. Real progress and development in economic conditions and the ensuing prosperous and safe business environment remain unrealizable in light of the continuing Israeli occupation to Palestinian lands.

When this study was determined to be carried out, the Palestinian telecommunication sector was characterized, which to a large degree remains as the current condition, by the

presence of private regulated monopoly, unauthorized competition, and overall weak governance and regulation. The sector is dominated by Paltel Group, which includes companies in all main sectors of the telecommunication and information technology markets. The weaknesses and challenges entrenched in the telecommunication sector are mainly attributed to the complex nature of the regulatory relationship between the Palestinian and Israeli governments. In addition to the unauthorized competition, Palestinian operators, up until now, are forced to route international communications through a licensed Israeli operator, and continue to suffer from the lack of long distance connection linking the West bank and Gaza strip, as well as are facing difficulties in obtaining permits from the Israeli authorities to improve infrastructure in large parts of the country.

8.2.4 Management Development and Training in the Arab World

Main stream literature indicated that perceptions of current and desired training and development practices were to some extent country specific, where in developing countries there seems to be low emphasis on interpersonal skills unlike more developed countries in which desires for interpersonal skills rank high.

In the Arab world, the 1980s witnessed a significant change in terms of increased awareness of the positive impact of management development and training on organizational effectiveness and economic and social development. Despite this shift, several studies concluded that training and development in the Arab world was identified as being ineffective and inadequate (Safi, 1998; Shaban, 1998; Al-Ali and Taylor, 1997;

Abu-Doleh, 1996; Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). In addition, research has revealed that only few organizations have a clear training and development plans which were mainly attributed to the high costs of training and development, as well as the lack of confidence organizations have with the process of training and development. Overall, this seemingly important function is considered lacking in Arab countries because of their nature to inconsistently achieve organizational goals, and inadequacy in assuming a holistic perspective of the organization.

Palestine is no different. Although very limited studies have been conducted with management development and training as its target, so far these studies have pointed out and recognized training and development as suffering from managerial weaknesses. Some of these issues are lack of professional trainers, lack of interest among employees to attend training courses, and lack of funding (Analoui, 2008).

8.3 Conclusions on the Status of Management Development and Training Derived from the Survey

This research has utilized two instruments to collect primary data to explore the current situation of training and development in the Palestinian telecommunication sector. Both instruments, the interview and the questionnaire, were used to complement each other and to offer more in-depth insights about training and development in the surveyed organizations. In total 10 interviews were conducted with top-officials in these organizations and a total of 110 questionnaires were completed by top and middle managers. Information gained from both instruments was augmented with findings from the literature in a more valid approach, therefore, deeming that both quantitative and qualitative methods are used. Conclusions on the current situation and effectiveness of training and development in the surveyed organizations are presented next.

8.3.1 The Nature and Extent of Training and Development

In those surveyed organizations, training and development appeared to have formal written plans with a relatively short time span, not exceeding two years. Responsibility for formulating training and development plans resides in the human resource department and they are responsible for communicating the plans to different beneficiaries. Training and development plans have a tendency to incorporate current and future needs of the organization as well as having a budget for implementing the plan's activities. On the other hand the nature and extent of training and development was found to have the following weaknesses:

- 1- Current plans fall short in addressing the needs of both the individual and the organization using a holistic approach.
- 2- The human resource department assumes almost full responsibility for formulating training and development plans, hence narrowing the view of the impact of training and development on the entire organization.
- 3- The communication process used to disseminate information related to training and development plans suffers from being inconsistent and lacking in terms of channels for feedback and evaluation.
- 4- The time spans of such plans are of short nature thus limiting the future scope of training and development plans.
- 5- The budget is set as a result of organizational performance in the previous year/years; revenues and profits generated in previous years determine how much funds will be allocated to training and development.

Regarding policies related to training and development, though they are formal and written, they are not frequently reviewed and updated. Lack of revision of these policies has made some of them irrelevant and obsolete. In addition the formulation of such policies is not being carried out in uniformity with strategic organizational plans and goals. All in all, plans and policies in the surveyed organizations go amiss sometimes because of their inability to address organization wide challenges.

8.3.2 The Process of Training and Development

Findings on the provision of training and development in the surveyed organizations appeared to be provided to employees across all levels of the organizations, yet with more training and development provided to high ranking employees. In addition, training and development processes such as planning, implementation, and evaluation tend to focus on conventional methods, which inhibit the effectiveness of such processes from achieving more advantageous goals. As such, these findings among others, discussed in chapter six, have produced the following set of conclusions:

- 1- Inadequacy in the instruments used during the needs assessment phase of training and development, with the majority of surveyed organizations focusing on performance appraisal.
- 2- Individual needs and organization wide needs are seldom taken together during the assessment phase.
- 3- Cultural differences are vaguely incorporated during the needs assessment phase
- 4- To a large extent, most training and development programs focus on technical related issues and job related skills.
- 5- Emphasis was evident with regards to off-the-job training (outside the origination) as opposed to other approaches.
- 6- The lecture style is the most frequently used in delivering training and development programs. Obviously, the surveyed organizations are not advantageous enough of other types or tools in delivering training and development programs.

- 7- Promoted employees hardly receive any training and development
- 8- Evaluation of training and development programs is not systematic and do not provide real-time feedback on the provision of such programs. Trainees are free to evaluate training courses and some of them choose not to.
- 9- Methods used in evaluating training and development programs fail to capture important aspects such as gained knowledge, acquired skills and competencies, and changes in behaviour. The questionnaire being the most frequently used tool in evaluation presents several limitations to the organization.

On the whole, the overall description of training and development processes within the surveyed organizations are characterized by irregular, piece-meal arrangements; in other words, they lack rigour. Planning (needs assessment phase) is weak, implementation of training and development programs are not well diversified with a variety of methods of delivery, and evaluation is not holistic and comprehensive in terms of capturing the real impact of training and development.

8.3.3 Challenges facing Training and Development

The road ahead for training and development is full of challenges deeming a more serious and effective progress is achieved in this area by the surveyed organizations. The main challenges are as follows:

- The existing gap between the skills and competencies possessed by university graduates and those expected by the surveyed organizations, and consequently

the gradual replacement of senior employees with new employees (succession planning), present a major challenge for these organizations. This challenge will impact how these organizations will perform in the future and how well equipped they are in facing future challenges.

- Changes in technology, particularly in the fast changing telecommunication sector, will have their toll on virtually all organizations. Preparedness for and anticipating technological changes constitute a major hurdle facing the advancement of organizations. Without doubt, this challenge deems training and development the importance it deserves - provided that organizations aim at sustaining and improving their performance.
- Although the principles of a free market system still have a long way to go in the Palestinian economy, nonetheless organizations are better off well prepared for increased competition in their markets. It is expected that competition will eventually become more visible either by the entry of a local or foreign competitors, and as a result the realization by organizations to operate in a more dynamic and competitive market becomes inevitable. More so, are the aspirations and pursuing of the Palestinian government for membership in the World Trade Organizations (WTO). Current conditions of the training and development in the surveyed organizations will then be unquestionably at a disadvantage to meet the requirements of increased competition, growth, and modernizations.

Success in surmounting these challenges amongst others would require increased attention to be paid to training and development, which will secure a more committed, motivated and able group of employees.

8.4 Conclusions on the Modified Proposed Model of Training and Development

An introduction of a basic model as a guide for the study was introduced in chapter four (section 4.2.10). In chapter 7 the proposed model was modified and upgraded to encompass the issues that were found to be relevant to training and development in the surveyed organizations. In other words, findings and results of the literature review and the survey were used to modify the proposed model thus becoming in compliance with the present and future needs of the surveyed organizations and the individuals therein.

The proposed model is an adaptation from several models proposed by prominent researchers in the field of management development and training in combination with findings from the survey. The model is composed of four main stages where each stage represented with a number of steps. The first stage is analyzing present and future needs of the organization which includes three major steps: a scanning of the external environment (labour market, economy, culture, etc...); an analysis of the organization's internal functions (strategies, policies, job organization, etc...); and, an identification of individual specific needs which includes profiling current employees in conjunction with their expectations. The second stage is classifying and assessment of skills and competencies including a review of performances and identification of those skills that are in possession of the organization and those that are not. A third stage includes

satisfying skills and competencies' needs (implementation). This stage includes an assessment of current approaches and choosing the best approach, designing training material, and implementation. The final stage is evaluation in which the proposed model suggests a more holistic approach to evaluation in four steps: perceptions of trainees, performance outcome, learning outcome, and results outcome. However, it is also expected that an implementation of the new proposed model might give rise to additional modifications or adjustments which will make it more applicable in the context of the surveyed organizations.

It is believed that several factors, unseen ones, are expected to impact the application of the proposed model, let alone factors like financial constraints, organization specific policies and culture. These factors are to some extent magnified in a country like Palestine given the turmoil in the political arena and economic instability due to the ongoing occupation.

8.5 Implications of the Findings in this Study

Although the overall assessment of the training and development conditions and the ensuing effectiveness of this function within the telecommunication organizations in Palestine make for rather an optimistic reading, it would be inaccurate to conclude that those systems of training and development worked by in the surveyed organizations are effective and current. Conclusions from the literature as well as the findings from the survey, discussed in previous sections, present specific weaknesses and challenges in the face of the current situation of training and development. These conclusions have

numerous implications for different stakeholders, namely the Palestinian government, organizations operating in Palestine – particularly telecommunication organizations, and human resource personnel.

Ultimate responsibility for training and development at the country level resides in the hands of the Palestinian government. This is not, however, to say that organizations represented by top-management are free from this responsibility. The Palestinian government represented by the Ministry of Labour, Ministry of National Economy, and Ministry of Higher Education have a very important role to play given the challenges facing the Palestinians in the occupied Palestinian territories. Challenges such as high unemployment rates across the West Bank and Gaza strip, young population where almost 50 per cent are under the age of 16 years, the current mismatch between university programs and job market needs, and nearly the absence of manufacturing industries make the case for training and development of people an inescapable one. Increased attention at the national level, effective channelling of funds, and the offering of incentives to organizations, are all prerequisites to a more effective and diversified labour market. The Palestinian government has to establish in its strategic outlook a vision for how skills and competencies of current and future workforce can be developed. The Palestinian government has also to set the parameter for mutual cooperation among different stakeholders like universities, private and public organizations.

Top management in Palestinian organizations are also expected to take serious actions concerning the development and training of their current and future employees. They are also expected to allocate their managerial efforts and resources into the seemingly function

of training and development. Strategies and organizational goals should always have a component for people development. Policies are formulated at the business level with far reaching impact to virtually all employees in the organization. These policies should be kept current; frequent revisions of such policies will ensure that they are in line with present conditions of the economy and other forces. Challenges within the Palestinian context along with the fast pace of technological changes tend to have a higher magnitude facing telecommunication organizations. In many situations these challenges complicate the work and progress of these organizations, but at the same time build up the case for training and development. Telecommunication organizations are ought to realize that management development and training can be a very effective weapon in face of these challenges.

Human resource personnel have their own share of the blame for the ineffective training and development status in their respective organizations. It is understandable to assume that things roll downhill (gravity), which means that mistakes are made by high ranking officials while the blame is goes down to subordinates. In the case of management development and training, responsibility must be shared by everyone in the organization including human resource personnel, who are supposed to lead the process of training and development. Careful recruitment and selection of Human resource personnel with an experience in training and development is of great importance. Their job descriptions should be tailored with management development and training as the highest priority.

8.6 Recommendations to Primary Stakeholders Interested with Training and Development

The stakeholders that hold a direct interest with training and development, aside from those employees who are at the receiving end of such process, are top-management in organizations, the staff responsible for training and development, and policy makers at the national level. Recommendations made hereafter, which are based on the outcomes of this study, will address each of these stakeholders. The researcher holds a firm view that the following recommendations, if adopted, could contribute significantly to the enhancement of the present weak training and development function within the Palestinian telecommunication sector in specific and other economic sectors in general.

8.6.1 Recommendations to Top-Management

1. Top-management are to realize that their employees are the most valuable asset. A good utilization of the power of their people will most likely warrant their organizations an edge over and above everything else.
2. Top-management should not only make good promises concerned with training and development. They need to translate their zeal and positive attitudes towards training and development into a set of concrete actions that will impact the effectiveness of this important function. In other words, top-management needs to walk the talk.
3. Top-management have to realize that for training and development to succeed, they have to take a more active role in not only formulating realistic long-term plans but integrating those plans into the overall organization-wide strategies.

4. Investments in terms of funds and other physical resources by top-management in the function of training and development are deemed necessary. They must pay serious attention to those operating and responsible for training and development.
5. Top-management should make sure that the extent of training and development reaches all employees in their organizations; employees at all levels, new and current employees, promoted as well as employees in need of this activity.
6. Top-management are also advised to take a more serious role in evaluating the effectiveness of training and development function in their organizations. This will ensure that continuous development is made to this function.
7. Training and development is not an end in itself but a means to an end. Top-management realization of this fact would only make sure that this function is an ongoing process that virtually does not stop or cease to exist.

8.6.2 Recommendations to Employees Responsible for Training and Development

1. Employees working with training and development should first be able to plan long-term with specific achievable milestones. They should have the capacity to present a solid case for training and development to top-management in their organizations, which means showing the importance of this function, how it is going to help the organization achieve its goals, and a cost benefit analysis.
2. Employees responsible for training and development are advised to seek their own professional and practical development in this field in order to improve their skills and competencies with respect to training and development.

3. To be able to assess the current status of the effectiveness of training and development, those employees are advised to keep a tracking records of related activities and create their own measurements and assessment tools that will help them in the evaluation process.
4. To ensure their competency, these employees require diversifying their portfolio of approaches, methods, and techniques used in the provision of training and development.
5. In general, employees responsible for training and development should develop a systematic approach to this function. Viewing training and development as a system made up of interrelated parts (needs assessment, implementation, and evaluation) is vital for its success. In addition, these employees need to integrate this system of training and development into other parts and systems in the organization.

8.6.3 Recommendations to Policy Makers

1. The Palestinian government needs to have in place laws and policies concerning the development and training of the current and future Palestinian workforce.
2. The Palestinian government should assume responsibility for enforcing these laws and policies through the development of government agencies authorized for overseeing the implementation of such laws and policies across all economic sectors.
3. The Palestinian government is to play a facilitating role between different economic sectors and establish links aimed at developing the skills of the current and future workforce. For example, establishing solid rapport between different economic sectors

on one side and the educational institutions on the other side is considered imperative to the development of local workforce.

4. To motivate local organizations in investing and setting up training and development systems, the Palestinian government should establish an incentive system that encourages and rewards these organizations that comply with enacted laws. The system should also be capable of combating organizations that are considered passive.
5. The Palestinian government is advised to acquire best practices in the field of management development and training by looking at other countries in which this function had a positive impact, and consequently disseminate related information to relevant stakeholders.

8.7 Contributions to Theoretical Knowledge

This research has contributed positively to the lagging reservoir of literature in the field of management development and training within the context of Palestine. More so, within the Palestinian sector of telecommunication. This study, based on its results, has also produced a training and development model or framework, whereby organizations are opt to adopt; organizations who do are expected to enjoy better results of training and development. Implications as a result of adopting the model were also discussed.

In addition, this study has shed light on the whole process of training and development rather than looking at certain parts of the system. The intention was to develop a full picture of the process in its entirety, by looking at and exploring how organizations go about viewing training and development in a developing country like Palestine.

8.8 Contributions to Practical Knowledge

This study contributes in two ways to practical knowledge. First, the proposed model which this study offers is believed to have a positive impact on the current status of training and development in the surveyed organizations and other organizations as well. It is believed that the proposed model will allow organizations to view the process of training and development as a system of multiple stages and, at the same time, integrated into other systems and subsystems in the organization. As discussed previously, the current status of training and development suffers from various weaknesses. The adoption of the proposed model is expected to remedy some of these weaknesses and improve the effectiveness of training and development.

Second, this study has produced a set of recommendations to key stakeholders: top-management in organizations, employees responsible for training and development, and policy makers. These recommendations are viewed as practical as possible, hence their proper implementation are expected to produce positive results at the national, organization, and individual level.

8.9 Limitations of Study

Generally, all researchers agree on, as it is well known, that every study has its own limitations. This research as well was found to have its own limitations. These are the following:

- 1- This study is only concerned with the Palestinian Telecommunication Group (Paltel) which constitutes a major player in the Palestinian Telecommunication Sector in Palestine. It is not concerned with all telecommunication organizations.
- 2- This limitation has to do with the extent to which the findings can be generalized beyond the case study. The findings will apply to large-size telecommunication organizations only. According to the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics – PCBS – a large organization has 20 or more employees. The study, therefore, is set in one industry and the ideas advanced will need validating in other contexts.
- 3- Only senior and middle managers working in Paltel Group will make up the population of this study. Consequently, the analysis will be performed on only a small number of respondents.
- 4- The study focuses on one important function of Human Resource Management – management development and training function. Less attention is given to the design or development stage of a training program as opposed to the management process of such programs.

8.10 Recommendations for Future Study

This study has focused on management development and training in the Palestinian telecommunication sector. Just like any other study, this study has produced a set of conclusions and implications that cannot be firmly established given the limitations and difficulties encountered. Additional studies are needed to investigate this field so that certain conclusions can be established. Studies that examine other related issues, such as the overall human resource function within the surveyed organizations is needed, as well as similar studies that will examine training and development within the telecommunication sector in five or ten years time might prove to be useful.

Additional studies should be carried out at the national level with the aim of exploring the current policies and regulations enacted within the context of Palestine. Comparative research or case studies are also needed to set up a benchmark against which organizations can measure or assess the effectiveness of training and development in their organizations.

Further research is also needed to test the practicality and applicability of the proposed model for a more effective training and development system in the surveyed organizations or some other Palestinian organizations for that matter.

APPENDIX

A

Introductory Letter and Survey Questionnaire

(English Version)

April 21, 2011

Questionnaire

To: **Senior and Middle level Managers in the Telecommunication Sector in Palestine**

From: **Anton Robert Sabella (Researcher)**

Subject: **Research Questionnaire**

Dear participant,

This letter is intended for requesting your kind assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire which is part of my Doctoral research that I am conducting during my period of study at the University of Bradford-UK (School of Social Sciences-Centre for International Development and Economics).

Currently, I am faculty member in the Department of Business Administration and Marketing at Birzeit University. The research I am undertaking is related to human resource development entitled: *'Management Training and Development: An Exploration into the Extent and Nature of Senior and Middle Management Development in the Palestinian Telecommunication Sector'*. My research is done under the supervision of Dr. Farhad Analoui.

The questionnaire should not take a very long time to complete where most of the questions are objective requiring you only to tick the appropriate boxes or boxes. The information you are going to provide will be dealt with confidentiality and anonymity. No reference to your name or your organization will be disclosed in any printed material and all the information you are going to supply will used solely for purpose of this current research.

Your assistance and participation in this study is extremely important. Taking this questionnaire seriously and providing accurate information will give more validity and reliability for the results that could be used as a basis for bringing up constructive suggestions to improve management development and training. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at my email address: a.r.sabella@bradford.ac.uk

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

Anton R. Sabella

University of Bradford
School of Social and International Studies

Management Training and Development: An Exploration into the Extent and Nature of Senior and Middle Management Development in the Palestinian Telecommunication Sector

Dear Participant, please tick the appropriate box or boxes.

Section One: In this section the purpose is to collect general information about your organization as well as you as an anonymous participant in this research.

Part 1: General information about your organization.

- 1- How would you describe your organization?
 Mobile Telephones Landline Telephones Radio and Television
 Internet Provider Local area networks and wide area networks
 Other, please specify.....
- 2- How long has your organization been operating? Years
- 3- What is the total number of employees in your organization?
 Less than 20 employees 20-50 employees 51-100 employees
 101-150 employees 151-200 employees 201 and above
- 4- What is the total capital of your organization? JD.
- 5- What type of organization you are employed in?
 Sole proprietorship Partnership General Limited liability
 Corporation Other, please specify.....
- 6- Does your organization have a Human Resource Department?
 Yes NO don't know
- 7- Do you have a unit responsible for management development and training in your organization?
 Yes NO don't know
- 8- If yes, when has your development and training unit been established?
 Less than 1 year ago 1-3years ago 4-7years ago
 7-10 years ago over 10 years ago

9- If yes, how many employees are currently employed in your development and training unit?

- 1 employee 2-5 employees More than 5 employees

10- If your answer to Question 7 is **No**, then who is responsible for development and training programs in your organization?

- Human resource manager Heads of departments/divisions
 Senior management Other, please specify.....

11- How well does your organization perform in the market?

- Well above average above average average below average well below average

Part 2: General information about you.

Please indicate where possible the correct answer by ticking the appropriate box in the table below and/or by specifying the required information.

12	Age (please, specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 20-30years <input type="checkbox"/> 30-40years <input type="checkbox"/> 40-50years <input type="checkbox"/> over 50 years
13	Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
14	Education (highest level of education) & professional attainment	<input type="checkbox"/> High School <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Master</i> <input type="checkbox"/> <i>PhD</i> <input type="checkbox"/> Technical Degree Other, please specify.....
15	Total years of experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10years <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years <input type="checkbox"/> over 15 years
16	Years of experience in your current position	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3years <input type="checkbox"/> 4-7years <input type="checkbox"/> over 7 years
17	Your present job title	<input type="checkbox"/> Top-level Manager <input type="checkbox"/> Middle-level Manager
18	Name of your Organization	(Please specify).....
19	Name of your department/division/unit	(Please specify).....
20	Have you ever had any training and development?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

Section Two: The purpose of this section is to collect information regarding plans and policies towards management development and training in your organization.

21- Does your organization have a written plan for development and training?

- Yes NO don't know

If your answer is yes, please answer questions 22 to 28

If your answer is no, please go to question 29

22- How would you describe the time span of your plan?

- Short-term (less than 1 year) Medium-term (between 1-3 years)
 Long-term (3 years and above)

23- Is the plan communicated to various levels in your organization?

- Yes NO don't know

24- Who is responsible for formulating the plan?

- Board of Directors Senior management Human Resource Department
 Departments Other, please specify.....

25- Have you ever participated in formulating the plan for development and training?

- Yes NO don't know

26- Does your plan include a budget?

- Yes NO don't know

27- Does the plan involve meeting present and future managerial needs?

- Yes NO don't know

28- What percentage of your plan do you expect to be implemented?

- Less than 30% 30-49% 50-69% 70-89% 90-100%

29- Are there clear policies in your organization concerning management development and training?

- Yes NO don't know

30- If yes, what is the nature of these policies?

- Formal (written) Informal (unwritten) don't know

31- Is there a training centre in your organization?

- Yes NO don't know

32- How much development and training is provided for each of the following employment levels? Please tick the appropriate box 1=high (more than 2 weeks), 2=medium (1-2weeks), 3=low(less than 1week), 4=none.

- Senior managers 1 2 3 4
- Middle level managers 1 2 3 4
- Junior level managers 1 2 3 4
- Technical staff 1 2 3 4

Section Three: In this section the questions deal with the process of management development and training in your organization.

Part 1: Development and Training Needs Assessment

33- Does your organization administer development and training needs assessment?

- Yes NO don't know

34- If your answer is **yes**, which of the following methods do your organization use in determining development and training needs? Please tick the appropriate box 1=yes, 2=often, 3=sometimes, 4=never.

- Face-to-face interviews 1 2 3 4
- Questionnaires 1 2 3 4
- Observation 1 2 3 4
- Performance appraisal 1 2 3 4
- A special development & training committee 1 2 3 4
- A d hoc 1 2 3 4
- Other, please specify.....

When assessing development and training needs, to what extent would you agree or disagree with the following statements?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
35	Individual needs are taken into consideration					
36	Future organizational aspirations are incorporated (e.g. long-term goals)					
37	Strategies that your organization is pursuing form an integral part in the assessment stage					
38	External challenges are considered					
39	Government regulations and policies related to management development and training are considered					
40	The role of competition is considered in the assessment phase of training and development programs					
41	Assessment is task or/or job oriented					
42	Cultural factors are taken into consideration (e.g. if the training is to be administered by a foreign expert)					
43	During the assessment phase, only organizational interests are considered					

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
44	During the assessment phase, both individual and organizational interests are considered					
45	Market needs and wants are considered during this stage					
46	Internal weaknesses are addressed during this stage					

47- Do employees have clear job descriptions in your organization?

- Yes NO don't know

48- Does your organization appraise the performance of its employees?

- Yes NO don't know

49- Does your organization consider employees' appraisals feedback when formulating training and development programs?

- Yes NO don't know

Part 2: Methods used in the implementation of development and training programs

50- Have you ever participated in a management development and training course/workshop?

- Yes NO

51- If yes, how many courses have you participate in during last 2 year?

- 1 course 2-5 courses More than 5 courses

52- Can you please describe the type of courses you attended? (you can tick more than one box)

- Financial Strategic Planning Marketing
 Self and career development skills (e.g. Time management) Technical (task - related)
 Social (People- related skills) Social and technical skills

Other, please specify.....

53- What type of training your organisation prefers? Please tick the appropriate box 1=yes, 2=sometimes, 3=no.

- On-the-job training 1 2 3
- Off-the-job training (inside the organization) 1 2 3
- Off-the-job training (outside the organization) 1 2 3

Other, please specify.....

54- What methods are used in carrying out these training and development programs?

- Lecture 1 2 3
- A conference or seminar 1 2 3
- Role play 1 2 3
- Case studies 1 2 3
- Group/individual Projects 1 2 3
- Virtual courses (online) 1 2 3
- A combination of the above 1 2 3

Other, please specify.....

55- Does your organization invite external experts to provide training and development?

- Yes NO don't know

56- Do employees in your organization attend training and development courses outside the country?

- Yes NO don't know

57- Does your organization acquire the support of a third party in providing training and development (e.g. a training agency)?

- Yes NO don't know

58- Does a newly recruited employee receive induction training and development?

- Yes Sometimes no

59- When an employee is promoted, does he or she receive training and development for the new position?

- Yes NO don't know

Think of your last training and development programme, Please indicate your overall level of satisfaction with the following statements:

		Very satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Vey dissatisfied
60	The methods used					
61	The quality of the material used					
62	The ability of trainers					
63	The location of the training course /workshop					
64	Audio visual supporting material					
65	The administration of the program					

Part 3: Management training and development evaluation

66- Does your organization evaluate its training and development programs?

- Yes Sometimes no

67- Have you ever participated in evaluating a management and training program?

- Yes NO

68- Please specify the methods your organization uses in evaluating their training and development programs? Please tick the appropriate box 1=yes, 2=sometimes, 3=no.

- Having the trainees' fill in a questionnaire 1 2 3
- Considering the employee's performance before and after the training 1 2 3
- Interviewing the trainees 1 2 3
- Asking the trainees' superior 1 2 3
- Testing the trainees' level of learning 1 2 3
- Assessing impact on employee performance 1 2 3
- Other, please specify.....

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
69	It is difficult to evaluate training and development programs					
70	There is inadequate data to evaluate trainees' behaviour such as performance reports					
71	Evaluation is costly					
72	Evaluation is time consuming					
73	Goals of training and development are not clear therefore evaluation becomes difficult					
74	Other, please specify.....					

Section four: Problems and future challenges facing management development and training programs in your organization.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements that may or may not constrain management development and training programs in your organization.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
75	Lack of commitment by senior management to training and development					
76	Unclear organizational structure					
77	Absence of plans to develop the human asset in the organization					
78	Inability to determine the real needs of the organization and the individual employee					
79	None-existence of training and development function					
80	Negative stereo-typing of management development and training					
81	Training and development is not part of the overall strategic plan of my organization					
82	Management sees training and development as cost rather than investment					
83	Low quality of available training and development programs					
84	Not enough funds to allocate to this activity					
85	High employee turnover in your organization					
86	Lack of training and management development agencies					
87	Hard to evaluate training and development programs					
88	Not enough people in your organization handle this activity/function					
89	How jobs are organized and structured does not allow your organization to benefit from training and development programs					

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following challenges that may require increased attention by your organization to training and development.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
90	Entry of new local competitors into the market					
91	Entry of new external competitor(s) into the market					
92	Changes in technology					
93	Changes in customer preference					
94	New regulations and laws					
95	Changes in the labour market					

96- Please feel free to make any comments you may see as necessary and relevant to the research.

Thank you so much for your cooperation

Would like to receive a copy of the research findings?

Yes no

Researcher: Anton Robert Sabella

Email: a.r.sabella@bradford.ac.uk

Principle Supervisor: Professor Farhad Analoui

Email: f.analoui@bradford.ac.uk

APPENDIX

B

Interview Questions and Selected Responses

(English Version)

Interview Questions

Semi-structured interview schedule with selected (sample) of senior (top-level) managers in the telecommunication organizations

- Q1. What do you think about management development and training in your organizations?
- Q2: In your opinion, is T&D essential for the success of the organization?
- Q3: Do you think that organizations should have management development and training as a separate but integrated function of HRM?
- Q4: Does your organization plan for management development and training programs? Are these plans linked to business strategies of the organization?
- Q5: Do you annually budget for management development and training programs? In your opinion, are these budgets amounts adequate?
- Q6: Comparing internally (on the job) versus externally (off the job) conducted programs, which do you think is more beneficial? And why?
- Q7: Which training and development methods are used most by your organization? And Why?
- Q8: Do you evaluate training and development programs conducted in your organization? If yes, please describe how?
- Q9: What are the constraints that obstruct the advancement of management development and training programs?
- Q10: Please tell me about the influence of external factors such as government policies and regulations, competition, technological change, consumer preference and social and cultural factors on the management development and training in your organization?

A Sample of Selected Statements made by Interviewees during the Interview

“training and development is extremely needed in our organization and therefore we are trying to push for more investment and attention towards it” (Manager 7).

“I see training and development as very important aspect of what we do and more so the path for improved organizational performance” (Manager 5).

“I totally understand the importance of this function and I am for it, however not all organizations can afford this kind of investment and if they can they would not know how” (Manager 2).

“I disagree with establishing a separate unit for training and development. On the contrary, training and development as a function or set of activities should be integrated within the larger function that is human resource management” (Manager 1).

“Given the importance and extent of activities that are entrusted to training and development, this function ought to have its own unit or department” (Manager 9).

“we are not fearful of competition because no investor or a company would be interested in operating in an environment like ours characterized by political turmoil and economic stability and these ailments are just temporary, they are stagnant and perpetual” (Manager 9).

APPENDIX

C

Introductory Letter and Survey Questionnaires

(Arabic Version)

27 نيسان، 2011

من: الباحث أنطون ساببلا

إلى: المدراء في الدرجات العليا والمتوسطة في قطاع الاتصالات الفلسطينية.

الموضوع: تعبئة الإستبانة المرفقة

تحية طيبة وبعد،،،

تهدف هذه الرسالة إلى طلب مساعدتكم القيمة في تعبئة الإستبانة المرفقة والتي تعتبر جزء من البحث الذي أجره لنيل شهادة الدكتوراه في كلية الدراسات الاجتماعية والدولية في جامعة برادفورد في المملكة المتحدة.

أنا أعمل في الوقت الحالي كمدرس ورئيس دائرة إدارة الأعمال والتسويق في جامعة بيرزيت إن البحث الذي أجره يتعلق بتطوير الموارد البشرية في منشآت الاتصالات حيث أن عنوان موضوع البحث هو: "التطوير والتدريب الإداري الإستراتيجي في سياق التغيير الإداري في قطاع الاتصالات الفلسطينية". إن المشرف على رسالتي هو الدكتور فرهد أنالوي.

إن تعبئة الإستبانة لا يستغرق وقتاً طويلاً حيث أن معظم الأسئلة لا تحتاج سوى وضع علامة في المكان أو الأمكنة المناسبة. أود التأكيد على أن المعلومات التي سيتم تزويدها ستعامل على أنها خاصة وسرية للغاية، ولن تستخدم سوى لأغراض البحث العلمي علماً بأن الباحث فقط سيقوم بالإطلاع عليها. إن الإستبانة لا تطلب منكم ذكر اسمكم أو اسم المنشأة.

إن مساعدتكم ومشاركاتكم في هذا البحث في غاية الأهمية ولذا أرجو من حضرتكم الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة بشكل صحيح ومسؤول مما سيكون له الأثر الكبير على نتائج البحث لتصبح قيمة وفعالة ولتشكل القاعدة الأساسية للمقترحات الهادفة لتحسين برامج التدريب والتطوير.

إذا كانت لديكم استفسارات متعلقة بهذه الإستبانة، فالرجاء عدم التردد في الاتصال بي من خلال البريد الإلكتروني:

a.r.sabella@bradford.ac.uk

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام مقدماً شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم،،،

الباحث

أنطون روبيرت ساببلا

التطوير والتدريب الإداري الإستراتيجي في سياق التغيير الإداري

الرجاء الإجابة على هذه الإستبانة بوضع إشارة (صح) داخل المربع المناسب.

القسم الأول: الهدف من هذا القسم هو جمع معلومات عامة حول الشركة التي تعمل فيها، بالإضافة إلى معلومات أخرى شخصية.

الجزء الأول: معلومات عامة حول الشركة.

1- كيف يمكن أن تصف شركتك؟

هواتف نقالة هواتف أرضية تلفاز وراديو

مقدم خدمات انترنت شبكات انترنت محلية وشبكات انترنت خارجية

أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها.....

2- كم عام مضى على تأسيس الشركة؟ عاما

3- كم عدد الموظفين داخل الشركة التي تعمل بها؟

أقل من 20 موظفا 20-50 موظفا 51-100 موظفا
 101-150 موظف 151-200 موظفا 201 موظفا فأكثر

4- ما هو رأس المال المسجل للشركة التي تعمل فيها؟ دينار

5- ما هو الوضع القانوني للشركة التي تعمل فيها؟

شركة خاصة شراكة شركة مساهمة عامة محدودة
 شركة مساهمة عامة أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها.....

6- هل يوجد دائرة موارد بشرية في الشركة التي تعمل بها؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

7- هل يوجد في الشركة التي تعمل بها وحدة متخصصة في التدريب والتطوير الإداري؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

إذا كانت الإجابة نعم أرجو الإجابة على السؤالين رقم 8 و 9، أما إذا كانت الإجابة لا فأرجو الانتقال للسؤال رقم 10.

8- متى تأسست هذه الوحدة؟

أقل من سنة واحدة سنة -3 سنوات 4-7 سنوات

7-10 سنوات أكثر من 10 سنوات

9- كم عدد الموظفين الذين يعملون في هذه الوحدة؟

موظف واحد 2-5 موظفين أكثر من 5 موظفين

10- هل هناك جهة أخرى في الشركة التي تعمل بها مسؤولة عن التدريب والتطوير؟
 مدير شؤون الموظفين مدراء الدوائر- الأقسام
 الإدارة العليا أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها.....

11- ما هو مستوى أداء الشركة في السوق؟
 أعلى من المعدل بكثير أعلى من المعدل مساوية للمعدل
 أقل من المعدل أقل من المعدل بكثير

الجزء الثاني: معلومات عامة تتعلق بك.

الرجاء تعبئة هذا الجدول بالأجوبة المناسبة إما بملء الفراغ أو بوضع إشارة صح امام العبارة المناسبة.

12	العمر (الرجاء تحديده)	<input type="checkbox"/> 30-20 سنة <input type="checkbox"/> 40-31 سنة <input type="checkbox"/> 50-41 سنة <input type="checkbox"/> أكثر من 50 سنة
13	الجنس	<input type="checkbox"/> ذكر <input type="checkbox"/> أنثى
14	المستوى التعليمي (أعلى درجة علمية)	<input type="checkbox"/> الثانوية العامة <input type="checkbox"/> شهادة مهنية/ تقنية <input type="checkbox"/> البكالوريوس <input type="checkbox"/> الماجستير <input type="checkbox"/> الدكتوراه
15	عدد سنوات الخبرة في الشركة	<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من 5 سنوات <input type="checkbox"/> 10-6 سنوات <input type="checkbox"/> 15-11 سنة <input type="checkbox"/> أكثر من 15 سنة
16	عدد سنوات الخبرة في عملك الحالي	<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من سنة واحدة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-1 سنوات <input type="checkbox"/> 7-4 سنوات <input type="checkbox"/> أكثر من 7 سنوات
17	المسمى الوظيفي الحالي	<input type="checkbox"/> مدير عام (إدارة عليا) <input type="checkbox"/> مدير دائرة (إدارة متوسطة) <input type="checkbox"/> رئيس قسم <input type="checkbox"/> مشرف أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
18	اسم الشركة	(الرجاء تحديد الاسم)
19	اسم القسم/ الدائرة/ الوحدة التي تعمل فيها	(الرجاء التحديد)
20	هل سبق وأن حصلت على تدريب أو تطوير؟	<input type="checkbox"/> نعم <input type="checkbox"/> لا

القسم الثاني: الهدف من هذا القسم هو جمع معلومات حول الخطط والسياسات التي تتبعها الشركة بخصوص التطوير والتدريب الإداري.

21- هل يوجد خطة مكتوبة تتعلق بالتطوير والتدريب لدى شركتك؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

إذا كانت الإجابة **نعم**، الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة **28-22**

إذا كانت الإجابة **لا**، الرجاء الذهاب إلى سؤال **29**

22- كيف يمكن أن تصف المدة الزمنية للخطة المتبعة في الشركة التي تعمل فيها؟
 قصيرة الأجل (أقل من سنة واحدة) متوسطة الأجل (1-3 سنوات)
 طويلة الأجل (أكثر من 3 سنوات)

23- هل يتم مناقشة الخطة مع جميع المستويات المختلفة في الشركة؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

24- من هو مسؤول عن صياغة الخطة؟

مجلس الإدارة الإدارة العليا دائرة شؤون الموظفين
 الدوائر أخرى (الرجاء تحديدها).....

25- هل سبق وأن شاركت في صياغة خطة تتعلق بالتدريب والتطوير؟

نعم لا

26- هل تحتوي الخطة على موازنة؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

27- هل تأخذ الخطة الاحتياجات الإدارية الحالية والمستقبلية بعين الاعتبار؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

28- ما هي النسبة المئوية المتوقعة تنفيذها من الخطة؟

أقل من 30% 30-49% 50-69% 70-89% 90-100%

29- هل هناك سياسات واضحة في شركتكم تتعلق بالتدريب والتطوير الإداري؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

30- إذا كانت الإجابة على السؤال السابق نعم، ما هي طبيعة هذه السياسات؟

رسمية (مكتوبة) غير رسمية (غير مكتوبة) لا أعلم

31- هل هناك مركز تدريب في الشركة التي تعمل فيها؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

32- ما هي مدة التدريب والتطوير المتوفرة لكل من المستويات الوظيفية؟ (1=مرتفع أي أكثر من أسبوعين) ،

(2=متوسط أي من أسبوع إلى أسبوعين)، (3=منخفض أي أقل من أسبوع) ، (4= لا يوجد)

● إدارة عليا 1 2 3 4

● إدارة مستوى ثاني (متوسطة) 1 2 3 4

● إدارة مستوى أول (دنيا) 1 2 3 4

● موظفين تقنيين 1 2 3 4

القسم الثالث: نتناول الأسئلة في هذا القسم آلية العمل المتبعة في مجال التدريب والتطوير.
الجزء الأول: تقدير ودراسة احتياجات الشركة في مجال التطوير والتدريب

33- هل تقوم شركتكم بعمل تقدير للاحتياجات التدريبية والتطويرية؟

نعم لا لا أعلم

34- إذا كانت الإجابة على السؤال السابق نعم، الرجاء تحديد مدى استخدام كل من الطرق التالية بالنسبة لاحتياجات الشركة في مجال التدريب والتطوير؟ (1= دائماً، 2= غالباً، 3= أحياناً، 4= لا تستخدم)

- مقابلات شخصية 1 2 3 4
- الاستبانة 1 2 3 4
- الملاحظة 1 2 3 4
- تقييم الأداء 1 2 3 4
- لجنة متخصصة دائمة للتطوير والتدريب 1 2 3 4
- لجنة متخصصة مؤقتة للتطوير والتدريب 1 2 3 4
- غير ذلك، الرجاء التوضيح 1 2 3 4

الى أية درجة توافق أو تعارض مع كل من التالي عند تقييم احتياجات التطوير والتدريب:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	أعارض بشدة	أعارض بشدة	
					35 يتم أخذ الاحتياجات الفردية بعين الاعتبار
					36 يتم شمول طموحات المؤسسة المستقبلية (مثل الأهداف طويلة المدى)
					37 تشكل الاستراتيجيات التي تتبعها مؤسستك جزءاً متكاملاً في مرحلة التقييم
					38 يتم أخذ التحديات الخارجية بعين الاعتبار
					39 يتم أخذ السياسات الحكومية المتعلقة في تطوير الإدارة بعين الاعتبار
					40 يؤخذ دور المنافسة بعين الاعتبار في مرحلة تقييم برامج التطوير والتدريب
					41 يتم التركيز في التقييم على المهمة الوظيفية
					42 تؤخذ العوامل الثقافية بعين الاعتبار عندما يكون المسؤول عن التدريب خبيراً/ أجنبي/ة
					43 تؤخذ منفعة المؤسسة فقط بعين الاعتبار خلال مرحلة التقييم
					44 تؤخذ منفعة المؤسسة والمنفعة الفردية للمدير معاً بعين الاعتبار خلال مرحلة التقييم
					45 تؤخذ احتياجات ورغبات السوق بعين الاعتبار في هذه المرحلة
					46 تؤخذ نقاط الضعف الداخلية في الشركة بعين الاعتبار

47- هل يوجد للموظفين وصف وظيفي واضح في مؤسستك؟

نعم لا لا أدري

48- هل تقوم مؤسستك بتقييم أداء الموظفين؟

نعم لا لا أدري

49- هل تفكر مؤسستك بالنظر إلى التعليقات الخاصة بتقييم الموظفين عند تصميم برامج التطوير والتدريب؟

نعم لا لا أدري

الجزء الثاني: الأساليب المستخدمة في تطبيق برامج التدريب والتطوير

50- هل سبق وشاركت في دورة/ ورشة عمل في التطوير والتدريب؟

نعم لا

51- إذا كانت اجابتك نعم، ما عدد الدورات التي التحقت بها خلال السنتين الماضيتين؟

دورة واحدة 2-5 دورات أكثر من 5 دورات

52- الرجاء توضيح نوع الدورات التي التحقت فيها: (بإمكانك اختيار أكثر من إجابة)

مالية تخطيط استراتيجي تسويق

مهارات التطوير الذاتي والمهني (مثل إدارة الوقت) تقنية (مهارات تتعلق بالعمل أو المهمة)

اجتماعية (مهارات بشرية) مهارات اجتماعية وتقنية

غير ذلك، الرجاء التوضيح:

53- ما هي أنواع التدريب التي تفضل المؤسسة تطبيقها؟ الرجاء اختيار المربع المناسب: 1= دائماً، 2= أحياناً، 3= لا يوجد

1 2 3 التدريب أثناء العمل

1 2 3 التدريب خارج العمل (داخل المؤسسة)

1 2 3 التدريب خارج العمل (خارج المؤسسة)

..... غير ذلك، الرجاء التوضيح:

54- ما هي الأساليب المستخدمة من أجل تطبيق برامج التدريب والتطوير؟ 1= دائماً، 2= أحياناً، 3= لا

1 2 3 محاضرة

1 2 3 مؤتمر أو حلقة دراسية

1 2 3 لعب الأدوار

1 2 3 حالات دراسية

1 2 3 مشاريع فردية أو جماعية

1 2 3 دورات عبر الأنترنت

1 2 3 مجموعة من الأساليب المذكورة أعلاه

55- هل تقوم شركتك بدعوة خبراء خارجيين لتنفيذ برامج التطوير والتدريب؟

نعم لا لا أدري

56- هل يشارك الموظفون في شركتك في دورات تدريب وتطوير خارج البلاد؟

نعم لا لا أدري

57- هل تلجأ الشركة إلى دعم من طرف ثالث لتوفير برامج التطوير والتدريب (مثل شركة تدريب)؟

نعم لا لا أدري

58- هل يحصل الموظفون الجدد على تدريب وتطوير أولي؟

نعم لا لا أدري

59- عند ترقية أحد الموظفين/ ات، هل ي/تحصل على تدريب للمنصب الجديد؟

نعم لا لا أدري

إذا فكرت في آخر برنامج تدريب وتطوير شاركت فيه، الرجاء الإشارة الى درجة الرضا العامة لديك عما يلي:

	راض جداً	راض	محايد	غير راض	غير راض جداً
60					الأساليب المستخدمة
61					جودة المواد المستخدمة
62					قدرات المدربين
63					مكان دورة / ورشة التدريب
64					المواد الداعمة البصرية والسمعية
65					ادارة البرنامج

الجزء الثالث: تقييم برامج التطوير والتدريب

66- هل تقوم مؤسستك بتقييم برامج التطوير والتدريب؟

نعم أحياناً لا

67- هل سبق وأن شاركت في تقييم برنامج تدريب وتطوير ؟

نعم لا

68- الرجاء توضيح الأساليب التي تستخدمها مؤسستك في تقييم برامج التطوير والتدريب؟ الرجاء اختيار المربع

المناسب: 1= دائماً، 2= أحياناً، 3= لا يستخدم

1 2 3

● تعبئة إستبانة من قبل كل المتدربين

1 2 3

● أخذ أداء الموظف قبل و بعد التدريب بعين الاعتبار

1 2 3

● اجراء مقابلات مع المتدربين

1 2 3

● من خلال توجيه أسئلة للمدراء المسؤولين عن المتدربين

1 2 3

● اختبار مستوى التعلم لدى المتدربين

1 2 3

● تقييم تأثير التدريب على أداء المتدرب

غير ذلك، الرجاء التوضيح.....

الرجاء توضيح مدى موافقتك على العبارات التالية:

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
69					من الصعب تقييم برامج التدريب والتطوير
70					ليس هناك معلومات كافية لتقييم سلوك المتدربين مثل تقارير الأداء
71					التقييم مكلف
72					التقييم يستهلك الوقت
73					أهداف التدريب والتطوير ليست واضحة، وهذا يؤدي إلى صعوبة القيام بالتقييم
74					أسباب أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها

القسم الرابع: المعوقات والتحديات المستقبلية التي من الممكن أن تواجه برامج التدريب والتطوير في مؤسستكم. الرجاء توضيح مدى موافقتك على العبارات التالية، والتي من الممكن أن تكون ذات صلة بمعوقات وتحديات التطوير والتدريب الإداري في شركتكم:

	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
75					ضعف الالتزام من قبل الإدارة العليا للمؤسسة تجاه برامج التدريب والتطوير.
76					عدم وجود هيكلية مؤسسية واضحة.
77					عدم وجود الخطط اللازمة لإدارة الموارد البشرية في الشركة.
78					عدم القدرة على تحديد الاحتياجات الحقيقية التي تهم المؤسسة أو الموظف.
79					عدم وجود مهمة للتدريب والتطوير على قائمة الشركة.
80					شروع صورة نمطية سلبية عن التطوير والتدريب.

					التطوير والتدريب ليس جزء من الخطة الإستراتيجية العامة للشركة.	81
					ترى إدارة المؤسسة برامج التطوير والتدريب كنفقات وليس كاستثمار.	82
					ضعف جودة برامج التطوير والتدريب المتوفرة.	83
					عدم وجود رأس المال المخصص لمثل هذه البرامج.	84
					ارتفاع معدل الدوران الوظيفي في شركتكم.	85
					عدم وجود الجهات أو المؤسسات التي تقدم برامج التطوير والتدريب.	86
					صعوبة تقييم برامج التطوير والتدريب.	87
					وجود نقص في الكادر البشري المسؤول عن هذه المهمة (التطوير والتدريب).	88
					طريقة هيكلية التوزيع الوظيفي في المؤسسة تعيق الاستفادة من تطبيق برامج التطوير والتدريب اللازمة.	89

الرجاء توضيح مدى موافقتك على العبارات التالية، والتي تشير إلى أهمية أن تولي الإدارة العليا الانتباه لبرامج التطوير والتدريب في الشركة:

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	
					90 دخول منافسين محليين جدد للسوق
					91 دخول منافسين أجنبى (غير محليين) إلى السوق.
					92 التطور التكنولوجى.
					93 التغيير فى أذواق المستهلكين.
					94 القوانين والتشريعات الجديدة.
					95 التغييرات على سوق العمل.

يمكنك كتابة أية تعليقات أو إضافات ترى من الضرورى إضافتها، أو لها علاقة بموضوع الاستبانة:

نشكر لكم حسن تعاونكم،،،

هل تود الحصول على نسخة من نتائج البحث؟

نعم لا

الرجاء كتابة الاسم والعنوان هنا:

الباحث: أنطون روبييرت سابيللا

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الأستاذ المشرف: Professor Farhad Analoui

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APPENDIX

D

Interview Questions

(Arabic Version)

أسئلة المقابلة

مقابلة منتظمة جزئيا أعدت لعينة مختارة من مدراء الطبقة الوسطى والعليا في مؤسسات قطاع الاتصالات

- 1) ما هو رأيك بخصوص التدريب والتطوير الإداري في المؤسسات ؟
- 2) برأيك، هل تراه ضروري لنجاح المؤسسة ؟
- 3) بإعتقادك، هل هناك ضرورة لوجود وحدة خاصة داخل المؤسسة تعنى بالتدريب والتطوير الإداري، ولكن بنفس الوقت تتداخل مع دائرة الموارد البشرية؟
- 4) هل تخطط مؤسستكم لبرامج التدريب والتطوير الإداري ؟ وهل هذه الخطط مرتبطة مع استراتيجيات المؤسسة ؟
- 5) هل توفر المؤسسة موازنات سنوية لبرامج التدريب والتطوير الإداري ؟ وبرأيك، هل ترى هذه الموازنات كافية؟
- 6) بالمقارنة بين البرامج المنفذة داخليا (داخل الشركة) وتلك التي تعقد خارجيا (خارج الشركة)، من برأيك يعد الأفضل ؟ ولماذا؟
- 7) ما هي أكثر وسائل التدريب والتطوير الإداري استخداما من قبل مؤسستكم؟ ولماذا ؟
- 8) هل تُقيم برامج التدريب والتطوير الإداري المنفذة في مؤسستكم؟ وإذا كانت الإجابة نعم، فكيف يتم ذلك؟ هل بإمكانك وصف عملية التقييم؟
- 9) ما هي أهم المحددات/ المشاكل التي تواجه برامج التدريب والتطوير في المؤسسة؟
- 10) هل هناك أثر للعوامل الخارجية، كالسياسات والقوانين الحكومية ، والمنافسة، والتغير التكنولوجي، وأذواق المستهلكين، والعوامل الاجتماعية والثقافية، على برامج التدريب والتطوير الإداري في مؤسستكم.

APPENDIX

E

Letters of Introduction

- I. Researcher's Supervisor (English Language)**
- II. Dean of Faculty of Business and Economics - Birzeit University (Arabic Language)**

June 8th, 2009

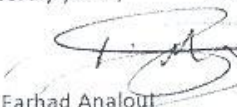
To whom it may concern

This is to officially state that Mr. Anton R. Sabella is registered as a full-time Ph.D. student in the University of Bradford. He is conducting his research in the field of management development and training within the context of organizational change in the Palestinian Telecommunication Sector. For this very reason, Mr. Sabella is obliged to carry out data collection for his research. Mr. Sabella's research is purely academic and any data provided will be used only for research purposes. Of course, the result of the survey will be shared with you in due course.

Your collaboration and support to him – which we greatly appreciate - are crucial for the execution of his research.

With best wishes

Sincerely yours,


Dr. Farhad Analout

Professor, International Development and Human Resource Management

Principle supervisor

4 June 2009

السادة مجموعة الاتصالات الفلسطينية المحترمين

السيد كمال أبو خديجة المحترم

تحية طيبة وبعد،،،

إن هذا الكتاب بمثابة تأكيد على أن الأستاذ السيد أنطون سابيلا يعمل حالياً على حصوله على درجة الدكتوراه في علم الإدارة في جامعة براد فورد البريطانية، وعليه القيام بجمع المعلومات من أجل استكمال بحثه المتعلق بقطاع الاتصالات الفلسطينية.

أرجو التكرم بتوفير المساعدة اللازمة للسيد أنطون من أجل استكمال بحثه علماً بأن المعلومات التي سيتم توفيرها وجمعها ستكون بمثابة مادة علمية بحثه لتستعمل خصيصاً لأغراض البحث.

إن تعاونكم ودعمكم للسيد أنطون مهم جداً من أجل إنجاز بحثه وحصوله على درجة الدكتوراه.

وفي الختام كل الشكر والتقدير لكم ولزملائكم في مجموعة الاتصالات الفلسطينية أملين أن يعود دعمكم والتزامكم بالنفع والمصلحة على جميع العاملين في جامعتنا العريقة- بيرزيت.

مع الاحترام والتقدير ...

د. نضال صبري

عميد كلية التجارة والاقتصاد

APPENDIX

F

Map of Palestine



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