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The moderating roles of national culture and the country institutional profiles on the effect of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation on the performance of banks in Jordan: An empirical investigation

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THE MODERATING ROLES OF NATIONAL CULTURE AND THE COUNTRY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES ON THE EFFECT OF MARKET ORIENTATION AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION ON THE PERFORMANCE OF BANKS IN JORDAN: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

By

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the study was to extend Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) market orientation (MO) model in the banking industry of Jordan. Specifically, the study (1) added entrepreneurial orientation (EO) as a second mediating variable with market orientation, (2) incorporated national culture and country institutional profile as moderators on the performance effects of MO and EO, and (3) replicated other relationships in the market orientation model of Jaworski and Kohli in the banking industry of Jordan. These moderating variables explained some of the discrepancies in the direct performance effects of MO and EO observed in international contexts.

To accomplish these objectives, the study used the following instruments: Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) scales of market orientation, Coven and Slevin's (1989) scales of entrepreneurial orientation, Hofstede's (1980) scale of national culture, and Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer's (2000) scale of country institutional profiles.

The past two decades have witnessed great interest into two critical strategic organizational practices, market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation, which can enhance an organization's capabilities to manage its environment and to perform well. Central to the interest in market orientation and entrepreneurship is their potential influence on organizations' performance. As discrepant evidence has started to accumulate about the direct performance effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations, researchers have begun to explore the roles of various contingency

variables on the influence of both market orientation and entrepreneurship on performance. Two such contingency variables that are increasingly encountered by transnational and national organizations are national culture and country institutional profile. In this regard, research suggests that, while pursuing market orientation to enhance performance, marketing managers ought to take into account the effects of national culture and country institutional profiles. Likewise, research suggests that the cross-national variations in the success of entrepreneurial activities may be accounted for by the differences in national culture and country institutional profiles.

A national sample of 950 branch managers and senior management members from 475 bank branches listed in *The 2003 Banks and Finance Institutions Directory in Jordan,* were participated in this study. Responses were received from 507 participants, yielding a response rate of 53%. A host of statistical techniques were employed to test the hypotheses. These techniques include explanatory alpha, rotation factors analysis, and multivariate regression analysis.

The findings of the study were as follows: (1) market orientation as well as entrepreneurial orientation are in their initial stages in the banking industry in Jordan; (2) top management, organizational, and structural factors are significant determinants in the degrees of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation; (3) there is a significant relationship between the degree of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation in performance of banks in Jordan; (4) national cultural plays a limited role in moderating the effect of market orientation on performance of banks in Jordan, while national culture has no moderating role on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance of banks in Jordan; (5) likewise, country institutional profiles have a significant moderating role on the linkage between market orientation and performance of banks in Jordan. However, country constitutional profiles play no moderating role on the effect of entrepreneurial orientation on performance of banks in Jordan.

Policy implications of these findings along with contributions to marketing and entrepreneurial literature are discussed. Finally, suggestions for future research are also provided for practitioners and academicians.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In this era of rapid globalization, national culture and country institutional profiles are two country-level distinguishing forces that can significantly affect the performance of both national and international organizations (e.g., Clark 1990; Walchi 1996; Kostova 1997; Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000; Nakata and Sivakumar 2001).

National culture differs from organizational culture, and it embodies a deeper layer of consciousness and assumptions from which organizations develop their cultural value system (Pothukuchi et al. 2002). Despite the interplay between the two cultures, they differ across the value-practice line (Hofstede 1980). While national culture emphasizes mostly values and places less emphasis on practice, the organizational culture focuses mostly on practice and less on values. The socialization of individuals into the values of national culture is a life-long process that starts during childhood. Hofstede (1997) asserts that, by the time a child is ten years old, most of the culture's basic values have been programmed into the mind, whereas the orientation of members in an organization starts after they become members of that organization and continues during their tenure. Scholars of organizational theory (e.g., Lynn 1971; Schein 1990; Schneider and Meyer 1991; Davis et al. 1991; Adler 1991;

Black 2002) argue that national culture can play a more significant role in shaping organizational behavior than organizational culture.

The influence of national culture in an organization surfaces through key managers who tend to see themselves, and are perceived by others, as champions of the national culture they represent (Bloodgood, Sapienza, and Almeida 1996). Such roles played by key executives are further evident from the assertion that organizations are reflections of the values and beliefs of powerful actors (French and Raven 1960; Hambrick and Mason 1984; Armstrong and Sweeny 1994). These key organizational leaders perceive organizational practices through the lens of their national cultural orientation (Laurent 1983; Schein 1996). More specifically, they are likely to have all-out faith, motivation, and commitment toward an organizational practice given that it fits with the underlying values of their national culture (Peterson 1993; Amabile et al. 1996; Segalla 2002). In contrast, any incongruity between the inherent values of the national culture and an organizational practice will weaken the organization leaders' faith in that organizational practice. In essence, key decision-makers' national cultural orientations may enhance or diminish the impact of organizational practices on organizational performance (Ralston et al. 1995). This contention is theoretically supported by the practice-culture fit paradigm (Schoonhoven 1981; Newman and Nollen 1996) which purports that certain cultural profiles correspond with certain organizational practices. That is, the performance effects of certain management practices are dependent on the co-alignment between the practices and the culture (Scott 1987; Roth 1995).

A country's institutional profiles is another national-level construct believed to have an influence on the strategy of an organization and, ultimately, its performance. This contention is based on the assumption that organizations are embedded in country-specific institutional arrangements (Nelson 1993). Thus, researchers, drawing on institutional theory, have articulated that the term "country institutional profile" refers to the institutional characteristics of a national environment (Kostova 1997; Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000) and is a potential factor that explains cross-country differences in the performance effects of strategic organizational practices (Acs 1992; Mueller and Thomas 1997). This assertion stems from the strategic fit paradigm, which posits that environmental context and strategic organizational practices interact in a dynamic co-alignment process that and the consequential fit between strategy and environmental context has positive implications for performance (Miller 1983; Venkatraman 1989; Venkatraman and Prescott 1990; Rogers and Bamford 2002). Despite its significance, relatively little attention has been devoted to the empirical analysis of country institutional profile, perhaps because of the difficulty of obtaining between-country data.

In defining country institutional profile, Kostova (1997) has focused on three dimensions, namely, regulatory (government policies about new businesses), cognitive (shared knowledge about establishing and operating new businesses) and normative (value ascribed to new businesses and innovative thinking by the society). As the latter two dimensions are conceptually close to culture (Kostova 1997) business leaders are likely to be endowed with them from their respective childhood experiences, education, and training. However, the regulatory environment, the third dimension of country institutional profiles, of a country is the one that can dominantly influence business activities. This regulatory dimension is likely to take effect through the perceptions of key managers because perceived environmental factors are more relevant for managerial behavior and decision-making (Begley and Boyd 1987; Brown 1996). The key managers can perceive certain within-country regulatory environments differently because of (1) flawed regulations that can favor some industries and companies over others (Bhuian and Habib 2001); (2) discrepancies in regulatory enforcement (Aaker and Day 1982); (3) undue interventions by powerful individuals and families into the market mechanism which characterize the regulatory environment of most developing countries (Lazer and Hardin 1994); and (4) the inherent nature of perceptions (Inglehart 1995).

The past two decades have witnessed great interest in two critical strategic organizational practices, market orientation (MO) and entrepreneurship orientation (EO) (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Han, Kim, and Srivastava 1998; Zahra, Jennings, and Kuratko 1999; Hult and Ketchen 2001) which can enhance an organization's capacity to manage its environment and perform well (Day 1990). Central to the interest in market orientation and entrepreneurship is their potential influence on the performance of organizations (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Wiklund 1999). As discrepant evidence has started to accumulate about the direct performance effects of market orientation (Diamantopoulos and Hart 1993; Greenley 1995; Dawes 2000) and entrepreneurship (Covin and Slevin 1991; Zahra and Covin 1993; Hayton, George, and Zahra 2002), researchers have begun to explore the roles of various contingency variables in the influence of both market orientation and entrepreneurship on performance (Baron and

Kenny 1986; Anusorn et al. 1990; Chui, Lloyd, and Kwok 2002). Two such contingency variables that are increasingly encountered by transnational and national organizations are national culture and country institutional profile (Kostova 1997). In this regard, Nakata and Sivakumar (2001) hypothesize that, while pursuing market orientation to enhance performance, marketing managers ought to take into account the effects of national culture. Likewise, Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer (2000) suggest that cross-national variations in the success of entrepreneurial activities may be accounted for by the differences in country institutional profiles. Despite research calls to investigate the roles of national culture and country institutional profiles on the effectiveness of strategic organizational practices, such as market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation, no empirical study has yet been undertaken. Even single-country studies of the two orientations are scarce, and few attempts have been made to generalize knowledge about market and entrepreneurial orientations (Steinman, Deshpande, and Farley 2000; Bhuian and Habib 2001). This study will take a step in this direction. It will attempt to specify and test national culture and country institutional profiles as potential moderators of the performance implications for market orientation and entrepreneurship in the Jordanian banking industry.

The study context, Jordan, and the industry, banking, are suitable for this study because of the likely presence of adequate variances in all major constructs, including national culture, country institutional profile, market orientation, and entrepreneurship. In addition, Jordan provides an appropriate context for testing the potential for generalization of this research on market orientation and entrepreneurship in a non-Western nation (Shane 1992; Walchi 1996; Wiklund 1999). Jordan has 24 banks; one-fourth of them are joint venture, with over 600 branches nationwide (Association of Banks in Jordan 2002). Although Jordanians hold most, if not all, key positions in these banks, their mental programs are not necessarily in harmony with the Jordanian national culture. As stated by Hofstede (1997, p.10), "Almost everyone belongs to a number of different groups and categories of people at the same time, people unavoidably carry several layers of mental programming within themselves, corresponding to different levels of cultures." These layers include, for example, a national level according to one's country or countries for people who migrated during their lifetime; a regional and/or ethnic, and/or religious, and/or linguistic affiliations level; a gender level; a generation level, and a social class level (Hofstede 1997). In essence, managers from different subcultures hold the key positions in these banks. As a result, one subculture may become more dominant in one bank than in the others. Adler (1991) posits that the national culture of people in key positions becomes prominent in the firm. Consequently, we expect an adequate variability in national culture among banks in Jordan.

This study also expects an abundant variation in the perception of banks' managers of country institutional profiles in Jordan. The first component of country institutional profiles refers to government regulations that support new businesses. To make such regulatory decisions sound, regulators require a great deal of information about the dynamic economic and technical realities of hundreds of organizations almost invariably not available in developing countries (Whitney 1999). The resulting regulatory interventions are often flawed and discriminatory (Ross 1979; Schuck 1979). In Jordan, government investment incentives are directly proportional to the extent of equity participation by Jordanian nationals, especially certain groups, and the extent to which a certain group or persons from a region are employed, both of which are in extremely short supply and not equally available to all banks. These inherent weaknesses in regulations are further worsened by limitations in regulatory implementations owing to inadequate resources, ambiguity in regulations, lack of credibility, and suspicions among regulatees (Ouchi 1980; Aaker and Day 1982). Incidentally, Ali's (1995) label of market mechanism in Saudi Arabia as "Sheiko-Capitalism" could be broadened to all Arab countries including Jordan, where the government allocates resources by fiat and interferes with and alters market mechanisms when political considerations dictate (Kaikati 1979; Inglehart 1995). Often, business success is contingent upon support from the government or other powerful individuals through improper procedures (Keylani 2001). As a result, country institutional profiles may appear more conducive to organizations better aligned with the power sources than the ones deprived of any such undue privileges (Lee, Lee, and Pennings 2001). Further, perceptual variations can be expected to be related to two other dimensions, cognitive and normative, of country institutional profiles in Jordan. The heterogeneity in the knowledge about new business (the cognitive dimension) and the value of new business as perceived by the society (the normative dimension) are apparent because of inadequate or inefficient information, knowledge, infrastructures, discriminatory access to information that is mostly controlled, insufficient institutional arrangements and procedures, and undue interventions by the country officials and/or powerful individuals in the information-knowledge and other resource allocation process (El-Haddad 1985; Tuncalp 1988;

Mark 1999). Specifically, Tuncalp (1988) and Baker and Abou-Ismail (1993) describe the market of business information in Middle Eastern countries as inadequate. Too few institutions, either in the public or the private sector, exist that can generate and disseminate the market information needed by new start-ups. Although a few institutions — such as the Royal Science Association, the Ministry of Finance, and the Central Bank of Jordan — maintain a wealth of information about Jordanian markets, some of this information is only made available to organizations that can win the patronage of power sources (Morris, Davis, and Allen 1994). In addition, in Jordan as in other Middle Eastern countries the generation and use of market information is primarily an in-house activity and related to the organization's research capabilities (Ali 1999). All in all, banks, like other organizations in Jordan, are likely to perceive country institutional profiles (CIP) disparately.

In Jordan, some banks associated and supported by government, as a result, have access to capital, guarantee loans, custom privileges, and governmental preference in financial transactions. These banks are still relying on loyalty and conformity rather than on being market oriented (Bakhtari 1995). Other groups of banks in Jordan are not supported by the government but are highly connected with the social elite in the country. These banks face competition for customers and market share. They consider competition the driving force for products and services development and marketing efforts. They are involved in marketing research by hiring marketing experts or using other marketing consultants, conducting customer and competitor surveys, and conducting systematic employee training programs for customer services. Another category of bank exists in Jordan as joint ventures which are neither connected to the social elite nor supported by the government and which face competition from banks and other non-traditional financial institutions. These banks focus on customers and engage in market-oriented activities such as having a market research and customer service department, conducting customer surveys, hiring marketing experts, and encouraging marketing training programs (McGrath, MacMillan, and Scheinberg 1992). As the previous discussion indicates, in Jordan, some banks are not interested yet in a market orientation. Other banks have begun to implement the marketing concept and carefully experiment in market orientation activities while joint venture banks have long been practicing the activities of market orientation. Therefore, if the nature and extent of market intelligence determine the degree of market orientation of the banks, this study expects that different degrees of market orientation will be found among Jordanian banks. Hence, Jordanian banks are suitable for examining the construct of market orientation and its correlates.

Furthermore, no study has yet addressed the issue of entrepreneurship in Jordan. An examination of the cultural values in Jordan can shed some light on the nature of entrepreneurial activities in the country. Based on Hofstede's (1991) dimensions of culture, researchers (e.g., Shane 1995; Busenitz and Lau 1996) argue that that individuals belonging to high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance cultures would be less entrepreneurial because of the perceived risk associated with entrepreneurship and the individual's inability to look beyond strict rules and organizational structures for new opportunities (Kluckhohn and Strodeck 1973; Sitkin and Pablo 1992). Further, Schein (1996) found that nations demonstrating high individualism and low social hierarchy are more innovative. High individualism indicates a preference for freedom and greater reward for individual achievement that acts as incentive for innovation. With respect to social hierarchy, the lack of it presents less bureaucracy, which promotes communication across all levels and more opportunities for creative activity. Labor market disadvantages because of gender, religion, ethnicity, and immigrant status may mean entrepreneurship is one of the few roads available to achieving economic success (Bygrave and Minniti 2000).

As a country, Jordan is classified as a high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, hierarchical, and group-oriented country (Hofstede 1991). Consequently, Jordan can be considered less entrepreneurial. However, an open-door and free-market policy has encouraged a large number of skilled Jordanians to seek employment opportunities in other countries, and an increasing number of Jordanian are educated in the West, while a continuous influx of immigrants and host workers from Arab and non-Arab countries have created a heterogeneous organizational culture in Jordan (Al-Share 1983). A Jordanian bank managed by typical Jordanian managers closely resembles Hofstede's classification. On the other hand, Jordanian managers who have received their education in Western nations and worked in multinational corporations have adopted, at least to some extent, entrepreneurial activities in their businesses. Another type of banking organization in Jordan is the joint venture, which is established by cooperation with multinational banks and is entrepreneurially oriented. Consequently, a substantial variance can be expected in the construct of entrepreneurship within Jordanian banking organizations, which will allow for a robust test of the construct.

Statement of the Problem

A large body of research conducted in the United States and other developed countries has conceptually and empirically supported the notion that market orientation and entrepreneurship orientation, independently or collectively, have positive correlations with the performance of organizations (e.g., Cleveland 1985; Morris and Paul 1987; Narver and Slater 1990; Miles and Arnold 1991; Smith, Reid, and Piland 1991; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Smart and Conant 1994; Pelham and Wilson 1996; Selnes, Jaworski, and Kohli 1996; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b; Cahill 1996; Barrett and Weinstein 1998; Knight 2000b; Lee and Peterson 2000; Dilt and Prough 2001). At the same time, anomalous evidence has also accumulated regarding the direct and indirect influence of market orientation (MO) and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) on performance. Interestingly, most of the inconsistent findings have emerged in non-U.S. contexts that have distinctive cultures and economic infrastructures (Greenley 1995; Bhuian 1998).

This inconsistency implies that underlying forces of culture and country institutional profile may have masked the direct performance effects of MO and EO in other cultures. In other words, national culture and country institutional profiles may moderate the influence of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation on performance. Both orientations can be observed in the banking sector of Jordan. First, even though banking organizations in many developing countries, including Jordan, have survived because they enjoy the protection of their government, economic policies are changing (Anusorn et al. 1999). As the world becomes more market and service oriented, many nations, including Jordan, are replacing protectionist economic policies with others that promote participation in the world economy to endorse faster economic growth (Akel 1997; Fischer 1997; Doh 2000; Keylani 20001; Seyam 2001). These policies have led several foreign/multinational banks to enter Jordan. These foreign banks are operating as joint ventures and fully owned entities. Among other changes, these foreign banks have brought with them various Western management philosophies and practices, such as market and entrepreneurial orientations. Through demonstration effects, local banks also have started embracing practices related to market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation. Second, because the banking industry is one of the oldest and most competitive industries in most developing countries, this industry is among the pioneers in adopting Western management philosophies and practices, such as market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation. Indeed, Dalrymple and Parsons (1995) argue that, if the developing countries continue implementing economic reforms, organizations need to be business oriented to survive as these countries strive for economic development. They further posit that market and entrepreneurial orientations are required for a successful transformation from a planned economy to a market economy. As the most competitive industry, banks have increasingly embraced these views in Jordan.

DeMoranville et al. (1999) point out that managers as well as policy-makers often need guidance in how to start and use market and entrepreneurial orientations to increase their competitive advantages. Decision-makers in developing countries, particularly managers of banks in Jordan, are searching for answers to questions such as (1) if market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation play pivotal roles in the achievement of superior business performance, then what are the factors that drive or hinder market and entrepreneurial-oriented activities? (2) Can organizations operating in developing countries achieve superior performance by implementing both orientations like their counterparts in the United States and other developed countries? And, (3) what are the moderating roles of national culture and country institutional profiles on the impact of these orientations on business performance? Without answering these questions, bank managers in developing countries such as Jordan cannot initiate organizational change processes directed at building market and entrepreneurial orientations en route to enhancing performance (Payne 1988; Chvala 1991; Baker 1993; Kessler 1998; Harris and Oghonna 1999; Jaworski, Kohli, and Sahay 2000; Akel 2001).

Although a few studies have replicated Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) market orientation model in a number of developing countries, unfortunately no study has yet examined the potential moderating roles of national culture and country institutional profile on the performance effects of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation in Jordan. This study will attempt to contribute to the literature by addressing the following research questions:

1. What is the state of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation among Jordanian banks?

2. To what extent do top management, organizational, and structural factors influence the market and entrepreneurial orientations of banks in Jordan?

3. Do market and entrepreneurial orientations influence the performance of banks in Jordan?

4. Do national culture and country institutional profile moderate the effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations on the performance of banks in Jordan?

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the study was to extend Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) market orientation model to the banking industry of Jordan. Specifically, the study (1) added entrepreneurial orientation as a second mediating variable with market orientation, (2) incorporated national culture and country institutional profile as moderators on the performance effects of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation, and (3) replicated other relationships in the market orientation model of Jaworski and Kohli in the banking industry of Jordan. To accomplish these objectives, the study drew from (1) the evolving market orientation theory from the marketing literature (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1995), (2) the evolving entrepreneurial orientation theory from marketing and strategic management literature (Morris and Paul 1987; Covin and Slevin 1989; Miles and Arnold 1991), (3) the national culture theory from sociology, management, and marketing literature (Almond and Powell 1968; Hofstede 1980; Narver and Slater 1990), (4) the work in the country institutional profiles concept from political science and marketing literature (Huntington 1986; Kostova 1997; Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000; Nakata and Sivakumar 20001; Bhuian and Habib 2001), and (5) the work in international marketing from marketing, management, and comparative advantage literature (Lazer and Hardin 1994; Hills 1994; Hunt and Morgan 1995).

Significance of the Study

This study may be of potential value to both theory and practice of marketing. It examined fundamental marketing issues, such as market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, and the moderating roles of national culture and country institutional profile on the performance effects of the two orientations. While market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation and their antecedents and consequences have been investigated within industrialized Western business environments, their applicability and generalizability in a non-Western context have not been well researched. Despite calls in the literature, unfortunately, no study has yet investigated the potential moderating effects of national culture and country institutional profiles on the performance influence of market and entrepreneurial orientations. This study attempts to fill the aforementioned gaps in the literature. Further, since the majority of existing studies have concentrated on the manufacturing sector, this study extends the existing research on MO and EO to a service industry, namely, banks in Jordan. Also, this study may provide basic data for future studies and stimulate further research on how to advance MO and EO in developing countries. Finally, this study also may be of value to multinational corporations who have to deal with different cultures and country institutional profiles.

Conceptual Model and Hypothesized Relationships

In an attempt to guide the development of the study, a conceptual model had to be developed based on the literature. The basic conceptual framework was adopted from Jaworski and Kohli (1993). To this basic model, entrepreneurship was added as the second mediating variable. In addition, perhaps for the first time, the moderating roles of the national culture and the country institutional profiles on the performance impacts of market and entrepreneurial orientations were added. The model illustrated that the degree of market orientation (market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness) and entrepreneurial orientation (innovation, risk-taking, and proactiveness) in any given bank depend on the levels of top management factors, interdepartmental dynamics, and organizational systems. The model further specified that market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation influence the performance of banks. In addition, the model proposed that two moderating variables, national culture (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity), and the country institutional profiles (regulatory, cognitive, and normative), had significant effects on the performance effects of the market and entrepreneurial orientations of banks in Jordan. Figure 1 depicts the proposed model.

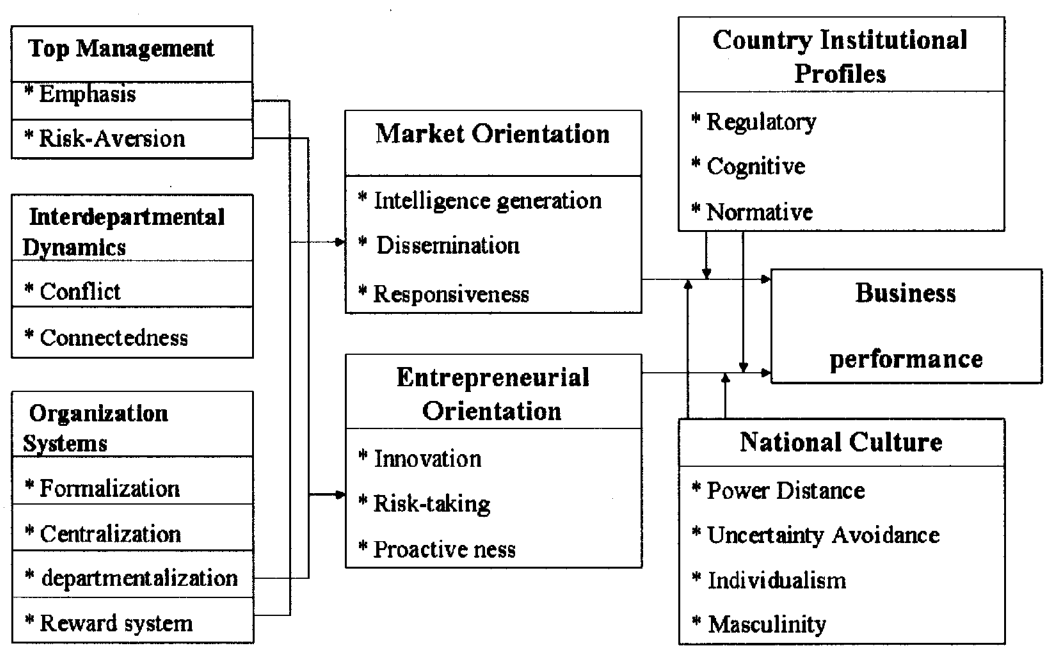

FIGURE 1: A Contingency Model: Antecedents and Consequences of Market and Entrepreneurial Orientations

Figure 1 summarizes the proposed model of the study. The constructs and the linkages are reviewed in Chapter II.

Organization of the Study

The study was structured in the following manner. Chapter I introduced the study by providing the background of the topic and its significance in the marketing discipline. Chapter II reviewed the literature pertaining to market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation. In addition, the moderating roles of national culture and country institutional profiles were explored with special reference to the Jordanian-Arab culture, institutions, and business environment. Further, antecedents of market and entrepreneurial orientations in the Jordanian banks were enumerated. In addition, the hypothesized associations of market orientation (MO) and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) with the performance of banks were discussed. Chapter III introduced the methodology of the study. Specifically, the measures, the population of the study, the sampling frame and sampling units, the data collection methods, and the survey techniques employed were discussed. Chapter IV presented the data analysis and results, and Chapter V provided the conclusions, contributions, limitations, and recommendations of the study for practitioners and researchers.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Overview of Evolution of Business Orientation

Before market orientation and entrepreneurship orientation are discussed, it is imperative that the evolution of these business orientations be reviewed. Hayes (1988) states that the decade of the 1960s belonged to the marketing concept and the decade of the 1970s focused on strategic planning. Elsewhere, Kirchhoff and Phillips (1994) refer to the 1980s as the decade of entrepreneurship and the 1990s as the decade of market orientation. It is the impression of this study that the next decade will focus on the synergistic or integrative effect of market and entrepreneurship orientations.

Several definitions of business orientations have been advanced in the literature (Kotler 1972; Khandwalla 1977; Karagozoglu and Brown 1988; Peterson 1989; Deshpande and Webster 1989; Wong, Sanders, and Doyle 1992). Generally speaking, all agree that business orientation is the underlying business philosophy that guides and directs organizational activities toward achieving their objectives (Kotler 1972, Houston 1986; Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Kotler 1994; Hunt and Morgan 1995). Several distinct business orientations have been identified that have shifted focus from commodity to institution, from functions to management, and finally to society. Each of the major business orientations is discussed below.

1. The production orientation: this orientation assumes that consumers are primarily interested in product availability and low price. The production concept is workable in a market where there is a shortage of supply, the product cost is very high, and the emphasis is to increase productivity to expand the market. The focus on production and cost reduction leads to poor service quality and impersonality in relationships with customers (Kotler 1994).

2. The product orientation: this orientation focuses on providing high-quality products assuming that high-quality products will attract customers' attention. Therefore, little attention is given to customers' behaviors and relationships. This concept may lead to "marketing myopia," which means that these organizations too often look into a mirror when they should be looking out from the window (Kotler 1994).

3. The selling orientation: this concept focuses mainly on expanding the demand for products. Many organizations have applied this concept to increase consumers' demand for products because they had over-capacity or unsought products. However, the hard-selling practice has led to higher risks.

4. The marketing orientation: this approach was articulated in the 1950s and 1960s as a new business philosophy to guide marketing activities that challenged previous concepts. It entails customer orientation, coordinated efforts, and profitability.

5. The societal orientation: according to this concept, organizations attempt to maintain a balance between making profits, consumers' interests, and the public interest in setting their marketing policies and practices.

6. The market orientation: introduced by Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990), this orientation calls for implementing the marketing orientation or concept throughout the organization by way of market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness.

7. The entrepreneurial orientation: This orientation refers to the strategic posture that focuses on innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Covin and Slevin 1989).

8. The learning orientation: this orientation is a mechanism that directly affects an organization's ability to challenge old assumptions about the market and to determine how a firm should be organized to address it (Slater and Narver 1995; Baker and Sinkula 1999).

The constructs of interest for this study, market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation, will be delineated next.

Market Orientation

Many definitions for market orientation have been cited in the literature that have attempted to identify what market orientation really is. It is noteworthy that the majority of the definitions articulated before 1990, in other words, predating the works of Narver and Slater (1990) and Kohli and Jaworski (1990), centered on the orbit of the pillars of the marketing concept as shown in Appendix A. These pillars are that (1) all areas of the firm should be customer oriented; (2) all marketing activities should be integrated; and (3) profit, not just sales, should be the objective (e.g., Borch 1957; Felton 1959; Hise 1965; King 1965; Bell and Emery 1971; Barksdale and Darden 1971; McNamara 1972; Lawton and Parasuraman 1980; Parasuraman 1983; Foxall 1984; Morris and Paul 1987; Hayes 1988; Canning 1988; Masiello 1988; Shapiro 1988; Peterson 1989; Deshpande and Webster 1989).

Most definitions cited post-1990 resemble and cluster around Narver and Slater's (1990) and Kohli and Jaworski's (1990) perspectives (e.g., Ruekert 1992; Greenley 1995; Hunt and Morgan 1995; Pulendran et al. 2000). A debate is on-going among researchers as to whether market orientation is a set of behaviors and activities or behaviors and values (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Slater and Narver 1995), a knowledge orientation or learning orientation (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1995), a culture or climate or both (Narver and Slater 1990; Slater and Narver 1995), a tangible or intangible resource, (Hunt and Morgan 1995), a strategy or decision-making concept (Covin and Slevin 1989), a business philosophy or an organizational characteristic (Lichtenthal and Wilson 1992; Hunt and Morgan 1995), a discrete or continuous process (Pulendran et al 2000). Researchers have also debated about which of these components, or combinations of them, most effectively and efficiently creates superior value for customers and produces higher performance for organizations (Pulendran et al. 2000).

Another related issue that has received less attention than that of the definition of market orientation is whether the term "marketing orientation" or "market orientation" is used to describe the implementation of the marketing concept (Shapiro 1988; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Slater and Narver 1994b; Greenley 1995; Slater and

Narver 1995; Wrenn 1997). Although both terms have been used interchangeably in the marketing literature, Shapiro (1988) and Kohli and Jaworski (1993) have preferred the use of "market orientation" based on the following three reasons:

1. The term "marketing orientation" implies that marketing functions are exclusively the concern of the marketing department rather than all departments even though marketing functions require involvement of all departments. Hence, labeling the construct as "marketing orientation" is both restrictive and misleading.
2. The label "market orientation" is less politically charged because it does not inflate the importance of the marketing function in an organization. The label removes the construct from the province of the marketing department and makes it the responsibility of all departments in an organization. Consequently, market orientation is more likely to be embraced by non-marketing departments.
3. The label "market orientation" focuses attention on the market (including customers and forces affecting them), which is consistent with the broader concept, "management of market orientation." Kohli and Jaworski (1990) argue that the publicity of market orientation stems from its reflections of the pillars of the marketing concepts as a business philosophy.

However, in their definition of market orientation, Hunt and Morgan (1995) have distinguished "market orientation" from both the "marketing concept" and "marketing orientation." Wrenn (1997) sees little difference between the two terms. Recently, Uncles (2000) has recommended that the expression "market orientation" and not "marketing orientation" should be used because market orientation is cross-functional in character as is business. Following Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Uncles (2000), the term "market orientation" will be used in this study.

There are three major perspectives of market orientation in the literature. First, Kohli and Jaworski (1990) have defined market orientation from a behavioral perspective. That is, it is a set of activities, including "the organization-wide generation of market intelligence pertaining to current and future customer needs, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organizational-wide responsive to it" (Kohli and Jaworski 1990, p. 6). Second, Narver and Slater (1990) have approached market orientation from a cultural perspective and have argued that market orientation manifests itself indirectly through the organizational culture. "Market orientation is the organizational culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviors for the creation of superior value for customers and, thus, continuous superior performance for the business" (Narver and Slater 1990, p. 21).

Finally, although market orientation has been publicized as the implementation of the marketing concept, Hunt and Morgan (1995) have argued that market orientation is not the same as marketing concept — not different from it, not the implementation of it — but rather that market orientation is conceptualized as "supplementary" to the marketing concept. They have defined market orientation as "(1) the systematic gathering of information on customers and competitors, both present and potential, (2) the systematic analysis of the information for the purpose of developing market knowledge, and (3) the systematic use of such knowledge to guide strategy recognition, understanding creation, selection, implementation, and modification" (p. 11). In this capacity, market orientation would be an intermediate phase between business strategy and the cultural business philosophy identified as the marketing concept (Hunt and Morgan 1995).

This study adopts Jaworski and Kohli's view of market orientation. Specifically, market-oriented organizations track and respond to customer needs and preferences through market intelligence generation, dissemination, and utilization. A considerable body of research has studied the performance effect of market orientation extensively (e.g., Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990; Ruekert 1992; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1994a; Atuahene-Gima 1995; Greenley and Foxall 1997; Bhuian 1997; Bhuian 1998; Moorman and Rust 1999; Harris and Ogbonna 1999; Matsuno and Mentzer 2000; Hult and Ketchen 2001; Grewal and Tansuhaj 2001). Although, in general, findings are supportive of the positive relationship between market orientation and performance (e.g., Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kholi 1993; Slater and Narver 1994b; Pelham and Wilson 1996; Selnes, Jaworski, and Kohli 1996; Avlonitis and Gounaris 1997; Appiah-Adu and Singh 1998), contradictory evidence has also appeared (e.g., Esslemont and Lewis 1991; Deshpande et al. 1993; Greenley 1995; Balabanis, Stables, and Phillips 1997; Tse 1998). To address such contradictions, researchers have explored both mediating and moderating variables related to the performance impact of market orientation. The mediating variables investigated include entrepreneurship (Barrett and Weinstein 1998; Atuahene-Gima and Ko 2001), innovation (Desponded, Farley, and Webster 1993; Han, Kim, and Srivastava 1998; Lucas and Ferrell 2000), and learning organization (Farrell 2000), while the moderators considered comprise environmental factors (Diamantopoulos and Hart 1993; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1994b; Greenley 1995; Atuahene-Gima 1995; Greenley and Foxall 1997; Appiah-Adu 1997; Homburg and Pflesser 2000; Subramanian and Gopalakrishna 2001), company type (Slater and Narver 1995), and strategy type (Matsuno and Mentzer 2000). Interestingly, several of the anomalies in the linear relationship between market orientation and performance are from international contexts, such as Australia (Farrell 2000; Pulendran, Speed, and Widing 2001), Ghana (Appiah-Adu and Singh 1998), Hong Kong (Au and Tse 1995), India (Subremanian and Gopalakrishhna 2001), Japan (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993), New Zealand (Au and Tse 1995), Saudi Arabia (Bhuian 1997; 1998), Spain and Belgium (Lado and Revera 1998), Thailand (Grewal and Tansuhaj 2001), and the United Kingdom (Greenley 1995), representing a myriad of national cultures and country institutional profiles. Because of the extensive body of research on market orientation, an abbreviated discussion of market orientation activities will be presented with reference to how it will be related to the banking industry in Jordan.

Market Orientation Activities in the Banking Industry in Jordan

As shown in Figure 1 and indicated previously, the concept of market orientation refers to the organization-wide generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market intelligence. Researchers have linked these activities of market orientation to performance in their study of manufacturing organizations and hold them to be key ingredients in the organizations' success (e.g., Narver and Slater

1990; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1995; Hunt and Morgan 1995). More specifically, in both theoretical and practical terms, market intelligence constitutes the common denominator among the definitions of market orientation. In essence, market intelligence is a key activity for any organization that purports to be market oriented (Uncles 2000). It is the underlying assumption of this study that market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness constitute the core of market orientation for banking organizations, as well as other service organizations. Similarly, another underlying assumption of this proposed research is that using market orientation will improve the banking organizations' performance in Jordan.

Market Orientation Activities

As this study adopts Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) definition of market orientation, the following sections will explain the three market orientation activities that are used frequently in the marketing literature.

Intelligence Generation

The first activity of market orientation is market intelligence generation involving four distinct but interrelated steps (Kohli and Jowarski 1990; Slater and Narver 1995; Hunt and Morgan 1995):

1. Collecting and analyzing information pertaining to understanding current and potential customers' needs and preferences.

2. Scanning and analyzing exogenous factors outside the banking industry (i.e., governmental regulations, economic trends, technology, and other environmental forces) that may influence customers' needs and wants.

3. Monitoring, anticipating, and analyzing competitors' actions and how they might influence the current and future needs and preferences of customers.

4. Gathering and monitoring of market intelligence through formal and informal methods

The key to successful marketing is customer focus (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Customer focus requires organizations to study and understand current and potential customers' needs, wants, satisfaction, behavior, and other factors by systematic generation and analysis of information about customers' personal, psychological, social, and cultural surroundings (Houston 1986; Hunt and Morgan 1995). A customer-focused organization is not only focusing on current customers' needs, it must also be proactive in anticipating changes in customers' needs, want, demands, and so forth (Kotler 1994; Walters, Holliday, and Glaser 2002). Because of the nature of their business, banking organizations have exchange relationships with different types of customers at both national and international levels and have to respond to their needs and wants (Han, Kim, and Srivastava 1998).

To become truly market oriented, banks have to keep up with the dynamic nature of the current and future needs of different customers (Kotler 1994). The old paradigm, which maintains that "location, location, location" and "word-of-mouth" are sufficient for success are no longer enough (Garg and Chang 1997). Service organizations, such as the banking industry, have to rethink their business philosophy to adopt a market-oriented philosophy and review their informational needs to intelligently establish a marketing information system that focuses on customers and the external environment (Canning 1988; McDermott 1991). Market intelligence generation should be the means for organizations to look at themselves through the eyes of their customers because they are likely to define problems and, hence, solutions (Bolton and Drew 1991). For example, market intelligence should show the extent of both employees' commitment to customers and the management's understanding of how to create customer value (Slater and Narver 1995; Pelham and Wilson 1996).

Because of the dynamic nature of the environment, market intelligence is needed to monitor exogenous factors such as government regulations, technology, economic conditions, and other environmental forces to assess their influence on customers' needs and preferences (Kotler 1994). Such forces affect the performance of banking organizations (Han, Kim, and Srivastava 1998). Further, market intelligence is also needed to analyze changing conditions in the banking industry and their impact on the needs and wants of customers (Kohli and Jaworski 1990). Specifically, a significant portion of banking industry interactions is inherently international (Moorman and Rust 1999). Thus, market intelligence in the form of environmental scanning activities for the banking industry requires continuous monitoring and evaluation of external forces (Lenz and Engledow 1986; Kohli and Jaworski 1993).

Although researchers are still debating which focus — customers or competitors — should be the center of market intelligence activities (Day and Wensley 1988; Slater and Narver 1998; Slater and Narver 1999); they seem to agree that organizations which balance the two orientations tend to achieve better performance than those with emphasis on only one orientation (Day and Nedungadi 1994; Han, Kim, and Srivastava 1998). Competitors are one of the environmental forces that require special consideration from market intelligence because of their immediate and often massive influence on the organization's performance (Slater and Narver 2000a). Competitor orientation entails gathering intelligence: Who are the competitors? What products do they offer? And, do they represent an attractive alternative from the perspective of the target customers? (Slater and Narver 2000b). More specifically, market intelligence has to monitor and evaluate competitors' strengths, weaknesses, and strategies in order to develop a response strategy (Kotlet 1994).

As mentioned earlier, the banking industry is facing increasing and new demands from customers locally and internationally. Changes in the traditional marketing environment seem to intensify competition not only among banks, but also from non-traditional financial institutions and electronic banking worldwide (Garg and Chang 1997). Consequently, the Jordanian banking industry has to continuously seek better ways to meet their customers' needs and wants as well as give special attention to market intelligence generation with regard to monitoring competitors' actions and evaluating the level of competition.

Multiple means of internally focused sources and externally focused sources can be used to acquire primary or secondary market intelligence (Baker and Sinkula 1999). Furthermore, Slater and Narver (2000b) mention four modes of intelligence generation, including market-focused, collaborative, experimentation, and repetitive experience. Intelligence generation is the responsibility of marketing and non-marketing individuals and departments throughout the organization (Kohli and Jaworski 1990). All marketing and non-marketing employees have to understand that their jobs include intelligence generation elements (Canning 1988). Effective market intelligence generation in the banking industry requires formal and informal mechanisms to gather and monitor information related to customers, competitors, and environment forces and for the availability of the gathered intelligence at one location to be disseminated effectively to other parts of the banks (Slater and Narver 1995; Slater and Narver 2000 b).

Banks are flooded with information about their customers and could provide guidance for orientation if that information is utilized (Whitney 1999). Therefore, the goal is not simply to collect information; managers need to know what to do with this information. Whitney (1999) asserts that most information collected would be thrown out. In the case of Jordanian banks, most bank managers may not be aware of what this information could do for their banks to be market oriented (DeMoranville et al. 1995; Ridnour, Lassk, and Shepherd 2001). Only a few of these managers have been exposed to this orientation through education, training, or business transaction with Western institutions or organizations. Likewise, almost no research has been done on market orientation application to organizations in that part of the world, with the exception of Bhuian's (1997 and 1998) studies about Saudi Arabia.

In Jordan, some banks associated primarily with governmental economic plans depend on governmental agencies and government-owned organizations as their main customers and source of information. Further, other banks are not connected to the government and have to compete for customers and market share. Among the management team members of these banks, a few have been exposed to Western marketing concepts and consider market intelligence generation to be an essential element for orientation toward customers and competitors. They promote customer service training programs, suggestion boxes, and customers' complaints; encourage formal and informal contacts with certain customers; using local advertising and media to introduce their services; and so forth. Finally, the joint venture type of banks focus on customers' needs, wants, and satisfactions to be able to penetrate the financial market and catch up with other Jordanian banks. These banks involve market intelligence generation by conducting customer surveys, customer service training programs, advertising, and sponsorship of social activities.

Intelligence Dissemination

The second dimension of market intelligence dissemination includes two points:

1. Organization-wide dissemination (vertical and horizontal) of existing and anticipated information regarding the needs and preferences of present and potential customers, present and potential competitors, and other exogenous factors.

2. Effective use of disseminated information by encouraging the participation of virtually all departments and individuals in sharing information concerning present and potential customers' needs and preferences, competitors, and other exogenous factors.

Market intelligence effectiveness requires the participation of all departments in the organization. It is critical for a variety of departments and individuals to be aware of market needs and changes and be responsive to those needs and changes (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Effective dissemination of market intelligence is essential because it provides a shared basis for coordinated action by different departments. More specifically, sharing information not only increases its quality and value but also enables the organization to coordinate actions and improve its ability to make rapid decisions and execute them effectively (Slater and Narver 1995). In essence, intelligence dissemination is fundamental for well-functioning banking organizations. To become market oriented, banking organizations need to encourage the sharing of information in virtually all departments in the organization. Functional barriers to information flow have to be removed for both vertical and horizontal communication systems to be efficiently utilized (Daft and Steers 1985; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1988).

Given that the banking industry is a service-oriented organization composed of many branches, Kohli and Jowarski (1990) pointed out that a horizontal communication system is particularly effective in disseminating information. As market intelligence generation is enhanced when all departments and individuals are involved, intelligence dissemination enlarges its usefulness for all parties. Any department or any individual in the organization can initiate information sharing with others (McQuarrie and McIntyre 1992). A variety of formal and informal procedures have been recommended to disseminate information throughout the organization (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Formal mechanisms include teamwork, general meeting, focus groups, workshops, written documents, manuals, handbooks, newsletters, visual documents, internet, videos, movies, or combinations of these strategies (Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1990). Purposeful informal means of dissemination, such as "hall talk," "story telling," field visits, business luncheons, etc., are a good source of sharing information (Jaworski and Kohli 1990, Slater and Narver 1995).

In all organizations, including banking organizations, employees' and departments' involvement in information dissemination will increase the quality of information gathered and improve the organization's responsiveness to customers' needs, competitors' strategies, and the condition of other exogenous factors (Slater and Narver 1999). All in all, market intelligence generation and the sharing of information and response to its meaning are critical to the success of organizations, partnerships, and alliances (Webster 1988; Mohr and Nevin 1994).

Although some banks in Jordan have begun to generate market intelligence, dissemination of this intelligence is very limited. Research suggests that bureaucratic management and formal centralized organizational structures, as in Jordan, hinder the flow of communication, coordination, and connectedness (Slater and Narver 1995) and increase conflict and distrust (Jaworski and Kohli 1993, Daft 1998). Some banks managed by traditional managers are a typical example of such structure. In these banks, routine information flows through the formal channels while important information will be shared with a trusted few. Other banks managed by managers who have been trained in the West have begun to focus on task forces, committees, liaison officers, newsletters, and general meetings to facilitate information sharing to enhance their competitive position and their ability to respond to customers' needs and demands. Moreover, the joint venture banks managed by foreign managers believe that customer focus should be the job of all employees, not just marketing people. Consequently, they encourage information sharing to empower their employees to be capable marketers (Akel 2002).

Intelligence Responsiveness

The third activity of market orientation is intelligence responsiveness and includes the three following points:

1. Developing, designing, implementing, and adjusting products and services (tangibles and intangibles) in response to current and potential customers' needs and preferences.

2. Developing, designing, implementing, and adjusting systems to promote, distribute, and price products and services that respond to current and potential customers' needs and preferences.

3. Utilizing market segmentation, product/service differentiation, and other marketing tools in the development, design, implementation, and adjustment of products and services, and their corresponding systems of promotion, distribution, and pricing.

While the purpose of intelligence generation and dissemination activities is to develop market knowledge (Jaworski and Kohli 1993), the responsiveness dimension aims to use the market knowledge to guide strategy recognition, understanding, creation, selection, implementation, and modification in responding to market needs and changes (Hunt and Morgan 1995). While the developing of market knowledge would seem to be achieved through more effective formal and informal participation by all departments, utilizing such knowledge requires more formal actions based on product or services planning. Generally, market responsiveness in all organizations, including banking, requires intelligence development, implementation, and modification of products and services to understand and anticipate customers' needs and preferences and to initiate steps to respond to them (Kohli and Jaworski 1990).

Further, market responsive organizations are required to develop, design, implement, and modify plans corresponding to the remaining controllable variables in marketing, namely pricing, distribution, and promotion. When the service organization is a bank, the situation is somewhat unique because of the nature of the services (Kotler 1994; Booth et al. 2001). Likewise, promotional themes of banking organizations may be somewhat unique in that they often emphasize personalized services. They may, therefore, require more delicate, sophisticated appeals than are common in other promotions (Schwartz and Davis 1981; Narver, Slater, and Tietje 1998). However, to be effective, a bank's responsiveness has to be based on accurate market intelligence. Marketing strategies such as segmentation, product/service differentiation, and positioning are often utilized (Hansler 1986; Johnson 1986; O'Hare 1988; Kotler 1994). In the case of banking organizations in Jordan, segmentation, for example, would help categorize customers into various "segments" based on unique patterns of behavior, beliefs, size, and power. This segmentation, in turn, would help guide the establishment of appropriate product, pricing, promotion, and distribution strategies. In summation, individually and collectively, intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness determine the nature and extent of market orientation.

Based on the previous discussion and Hofstede's (1997) argument that differences between organizations are largely a function of managerial practice, then Jordanian banks' responsiveness to market changes will differ from one bank to another. Traditional managers are not tuned to marketing activities (Amine and Cavusgil 1985). Hence, their responsiveness to market intelligence is limited to the extent it will promote conformity and stability with other governmental institutions. On the other hand, some other managers who have been trained in Western institutions consider quality of products, services, and promotion to be their venue to market success. They focus on being closer to customers by opening more branches, sponsoring sports or social activities (e.g., loans without interest for marriage), greeting customers, using electronic banking, offering prizes and gifts for customers (e.g., life insurance for a first-born child), providing free checking on an account for certain month or interest-free accounts, and so forth. Finally, managers of joint venture banks, who usually are foreigners, use market intelligence and employee's participation to adjust the marketing offers to respond to current and expected customers' needs and wants, and competitors' strategies (Hofstede, et al. 2002). In summation, Jordanian banks differ in the extent to which they generate market intelligence, disseminate it, and take action based on that intelligence. And, as a result, it is expected that the degree of market orientation will differ between these banks.

Entrepreneurship Orientation

The term "entrepreneurship" has been traditionally identified with the personality trait that conveys the image of self-made, risk-taking, and creative individuals who seize opportunity and become successful (McClelland 1976; Cummings 1980). Another approach to entrepreneurship is the social trait focused on the impact of the socialization processes of certain categories of individuals to make a career as an entrepreneur (Matthews and Moser 1996; Bygrave and Minniti 2000).

In today's intensifying global competition, increasing interdependence, rapid technology development, unstable environments, and many other factors have highlighted the need for organizations to become more entrepreneurial in order to survive and prosper (Dess, Lumpkin, and McGee 1999). Many observers, both executives and academicians, believe that an organization's survival and success require continuous organizational renewal, innovation, and risk-taking, which in turn require the conceptualization and pursuit of new opportunities (Miller 1983; Day and

Wensley 1988; Hult and Ferrell 1997; Hurley and Hult 1998). Whereas personality traits and social traits approaches focus on individual entrepreneurs, the organizational traits approach focuses on identifying the entrepreneur's role and behavior in organizations to explain the organization entrepreneurship phenomenon. According to the organizational approach, entrepreneurs can recognize windows of opportunity, mobilize resources, organize systems, and implement strategies to exploit opportunities (Stevenson and Grousbeck 1992). In this sense, an organization's entrepreneurial role can be and often is performed by mobilizing the entire organization's capabilities, which exceed the abilities of any one key individual (Miller 1983; Lumpkin and Dess 1996a; Covin and Miles 1999). Accordingly, entrepreneurship becomes applicable and relevant to organizations of all types and sizes (Miller and Friesen 1982). The challenge in describing organizational entrepreneurship has become to determine those dimensions of individual entrepreneurship that translate to organizational entrepreneurship (Barrett and Weinstein 1998).

Although many dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation have been cited in the literature (Appendix B), there is no agreement among researchers as to the most acceptable definition or approach of entrepreneurial orientation (Stopford and Baden-Fuller 1994). While the debate continues over what constitutes an entrepreneurship (Brockhaus 1982; Miller and Friesen 1983; Covin and Slevin 1991), it seems there is a reasonable consensus among researchers on Covin and Slevin's (1991) explanation that entrepreneurial orientation is based on innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking propensity (Zahra 1983; Barrett and Weinstien 1998). In this manner, researchers have recognized that entrepreneurial orientation as an organizational capability involves innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking proactiveness (Miller 1983; Hult and Ketchen 2001). This view of entrepreneurial orientation will be applied in this study. More specifically, entrepreneurial oriented banks in Jordan will track and respond to changes in their environments through innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking. The bank's degree of entrepreneurial orientation will depend on the extent to which they innovate, act proactively, and take risks.

Terms such as "corporate entrepreneurship" (the sum of a company's innovation, renewal, and venturing efforts) (Zahra and Covin 1995; Dess, Lumpkin, and McGee 1999), "entrepreneurship" (what business shall the organization enter?) (Miles and Snow 1978), "entrepreneurial orientation" (the processes that managers use in determining how a new business is undertaken) (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b) have been widely used in entrepreneurship literature. It is the latter term, "entrepreneurial orientation," that this study adopts.

Entrepreneurial Orientation in the Banking Industry in Jordan

As shown in Figure 1 and indicated previously, the dimensions of entrepreneurial oriented organizations are (1) innovativeness in problem solving, especially when it comes to market-oriented applications of technology; (2) adoption by the organization of a proactive posture toward its environment, and (3) a willingness to accept risks as necessary antecedents for goal achievement (Zahra 1986; Zahra, Nielson, and Bogner 1999; Covin and Miles 1999). Researchers have demonstrated that these dimensions increase an organization's flexibility and adaptability to changing environmental conditions, which are key elements in the organization's performance (e.g., Covin and Slevin 1991; Zahra and Covin 1995; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b; Barrett and Weinstein 1998). It is the underlying assumption of this proposed study that innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking dimensions constitute the core entrepreneurial orientation in banking organizations as well. Similarly, another underlying assumption of this proposed research is that entrepreneurial orientation will improve Jordanian banks' performance.

Furthermore, research has generally supported the argument that entrepreneurial organizations perform well (Neman and Slevin 1993; Zahra and Covin 1995; Brown 1996; Junehed and Davidson 1998; Wiklund 1999). Nevertheless, evidence has also emerged to contradict the direct positive entrepreneurship-performance relationship (Sexton and Bowman-Upton 1991; Hart 1992). Research also suggests that entrepreneurial organizations perform well in dynamic environments (McDougall et al. 1994), and predicts that entrepreneurial organizations perform poorly in regulated or stable environments (Zammuto 1988). Thus, the positive entrepreneurship-performance linkage may not be monotonic across different environments or contexts. Although past research has investigated different environmental and contextual factors as moderators of the entrepreneurship performance relationship, none has looked at the potential contingency roles of national culture and country institutional profiles on the performance effect of entrepreneurship. Because organizations at this time of globalization increasingly confront different national cultures and country institutional profiles, two dominant environmental and contextual factors in diverse international markets, the time is ripe to investigate their moderating roles on the entrepreneurship-performance relationship.

Because of the extensive body of research on entrepreneurial orientation (e.g., Miller 1983; Miller and Friesen 1983; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b; Covin and Miles 1999; Zahra, Jenning, and Kuratko 1999), an abbreviated discussion of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, namely, innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking will be presented with reference to how they will be related to the banking industry in Jordan.

Entrepreneurial Orientation Dimensions

As diverse definitions of these three dimensions exist, this study will adopt the definition used most frequently in the marketing literature.

Innovativeness

The first dimension, innovativeness, refers to the development and introduction of novel goods, services, or technology and new markets (Quinn 1986; Phillips 1993). In this manner, innovativeness entails three distinct points:

1. Regularly and continuously engaging in and supporting new ideas, experimentation, and creative processes that may result in new products, services, technological processes, or new markets to create new value or enhance current value for customers.

2. Acquiring, developing, and deploying the latest technologies and production methods in the development and advancement of manufacturing processes.

3. Being willing to depart from an existing process, technology, system, technique, or endeavor beyond the current state of the art.

Innovativeness is the essence of entrepreneurial orientation, as much as customer focus is the essence of market orientation (Stevenson and Grousbeck 1992).

Although research distinguishes between technological innovativeness (the technical side of product and services development) and product-market innovativeness (the market managerial side of the 4Ps), in the broadest sense, innovativeness is a multi-purpose strategy that can be used to expand market and market share, protect the market, and so forth (Stevenson and Grousbeck 1992; Kotler 1994) through developing solutions either for new or already existing market needs ahead of competitors (Quinn 1992). Innovativeness takes several forms, from a simple experiment with a new advertising method to employment of the latest technological strategies (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). All in all, innovativeness is a multifaceted policy which involves the introduction of a new product, process, technology, system, technique, resources, or capability to the organization, or the institutution's willingness and readiness of all organizational levels to accept, support, and adopts innovations (Covin and Miles 1999; Zahra, Nielson, and Bogner 1999).

Innovativeness requires organizational culture, structure, and systems to be supportive of innovation and flexible enough to alter the internal processes, structures, and systems to enhance learning or adopt changes (Covin and Miles 1999). Innovativeness flourishes in a supportive culture that promotes and influences innovativeness efforts within the organization in many ways (McGrath 1999). For example, introduction of new products and services, technology, or market requires organizations to commit enough financial and human resources to attract and motivate professionals to carry out research and development projects and the necessary processes to reach and satisfy their market and customers (Miller and Friesen 1986). Organizational culture and policies that encourage cooperation, individual achievement, exchange of information, and so forth are also needed to enhance innovativeness. For organizations to be innovative, they have to put in place a human resource policy and reward system to attract scientists and professionals, and create working environments that embrace success while not personalizing failure (Hage 1980). Organizations' mission statements have to emphasize market leadership and competitiveness for trying new methods and technology and for being innovative (Zahra, Nielsen, and Bogner 1999). To be truly innovative, such organizations have to increase their level of expenditure and resources committed to innovation (Karagozoglu and Brown 1988), include large numbers of professionals and specialists in their labor force and support technical training programs (Hage 1980), and have more new products and services introduced into the markets (Covin and Slevin 1989). Furthermore, such organizations also have to encourage research and development by capitalizing on latent or under-exploited opportunities to create value for the customers, maintain their leadership in the marketplace, and stay ahead of competitors (Zahra and Covin 1993; Covin and Miles 1999).

Further, organizations, including banks that strive to strengthen their competitiveness, have to be willing to apply the latest technological methods and processes in their operations. A technology policy of acquiring, developing, and redeploying technology is required to strengthen an organization's competitiveness and build its reputation as the first to introduce new technology and methods (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). The use of advanced technology not only speeds product and service introduction to the marketplace but also strengthens an organization's competitiveness by hindering or deterring other competitors' willingness to introduce a new product or technology, penetrate the market, or attract customers by blocking the move or making it costly (Kotler 1994). Also, related to the technology policy is the adoption of lifecycle management techniques to review and analyze older products' and services' contribution to the organizations' growth, profit, and competitiveness to keep renewing the image of the organization and its products.

Just as organizations' policies influence innovation, exogenous factors also influence innovation policies for acquiring, developing, or deploying technology. For example, governmental policies' flexibility or rigidity to protect intellectual property rights protection, regulation and international trade, taxation, maintenance of law and order, availability of slack resources, grants, loans, and other methods of support can influence which option an organization can take to be an innovator or imitator (Baum et al. 2001). Organizations looking to be entrepreneurially oriented have to employ formal and informal methods of influence to overcome governmental and other exogenous barriers to innovation and push innovation support policies by capitalizing on organizational entrepreneurs and top management executives' connection with governmental, non-governmental, labor union, and similar institutions (Zahra 1986). Where the industry is homogenous, as in the case of the banking industry, a breakthrough with any combination of products, services, processes, or techniques can increase banks' distinctive capability and negatively impact the other members' competitive advantages, reputation, image, and status (Zahra and Covin 1993). Thus, innovativeness requires the flexibility of adopting the new processes across functional lines so the organization can emulate successful moves before competition gets too far, and anticipating and evaluating how the improvements will be received by the customers (Day 1990).

Literature suggests that innovation flourishes in an individualistic culture. Because Jordanian management culture relates to a collectivist society and focuses more on the group, it may be limiting the implementation of effective entrepreneurial orientation in Jordanian banks (Hofstede 1997). Jordanian managements' approach to innovativeness is uneven, disruptive, conflicting, short-term, and it usually ignores the importance of involving employees in innovation processes (Zulkafly 2000). Further, in most cases, gaining a management position is based on nepotism and a willingness to maintain the status quo, rather than on a willingness to make fundamental changes. Employees believe they will be rewarded for conforming to the rules, not for being innovative (Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000). As differences between organizations are largely a function of managerial acts as perceived by the organization members (Hofstede 1980), differences in demographic variables among banks' top management are expected to show differences in the banks' entrepreneurial innovativeness. Although the issue of innovativeness has not yet been examined in Jordan, the expectation of this study is that a variation will be found among Jordanian banks. In Jordan, some banks managed by traditional managers exactly fit the Hofstede typology of Arab culture in which employees will be rewarded for loyalty and conformity with the norms, not for innovativeness (Shane 1995). Likewise, other banks managed by managers educated and trained in Western business schools encourage the practice of innovativeness. In addition, other managers (usually foreigners) in the joint venture banks promote the application of innovation as it practiced in their headquarters (Lee, Lee, and Pennings 2001).

Proactiveness

The second dimension, proactiveness, is characterized by actively seeking unusual or novel ways to bring an entrepreneurial concept to fruition and achieving organizational objectives (Mintzberg 1979). Proactiveness entails five distinct points (Covin and Slevin 1989; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b):

1. Emphasizing the importance of entrepreneurial managers to provide the vision and imagination necessary to engage in opportunistic expansion.
2. Emphasizing the importance of first-mover strategy for capitalizing on market opportunities.
3. Establishing brand recognition by exploiting asymmetries in the marketplace.
4. Taking initiative by anticipating and pursuing new opportunities and participating in emerging markets.
5. Developing an aggressive competition orientation and the ability to identify and seize opportunities ahead of competitors.

Many researchers consider proactiveness the underlying assumption of the concept of entrepreneurship, and new entry is the essential act of the concept (Zahra and Covin 1995; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). Proactive organizations are action oriented, particularly in the market arena (Barrett and Weinstein 1998). In essence, a proactive organization is a leader, not a follower, because it has a forward-looking perspective to seize new opportunities, even if it is not always the first mover (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). Thus, an organization's proactiveness necessitates entrepreneurial and managerial skills and self-efficacy to be translated to opportunity recognition skills and the ability to seize those opportunities faster than competitors do (Chandler 1996). Such organizations, including banks, regularly and consciously have to be engaged in exploring and anticipating trends, events, and changes in the marketplace that provide opportunities for expansion by introducing new products, services, brands, technology, or procedures (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). Further, to develop proactive behavior, organizations have to be continually pursuing processes, products, and people alteration to create and enhance the customers' value, rather than just challenging its competitors in the marketplace (Covin, Slevin, and Covin 1990).

To be truly entrepreneurially oriented, organizations, including banks, have to be proactive in anticipating changes in environmental factors and take initiatives to shape the environment to their advantage (Miller and Friesen 1983). Factors in the organizations' environments include governmental policies, socioeconomic conditions, political stability, competition, technology, and cultural trends at both national and international levels and have to be consciously mentored and analyzed. Although all these factors collectively and independently may have direct or indirect effects on the organizations in general, it is imperative for the banking industry because of the inherently international nature of its business to be proactive in anticipating changes and trends to capitalize on opportunities and establish strategies to protect its operations.

Despite the rapid developments in information technology, uncertainty is increasing, and information is becoming a source of competitiveness (Hunt and Morgan 1995). Again, top executive skills, prestige, and vision are in high demand for organizations that want to be proactive (Chandler 1996). Top executives' formal and informal connections and mutual interests with governmental and non-governmental institutions, alliances, joint ventures, and the like are helpful for organizations' proactiveness to changes in their environments (Doh 2000).

Proactiveness involves initiative and responsiveness to both the environment and competition. Proactive organizations have to give special attention to competitors because of their direct and indirect role in the organizations' faith (Casson 1990; Lucas and Ferrell 2000). Some research equates proactiveness with competitive aggressiveness (Covin and Slevin 1989). In this sense, proactiveness requires organizations to establish benchmark competitors and aggressively challenge their competitors to achieve new entry, improve positions, or overcome barriers (Drew 1995). To respond proactively to competition, organizations have to be ready to adopt unconventional tactics, analyze their competitors' weaknesses and strengths and focus on high value-added products while carefully monitoring discretionary expenses, or cutting prices and sacrificing profit (Venkatraman 1989; Covin, Slevin, and Covin 1990). Further, proactiveness focuses organizations' attention in order to recognize the importance of timing and how the timing issue could contribute to success by aggressively introducing products and services to a market or speeding the product-development cycle time ahead of competitors (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). In their passion to maintain a leadership position, organizations may strive to be the first in offering new products and services (Porter 1985).

Because Jordan is classified as a high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and collective society (Hofstede 1997), individuals will be less proactive in anticipating opportunities. This effect would occur because communication will flow according to the social hierarchy and through formal channels of communication that provide fewer opportunities for creative activities. Individuals normally feel that rewards are associated with abiding by rules and regulations, not for being risk-takers (O'Cass 2001). However, the increasing exposure of Jordanian managers to the entrepreneurship concept through business interactions, education, and practices shows the importance of proactiveness to seize opportunities and challenge competitors (Singratt 2002). Thus, Jordanian banks vary in the degree of their response to opportunities and competition in their environments. Banks managed by traditional Jordanian managers are not much inclined to proactiveness. Their main focus is on internal constituents and environment, rather than on external constituents and environment. Banks managers who have been exposed to Western styles of management and marketing show more proactiveness and aggressiveness in responding to competitors and opportunities in the financial market environment (Cooper 2000). Finally, managers of joint venture banks (usually foreigners) are involved in predicting and anticipating changes in the market, and they do behave proactively.

Risk-Taking

Risk-taking means the propensity to devote resources to projects that entail a substantial possibility of failure, along with chance of high returns (Limpkin and Dess 1996b). It involves

1. Analyzing opportunities/threats to identify risk factors towards pursuing a perceived opportunity.

2. Scanning organization strengths and weaknesses to make reasonable decisions.

3. Systematically reviewing risk-taking decisions to ease or mitigate objective risks when faced with environmental uncertainties.

While the proactiveness dimension of entrepreneurial orientation concerns in capitalizing on market opportunities and innovation represents means by which organizations pursue new opportunities, the risk-taking dimension focuses on the behavioral needed to exploit the opportunities. Although most research on risk-taking centers on the individual's risk-taking behavior, organization activities entail different risks and potential risks according to dynamic changes in the business environments (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b; Dess, Lumpkin, and McGee 1999). All organizations, including banks, assume strategic risk when they are venturing into the unknown, committing a relatively large portion of assets or borrowing heavily (Baird and Thomas 1985). Such risk conveys a sense of uncertainty and generally may include other types of risk such as personal risk, social, or psychological risk (Gupta and Govindarajan 1984; Hamel and Prahalad 1994). In this sense, risk-taking is related to an individual or organizational willingness to trade off between committing resources for the chance of desirable outcomes (Shane 1994; Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). For example, the individual entrepreneur may seek self-employment rather than work for someone else for wages by committing resources for the chance of higher returns, and with this type of work comes the idea of assuming personal risk (Shane 1994). Thus, risk-taking necessitates organizations, including banks, to analyze and evaluate risk-taking in light of the risk problem to be faced, how the risk problem is framed, the results of past risk-taking, employees' risk propensity, and their self-efficacy to perform under risky conditions (Brockhaus 1980; Gunther 1999).

Organizations, including banks, looking forward to be entrepreneurially oriented have to understand that individuals as well as organizations differ in their propensity to, perception of, and preference for risk-taking (Sitkin and Pablo 1992). In addition, in today's high-velocity business environment, market data are often either unavailable or obsolete, strategic windows open and shut quickly, and the cost of error is individual or organization failure (Daft 1998). Hence, entrepreneurs prefer moderate, achievable, reachable, and measurable goals associated with more moderately calculated risk-taking (Morris and Trotter 1990; Barrett and Weinstein 1998). Different decision-making approaches have been suggested to guide managers so that they may avoid unsystematic and arbitrary organizational decisions (Simon 1997). Those approaches suggest that, for organizations to develop effective, calculated risk-taking behavior, not gambling-like behavior, they have to track information in real time to develop a deep intuitive grasp of the business, build multiple alternatives, enhance participation to enrich the decision process with information, and integrate the more successful choice into the overall strategic direction of the organization (Eisenhardt 1989; Daft 1998). Furthermore, risk-taking needs a supportive culture and reward systems where success will be rewarded while failure will not be penalized (McGrath 1999).

Further, risk-taking obliges organizations, including banks, to stay tuned to changes not only in their internal environment but also to monitor, anticipate, and analyze how exogenous factors (e.g., governmental regulations, policies, technology, competition, and social and economic conditions) could impact risk-taking abilities either positively or negatively (Lumpkin and Dess 1996b). Risk-taking requires integrating and sharing knowledge through formal and informal sources to encourage risk-taking behavior (Zahra, Nielson, and Bogner 1999). Further, risk-taking requires knowledge about managerial attitude, employees, and management willingness to take risks and their tolerance for failure should it occur (Hornsby, Kuratko, and Montagno 1999). Risk-taking entails organizations to consider the timing issue. For instance, Lumpkin and Dess (1996b) supported first movers, but Nelson (1993) favored imitators over the first mover in the long run.

Risk-taking calls on senior executives to employ their skills and connections to minimize current or potential risk by monitoring, analyzing, and weighing the advantages and disadvantages of strategies to reduce risks such as joint venture, alliances, and interorganizational cooperation (Doh 2000). In a highly regulated industry such as banking, information about the market and regulatory environment is critical to overall strategic decisions about how to deploy and redeploy resources to overcome industry and competition barriers for slack resources (Thwaites 1992). For example, partnership with local organizations connected with regulatory organizations or possessing relationships with incumbent government monopolies will help organizations navigate the barriers and competition (Madhok 1997). Research suggests that alliances and collaborating with government and non-governmental stakeholders might ease risks for organizations operating in an economy transitioning from a government-controlled economy to a free-market economy as is the case in Jordan (Simone and Feraru 1997; Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000).

In general, Jordanian managers are risk-aversive. Risk-taking is not encouraged because of its association with failure, and failure is shameful and hard to recover from (Hofstede 1997). Individuals have no incentive to be creative. Rewards will be distributed either equally or based on conformity and loyalty, not for creativity. Thus, a traditional, typical Jordanian manger will avoid risk by maintaining a small, controllable, and manageable organization (Bakhtari 1995). Some other managers who have been trained in the Western business environment have begun to show more propensities to take risk in order to pursue opportunities or expand. They support teamwork, employee participation, market surveys, segmentation, and alliance building with local or international banks. Likewise, managers of joint ventures (usually foreigners) are pursuing risk-taking behavior in the Jordanian financial market as a strategy to expand and to attract customers (Segalla 2002).

Antecedents to Market and Entrepreneurial Orientations in Banks in Jordan

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) identify three categories of antecedents for market orientation: top management, interdepartmental dynamics, and organizational systems. It assumed that these antecedents might support or hinder the level of market orientation in a given organization. The antecedents have been used in many studies in different organizational settings, and the findings show that the three antecedents do have an impact on the degree of variation of market orientation between organizations (Houston 1986; Narver and Slater 1990; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Slater and Narver 1995; Bhuian 1998; Wood 1998; Baker and Sinkula 1999; Dawes 2000; Bhuian and Habib 2001). This study aims to specify and examine effects of the three antecedents of Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) model not only on market orientation but also on entrepreneurial orientation as shown in Figures 2 and 3. These effects of antecedents will be explained in the following sections.

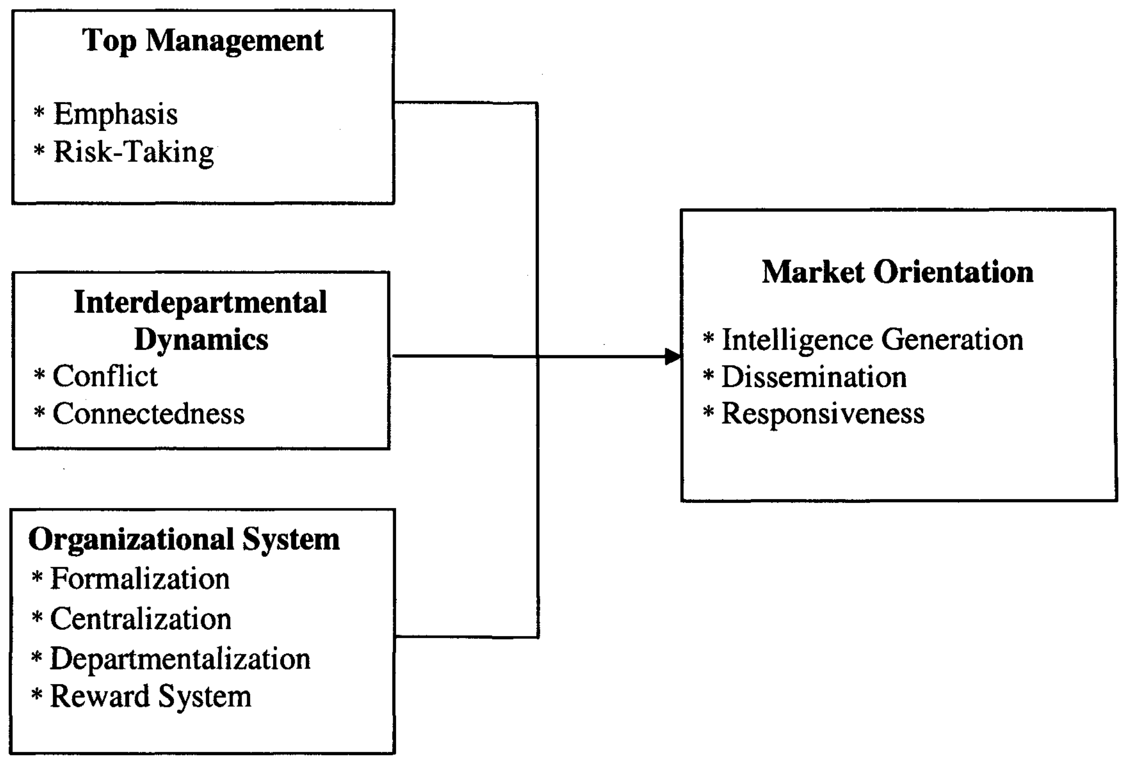

FIGURE 2. Antecedents to Market Orientation

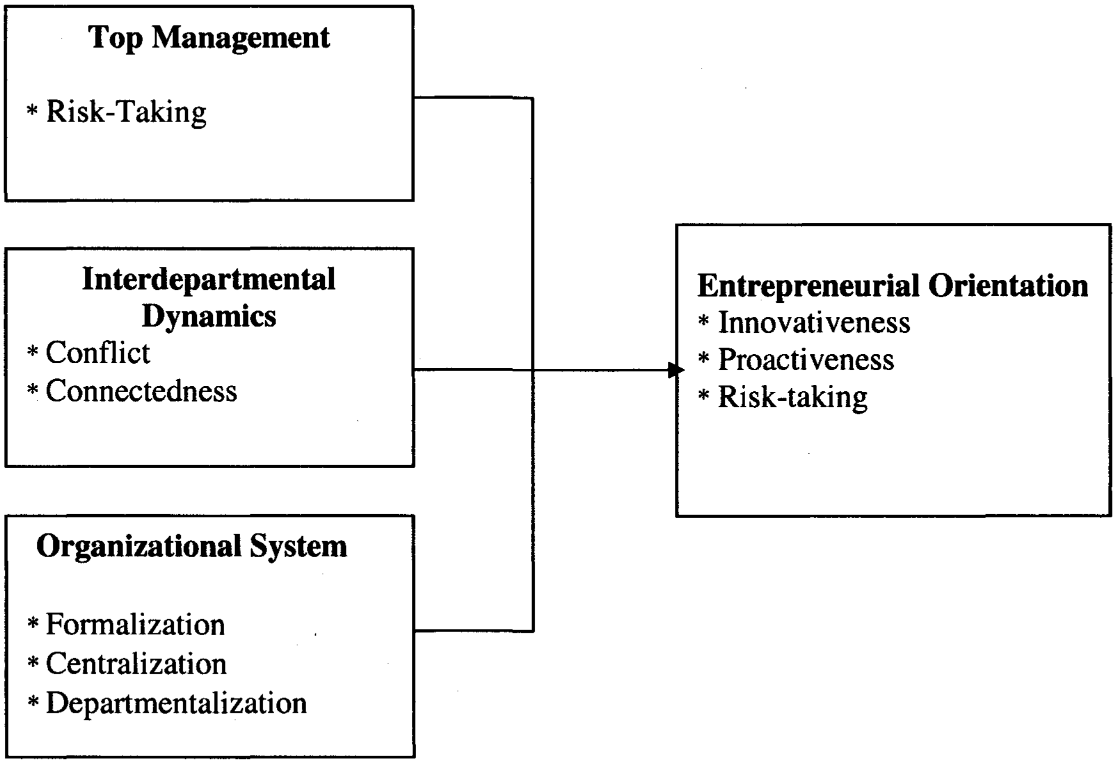

FIGURE 3. Antecedents to Entrepreneurial Orientation

Top Management: Emphasis and Risk Aversion

Following Jaworski and Kohli (1993), this study focuses on top management roles in promoting market and entrepreneurial orientations.

Top Management Emphasis

Many studies recognize the critical role that top management plays in molding organizational values orientations (e.g., Felton 1959; Levitt 1969; Webster 1988; Kohli and Jaworski 1993; Slater and Narver 1994a, 1995; Harris 1999). The central theme of these studies is that top management's belief, understanding, and commitment to market orientation are required to give the organization the signal about the importance of being responsive to market changes as the development of market orientation starts with leadership from the top management (Slater and Narver 1995).

Top management should explain the advantages of market orientation to their subordinates through speeches, company publications, policy statements, and especially personal actions. Moreover, Slater and Narver (1994b) pointed out that top management seeking to initiate market orientation has to play a facilitative role through the communication of certain guidelines and encouragement of contributions from employees. Top management's continuous emphasis of market orientation is likely to encourage employees to generate, disseminate, and respond to market intelligence (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). An observation of top management behavior in Jordanian organizations, including banking, demonstrates the impacts of the business environment in shaping managerial style (Simon 1997). In a supply economy, like Jordan, managers are occupied by production and finance availability more than in marketing. For this reason, it is more likely to see more engineers and accountants in key positions in most organizations than other professionals. By virtue of their training, such managers focus on production and finance, not on marketing. Further, most banks managers come from the elite group or political appointees (Hagen and Dwairi 1992). Those managers focus more on enforcing their political career and maintaining the status quo and distribution of power. But marketing is not among their priorities (Brand 2001).

Furthermore, Jordanian culture is a mixture of Arab and Islamic traditions, both of which recognize status hierarchy. It is also a high power distance culture (Hofstede 1997). In this culture, Jordanian managers make decisions autocratically and paternalistically. Subordinates, who have a strong dependence need, expect and accept superiors to act autocratically (Begley and Boyd 1987). Traditionally, Jordanian managers, like their counterparts in other Arab countries, place less emphasis on proactiveness, futurity, and analysis, the essential elements of marketing philosophy (Bhuian 1998). Typical Jordanian managers depend on their connections, power, and loyalty to facilitate banks' business. Such managers maintain the distribution of power by hiring their relatives or other personally trusted individuals in key positions and emphasizing conformity to attract customers and rally employees (Hagen and Dwairi 1992).

However, there are banks managers who have been exposed to the marketing concept through education and training in Western schools and have begun to embrace market orientation. They encourage market research and customer surveys, maintain regular contact with certain customers and public official emphasize the importance of sharing information, train employees to use information technology, and adapt an open-door policy to encourage employee participation and feedback (Black 2002). Likewise, managers of joint venture banks (usually foreigners) are committed to and engage market orientation activities. Thus, this study poses the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: In Jordan, the greater the top management's emphasis on market orientation, the greater the market orientation of banks.

Top Management Risk Aversion

Risk aversion refers to top management's propensity to take risks, or be risk-averse and intolerant of failure. Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993) argue that the symbolism viewed in senior management's willingness to take risks would encourage and facilitate organization-wide commitment to innovations and responsiveness. Top management's willingness to take risks and to accept occasional failure will motivate other managers to propose and introduce new products in response to changes in customer needs. On the other hand, a risk-aversion approach adopted by senior managers will permeate the organization and inhibit the process of market intelligence generation, dissemination, and response to changes in the market place.

Likewise, top management risk aversion, or willingness to take risks plays a critical role in fostering or inhibiting entrepreneurial orientation. Risk-taking is one of the main dimensions of entrepreneurship. Jaworski and Kohli (1993) assert that responsiveness strategies for market changes often require one or a combination of (1) introduction of new products and services, (2) introduction of new methods of production, (3) operation in new markets, (4) new sources of raw material, and /or (5) a new organization of any industry. Any of these strategies runs a high risk of failure that may jeopardize the organization's market position (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Employees' trust of management is central to the development of an entrepreneurship culture because trust enables individuals to take risk without fear of penalty for failure (Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000). Thus, top management's encouragement of risk-taking facilitates coordination and enhances interaction among employees encouraging them to be involved in market intelligence and idea generation, sharing, and use in responding to market challenges and opportunities (Jaworski and Kohli 1993).

As indicated in another part of this study and based on Hofstede's (1997) cultural typology, willingness to take risks is associated with individualistic societies, whereas individuals in a collectivist society, such as Jordan, are high uncertainty avoiders and risk aversive. Typical or traditional Jordanian managers are less likely to take risks because of uncertainty and potential of failure. Failure is shameful (Hofstede 1997). These managers establish their brand names and prestige in other careers rather than banking and have no incentive to take risks or tolerate employees' creativity to promote market orientation or entrepreneurial orientation. On the contrary, Jordanian managers with education and training in Western institutions and organizations show more propensities to engage in risky actions such as the introduction of new products, new technology, new methods and procedures of production, marketing, or modification of marketing offerings. Such actions are often essential to promote the market as well as entrepreneurial orientations. Managers of joint venture banks are risk-takers by the nature of their training as shown in their willingness to venture into new markets and cultures (Baum, et al. 2001). Based upon the previous discussions, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 2: In Jordan, the greater the risk aversion of top management, the lesser the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 3: In Jordan, the greater risk aversion of top management, the lesser the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

Interdepartmental Dynamics Conflict and Connectedness

The second set of antecedents expected to have an impact on both market and entrepreneurial orientations pertains to interdepartmental dynamics. According to Kohli and Jaworski (1990), interdepartmental dynamics refer to the formal and informal interactions and relationships among an organization's departments. Daft (1998) asserts that organizational contexts such as environments, structure, size, technology, and goal achievement collectively and independently create the need for departmentalization leading to more or less interdepartmental dynamics (conflict and connectedness). The two concepts will be explained in the following sections.

Interdepartmental Dynamics Conflict

Interdepartmental conflict refers to the tension among departments arising from the incompatibility of actual or desired responses (Daft 1998). Sources of interdepartmental conflict include, but are not limited to, goal incompatibility, differentiation, task interdependence, resource scarcity, power distribution, uncertainty, international context, and reward systems (Middlemist and Hitt 1998). Interdepartmental conflict could occur among or within departments as a result of group or departmental identification, observable differences, and frustration (Schein 1990). Although marketing scholars emphasize the importance of coordinated marketing (e.g., Narver and Slater 1990; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Kotler 1994) potential conflict between the marketing department and other departments in the organization is very high (Kotler 1994). Such conflict may result in reducing interfunctional coordination, trust, and hindering market and entrepreneurial orientations (Levitt 1969; Lusch and Laczniak 1987; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Fundamentally, departmental boundaries and interdepartmental conflict are likely to cause communication breakdown, obstruct the flow of information, and ultimately hamper the degree of market orientation activities, market intelligence generation, information sharing, and the design of an organizational response (Ruekert and Walker 1987; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Hence, Jaworski and Kohli referred to interdepartmental conflict as being dysfunctional as it acts as an inhibitor to market orientation.

Likewise, interdepartmental conflict will have a similar negative impact on entrepreneurial orientation through its effects of reducing levels of trust, coordination, interaction, and communication between individuals and departments. The uncertainty and complexity inherent in entrepreneurship activities, mainly innovation, require systems of coordination, interaction, and trust to build an entrepreneurship-supportive culture that enables individuals to be proactive, willing to take risks, and innovative (Granovetter 1978; Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000). For instance, market intelligence generation will help entrepreneurial innovativeness by pointing out the gaps between market needs and actual offering. At the same time, information sharing and use will enhance an entrepreneur's proactiveness in responding to challenges and uncertainty, which ultimately will reduce the level of risk and failure (Slater and Narver 1995). Thus, interdepartmental conflict will negatively impact entrepreneurial orientation by discouraging coordination and interaction and by enhancing distrust among, within, and between departments.

Cultural characteristics and other factors in the Jordanian management environment have differential influences on the level of interdepartmental conflict in a Jordanian bank. Traditionally, Jordanian managers are not confrontational, and they do not tolerate conflict. They resort to authoritarian measures when conflict begins. High power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism enforce this system. High power distance enforces Jordanians' tendency to keep distant from the center of power and authority and to resort to informal means of "face-saving" to handle their conflicts (Hofstede 1997). Because labor laws are not effective, managers are supposed to be the final authority in solving conflict, and in the case of serious conflicts they apply the written rules and regulations. However, it is noteworthy to mention that the informal mechanism of conflict resolution that originated from family or tribal connections plays a significant role in managerial decisions (Baker and Abou-Ismail 1993). Jordanians are high uncertainty avoiders when it comes to social relationships. The third characteristic — collectivism coupled with the tight labor market — encourages nepotism and favoritism in hiring, promotion, and so forth. With the lack of effective policies, nepotism and favoritism flame interdepartmental conflict by creating jealousy, grouping, and exchange of favors and loyalty (Hofstede 1997). All in all, these factors contribute to increasing interdepartmental conflict by discouraging trust, communication, coordination, and interactions, which are necessary elements for a bank to be market and entrepreneurial oriented.

Based on the previous discussion, different levels of interdepartmental conflict can be found in Jordanian banks. Some banks' managers are typical of the traditional Jordanian manager while other managers, including those in joint ventures, who have been educated in the West, demonstrate a positive attitude and openness toward disagreement and conflict. Evidently, they use formal mechanisms for conflict resolution and to enhance communication, trust, cooperation, and coordination. Therefore, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 4: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental conflict, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 5: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental conflict, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

Interdepartmental Dynamics
Connectedness

Connectedness refers to the degree of formal and informal direct contacts among employees across departments (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). The perception of organizations, including banking, is composed of different, but interdependent, departments and functions, together with the availability of conflict resolution mechanisms such as interdepartmental communication openness and goal interdependency, within which committees and project teams are expected to improve interdepartmental connectedness (Middlemist and Hitt 1998). These methods have been credited for lowering fences between departments and enforcing the idea that personal, departmental, and organizational objectives cannot be achieved through the independent resources and efforts of the separate departments (Schein 1996). Further, Deshpande and Zaltman (1987) assert that interdepartmental connectedness enables an adequate amount of market intelligence to be generated and also permits its appropriate use. Furthermore, Jaworski and Kohli (1993) postulate that interdepartmental connectedness fosters interdependency within the organization and encourages employees to act in a concerted manner in the processes of information generation and utilization.

Likewise, interdepartmental connectedness has a positive impact on entrepreneurial orientation by promoting communication, coordination, interaction, and networking. Fukuyama (1995) argues that interdepartmental connectedness would help middle managers to develop a social network that encourages bold decisions in responding to customers' needs. Similarly, Lukas and Ferrell (2000) see interfunctional orientation or interdepartmental connectedness as increasing the organizational capability to be proactive to changing market conditions and to respond to market requirements through innovation. All in all, interdepartmental connectedness promotes innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Damanpour 1991; Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000; Khan 2001).

Formal interdepartmental connectedness in Jordan's banking industry is expected to be strong because of the small size of the departments or the branches and the centralization approach of management that enforces` cooperation. Communication, coordination, and integration are normally proposed and implemented by senior managers. Furthermore, Jordanian management is more bureaucratic than participative; thus, while informal personal relationships are common among top management, such informal connectedness, communication, social gathering, and the like are not encouraged at lower levels (Walsh and Dawar 1987).

As previously mentioned, different degrees of interdepartmental connectedness may be found among banks in Jordan. Interconnectedness in banks associated with the government is more formal than informal. Information gathering, sharing, and utilization have to go through formal channels of communication. However, informal personal communication is common among senior managers. On the other hand, other banks including joint-venture banks use the same methods but open the door for more employee participation and feedback. In Jordan, interconnectedness is geared more toward day-to-day operation than looking forward to implement market orientation or promote entrepreneurship in the banks (Martin, Martin, and Grbac 1998). However, it is helpful for improving social relationships and networking that might facilitate market and entrepreneurial orientations activities (Floyd and Woolridge 1999). Based on this reasoning, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 6: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental connectedness, the greater the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 7: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental connectedness, the greater the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

Organizational Systems: Formalization, Centralization, Departmentalization, and Reward Systems

Formalization refers to the degree to which written documentations define rules, procedures, authority relations, communications, norms, and sanctions which prescribe rights and duties of employees (Walsh and Dawar 1987). Centralization refers to the level of hierarchy and the amount of delegation of decision-making authority throughout an organization and the extent of participation by organizational members in the decision-making processes (Hage and Aiken 1967; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). In centralized organizations, decisions tend to be made at the top, while in decentralized organizations similar decisions are made at a lower level. Departmentalization refers to the number of departments into which organizational activities are segregated and compartmentalized (Jaworski and Kohli 1993).

Formalization and centralization are the two variables commonly used to differentiate between organic and mechanical structures. Whereas formalization and centralization are characteristic of mechanical structure, less formalization (informal) and decentralization are characteristics of organic structure (Daft 1998). Management and marketing literatures are in consensus in relating an organization's abilities to successfully respond to its environments with organic versus mechanical structure (Damanpour 1991; Daft 1998; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Narver and Slater 1995). Organizations, including banking, rely on these organizational structures and systems to achieve standardization and control across employees and departments, using information to maintain or alter patterns in organizational activities and behavior (Mintzberg 1979; Simon 1997). However, organizational structure has to fit its needs; otherwise, when organization structure is out of alignment with organization needs, one or more of the following symptoms of structural deficiency appear: the creation of bureaucracy, heightened levels of uncertainty, interdepartmental conflict and competition, hindered communication flows, slower decision-making processes, and a less innovative response to a changing environment (Daft 1998). Moreover, Jaworski and Kohli (1993) postulate that formalization, centralization, and departmentalization have been found to be negative correlates with market orientation activities. In a formal centralized context, work-related behaviors are largely controlled by restrictive rules and procedures, creating barriers to communication flows, leaving little room for individual freedom and limiting the number of participants in the decision-making processes. These conditions lower employees' and mangers' commitments and incentives to participate in effective market formalization, centralization, and departmentalization as the main features of the banking organizations' structure. Such structure discourages the exchange of information and ideas and hinders the generation, dissemination, and utilization of market intelligence (Covin and Slevin 1991: Slater and Narver 1995).

The call to restructure organizations to enhance their strategic capabilities shows that the traditional organizational structure model can no longer cope with environmental changes and be adaptive to market orientation (Capon and Glazer 1987). Some Jordanian managers became aware of the shortages of the traditional organizational structure model through their exposure to Western business thinking during education, training, or business deals. Thus, different degrees of formalization and centralization may be found among Jordanian banks. For example, banks associated with governmental plans are still formalized and centralized. Indications show that these banks' managers consider the formalization and centralization of decision-making processes behind their operation to offer stability and conformity with the governmental structure. Stability and availability of slack resources, not marketing, are the main concern. Thus, information generation, dissemination, and utilization flow through formal channels for the few top management executives and government representatives. On the other hand, banks managed by individuals who have been exposed to Western business thinking and experiences have begun to move toward a less formal, decentralized structure to be able to respond to market changes and customers' needs and wants. Such banks encourage the exchange of information and ideas between the bank branches through formal and informal means, delegating more authority to branch managers and attempting to lower boundaries between business branches and departments (Zulkafly 2000). Finally, the structures of joint-venture banks resemble the main headquarter structure in leaning more toward informality and decentralization. Therefore, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 8: In Jordan, the greater the formalization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 9: In Jordan, the greater the centralization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 10: In Jordan, the greater the departmentalization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

With regard to the impact of organizational structure on entrepreneurship dimensions (innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking) the literature associates a greater level of entrepreneurship with "organic" versus "mechanical" structures (Damanpour 1991; Covin and Slevin 1989, Daft 1998). Entrepreneurial orientation flourishes in the high flexibility, decentralization, low formalization, and low complexity inherent in the organic organization structure (Khanwalla 1977; Russell 1999). The positive associations between decentralization and entrepreneurship dimensions have been explained in terms of increased control of and freedom to use resources, which enable managers to be more innovative and take risks to try more innovative ideas (Kanter 1989). Furthermore, decentralization enhances participation in decisions regarding entrepreneurial activities that is likely to increase participants' commitment to innovation and its implementation (Drucker 1985). On the other hand, informal structure tends to put low emphasis on work rules and formal procedures, facilitating easy exchange of information, ideas, and resources across organizational boundaries to ensure effective communication, coordination, and integration of efforts at the organization-wide level that are requirements to promote entrepreneurial orientation.

Based on the above discussion, the literature suggests that an entrepreneurial orientation requires low structural formalization, decentralization, low complexity, and more flexibility (Covin and Slevin 1991). Because Jordanian banking organizational structures are formal and centralized, it is expected that banks' entrepreneurial orientation is limited (Hofstede 1997). However, the Jordanian open-door economic policy and its relative stability are changing the business orientation in the country. Further, the increasing interactions between Jordanian managers and world business environments have forced Jordanian managers to re-evaluate their organizational structural model in order to be entrepreneurially oriented organizations. Thus, the expectation of this study is that a variation in the degrees of formalization and centralization will be found between Jordanian banks. In Jordan, there are banks associated with the government and managed by political appointee managers that show no interest in low formalization and decentralization as a path to entrepreneurial orientations (Bakhtari 1995). Banks managed, on the other hand, by managers exposed to Western business thinking have started to encourage delegation of authority and the decentralization of decision-making. Such banks' managers feel that, for them to have an entrepreneurially oriented bank, rules and regulations have to relax, and barriers to communication and exchange of information have to be lowered. Other banks operating in Jordan are the joint-venture type. These banks are newcomers to the country and have fewer obligations and connections to the country's elite, enabling them to have more freedom in applying the organic structures. Such a structure is more suitable for entrepreneurial activities (Russell 1999). Based on the above discussion, it is expected that the degree of Jordanian banks of entrepreneurial orientation will be hampered by the formalization, centralization, and departmentalization of their structures. Thus, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 11: In Jordan, the greater the formalization, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 12: In Jordan, the greater the centralization, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 13: In Jordan, the greater the departmentalization, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

The last antecedent that is expected to influence Jordanian banks' market and entrepreneurial orientations is the reward system. The literature suggests that reward systems that provide reward and recognition to creative work and performance accomplishment are instrumental in shaping managers and employees' behavior and orientation (Lawler 1971; Dyer, Schwab, and Theriault 1976; Milkovich and Boudreau 1991; Amabile et al. 1996). Webster (1988) suggests that the key to developing a market-driven, customer-oriented organization depends on how employees and mangers are evaluated and rewarded. For example, Morrison (1996) points out that, while pay-for-performance may encourage in-role behavior, it might also discourage behaviors not linked to specific rewards. Similarly, Jaworski and Kohli (1993) argue that if employees and their managers are to be evaluated and rewarded on the basis of short-term profitability and sale, it is more likely that they will focus on short-term activities, while paying little attention to market factors such as customers' satisfaction, relationship, and value creation, and other market factors that influence the organizations' growth and survival in the long-term. Profit sharing and stock options have been widely used to enhance productivity and provide a sense of ownership for managers as well employees (Oliver and Anderson 1995). Further research shows that a market-driven reward system lessens role conflict and job ambiguity and ultimately encourages market orientation activities (Singow, Brown, and Widing 1994). Moreover, Jaworski and Kohli (1993) assert that organizations that assess employees' work performance and rewards based on customer satisfaction and services levels are more likely to enhance market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market needs. Traditionally, the reward system in Jordanian banks has lower direct links to customers' satisfaction or even performance. It is based on uniformity with the wage standard in the banking industry based on the governmental policy of wages and the labor market (Judeh 2001). Furthermore, based on Arab traditions and Islamic teachings, Jordanian managers, like other Arab managers, are oriented toward group welfare prosperity, rather than toward individuals as in Western organizations (Baker and Abou-Ismail 1993; Bhuian 1997). Cultural values and governmental regulations do not even encourage assessment of individual employees' performance; on the contrary, they encourage equality in rewarding employees (Judeh 2001). Some banks may have a system of performance assessment, but they adhere to assessing the overall performance of the bank and equally rewarding their employees. However, the level of competition in the banking industry is increasing, as is the belief of a new generation of managers in the importance of the reward system for promoting market activities and better performance. These banks start to base their reward system on market factors such as number of new accounts, number of customers, level of customer satisfactions, and so forth. To date, bank employees' perceptions are typically still that they are rewarded mainly for their conformity with the rules or their loyalty, not for their creativity. Thus, the following hypothesis is posed.

Hypothesis 14: In Jordan, the greater the reliance on market-based factors for evaluating and rewarding, the greater the degree of market orientation of banks.

Consequences of Market Orientation and Entrepreneurial Orientation of Banks in Jordan

This section will delineate the concept of organizational performance and specify the association between market and entrepreneurial orientations (see Figures 1, 4, and 5).

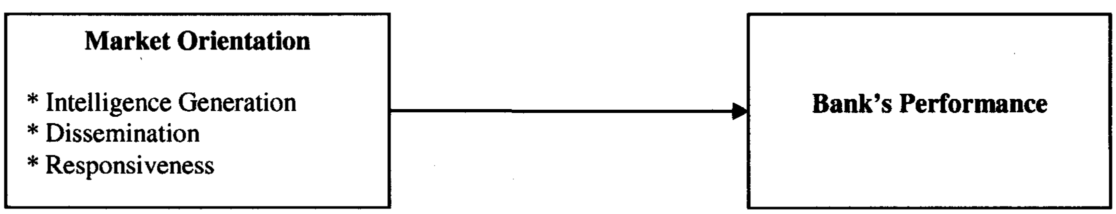

FIGURE 4. Consequences of Market Orientation

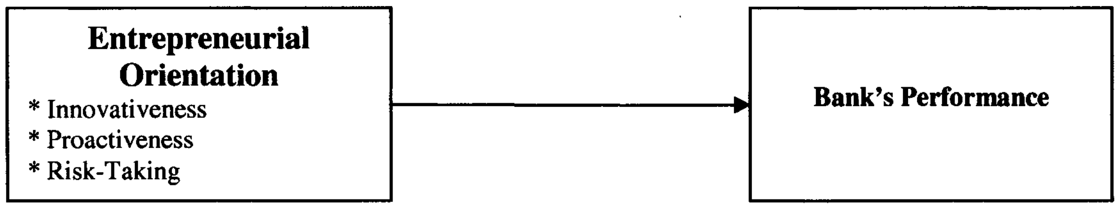

FIGURE 5. Consequences of Entrepreneurial Orientation

Market Orientation-Performance Relationship

The theoretical basis for the expected relationship between marketing concept and organizational performance was elucidated early on by McKitternick (1957) and Keith (1960). They highlight that, in a competitive environment, organizations must understand and respond to customers' needs and wants by offering equal or better products or services than their competitors; otherwise, they face the risk of performing unsatisfactorily in the marketplace. They stress that the marketing concept is the key for gaining customer loyalty, ultimately creating competitive advantages for the organization and building the foundation for company success. Although little empirical research was conducted at that time explaining the link between the marketing concept and organization performance, several scholars (Keith 1960; Peter and Waterman 1982; Rogers 1993) cite positive relationships between the marketing concept and an organization's performance.

In the last two decades, a significant portion of market orientation research has focused on its performance implications (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater

1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Many empirical studies have found a strong positive relationship between MO and performance (Pulendran, Speed, and Widing 2000). For instance, Dawes (2000) cites 36 studies on the relationships between market orientation and performance (Appendix C). The majority of the studies show that market orientation is, in general, positively related to several business performance measures. Further, the majority of the studies have used both judgmental and objective measures of performance.

However, subjective measures have been credited for the following: (1) a selected multi-item subjective measure of overall business performance is more accurate than a single quantitative factor (Gupta and Govindarajan 1984); (2) a subjective measure may increase the response rate in case objective data either are not available or organizations are not willing to reveal this information (Dess and Robinson 1984); (3) a subjective measure may enhance the research population to include small organizations that may lack financial or objective data; (4) a subjective approach may overcome the inaccuracy problem or validations of objective data where organizations have a tendency to exaggerate or minimize according to evaluators' and performers' interests; and (5) there is empirical support that a chief executive's as well as top management's perceptions are appropriate reflections of an organization's overall performance or effectiveness (Chaganti, Chaganti, and Mahajan 1989; Jaworski and Kohli 1993).

Today, no study has examined the market orientation-performance relationship in Jordan. The pioneering empirical work on market orientation-performance in the Middle East is Bhuian's (1998) study in Saudi Arabia. Bhuian (1998) used subjective measures and found a positive relationship between the degree of market orientation and Saudi organizations' performance. The significance of Bhuian's (1998) study for this research is encouraging because of the relative similarities in culture and business environment between Saudi Arabia and Jordan. Both countries belong to the same culture and have similar political and economic systems (Hofstede 1980). Based upon this reasoning, this study will use subjective measures to evaluate banks' performance in Jordan. Kirchhoff (1977) asserted that indicators of overall business performance would be useful incorporating the organizations' goals, objectives, aspiration levels, as well as other elements of broader stakeholder satisfaction.

Although no study yet has examined the degree of market orientation in Jordanian organizations, including banks, also no study has examined the relationship between market orientation and organizational performance in that country. However, studies conducted in a developing country's context (Bhuian 1997; 1998) suggest that the adoption process of market orientation in developing countries, including Jordan, is at its initial stage.

The previous discussion reveals that some banks remain indifferent or not aware of the true concept of market orientation. Some banks are carefully adopting the concept while others have implemented the marketing concept; hence, banks' performance differs. The *Banks in Jordan Magazine* (2001; 2002) reports a variation in banks' performance: some banks show a negative performance, others report a marginal performance, and some banks report a high performance. The study expects that the banks' performance reports are a reflection of their degree of market orientation. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 15: In Jordan, the greater the degree of banks' market orientation, the higher the business performance of banks.

Entrepreneurial Orientation Performance Relationship

Theoretical, and to a lesser degree empirical, research suggests that there are positive relationships between entrepreneurial orientation and organizational performance (Peter and Waterman 1982; Drucker 1985; Covin and Slevin 1986). However, some studies have proposed that, while theoretical research supports entrepreneurial orientation-performance linkages, systematic empirical evidence is lacking (Covin and Slevin 1991; Zahra and Dess 2001). Despite the different views among researchers, they seem to agree that an organization's level of entrepreneurial orientation will improve its performance, competitive advantages, and, ultimately, its profitability (Peter and Waterman 1982, Covin and Slevin 1991; Neman and Slevin 1993; Zahra and Covin 1995; Covin and Miles 1999; Wiklund 1999). The entrepreneurial literature related to developing countries is scarce, and the entrepreneur's role in these countries has largely been neglected (Lazer and Hardin 1994). Although no study yet has examined the degree of entrepreneurial orientation in Jordanian organizations including banks, likewise, no study has assessed the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and organizational performance in that country.

A study conducted by Bhuian and Habib (2001) shows a positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance. Based on their findings, Bhuian and Habib (2001) argue that the adoption process of entrepreneurial orientation in developing countries including Jordan is at its initial stage. However, as the previous discussion shows, some banks in Jordan have begun to implement the entrepreneurial orientation. Others are carefully adopting the concept, and others remain doubtful or are not even considering the concept. The *Banks in Jordan Magazine* (2001; 2002) reports a variation in banks' performance: some banks report a high performance compared with last year's, others show a marginal performance, and others report a negative performance. Banks that perform well are those implementing the entrepreneurship concept, while those banks reporting marginal performance are the banks not yet adopting the concept, and banks not considering the entrepreneurship report a negative performance. Therefore, this study expects a positive correlation between banks' entrepreneurial orientation and their performance in Jordan. Thus, the following hypothesis is advanced:

Hypothesis 16: In Jordan, the greater the degree of banks' entrepreneurial orientation, the higher the business performance of banks.

The Moderating Roles of National Culture and Country Institutional Profiles

Figures 1 and 6 show that national culture and country institutional profiles moderate the influence of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation on performance. Several studies have examined the role of mediating and moderating factors related to the performance consequences of market and entrepreneurial orientations in Western environmental and cultural business settings. As stated earlier, the mediating variables investigated for their roles on market orientation-performance relationships include innovation (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Kim, and

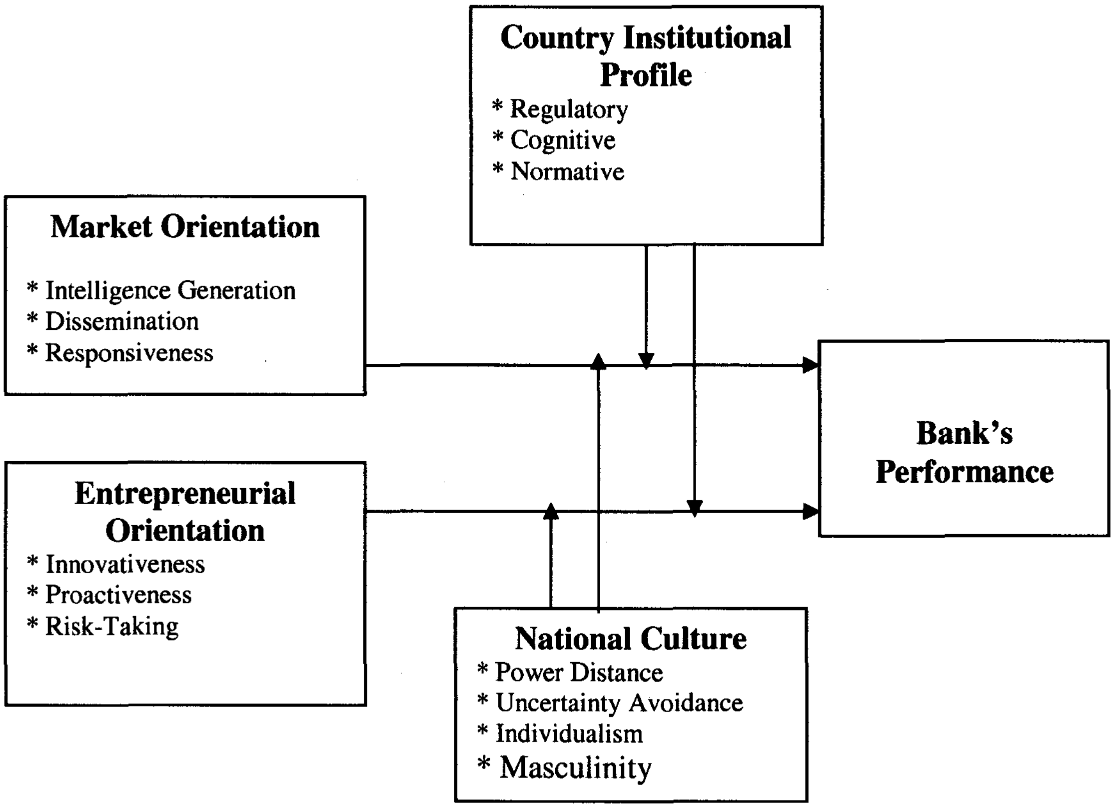

FIGURE 6. Moderating Effects of National Culture and Country Institutional Profile on Market Orientation-Performance and Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance

Srivastava 1998; Lucas and Ferrell 2000), learning organization (Farrell 2000), and entrepreneurship (Barrett and Weinstein 1998; Atuahene-Gima and Ko 2001).

The moderating factors include company type (Slater and Narver 1994b), environmental factors (Kohli and Jaworski 1993; Diamantopoulos and Hart 1993; Slater and Narver 1994b; Greenley 1995; Subramanian and Gopalakrishna 2001), and strategy type (Matsuno and Mentzer 2000). On the other hand, dynamic environments were found to have positive impact on entrepreneurial-performance relationships (McDougall et al. 1994), while stable environments were found to have a weak impact on the relationship between an organization's entrepreneurship and its performance (Zammuto 1988). No relationship was found between the two constructs in a regulated markets environment (Snow and Herbiniak 1980).

Surprisingly, several of the anomalies in the linear relationship between market orientation and performance are from international contexts, such as Australia (Farrell 200), Hong Kong (Au and Tse 1995), Japan (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993), New Zealand (Au and Tse 1995), Saudi Arabia (Bhuian 1997; Bhuian and Habib 2001), Thailand (Grewal and Tansuhaj 2001), and the United Kingdom (Greenley 1995) that represent a myriad of national cultures and country institutional profiles.

Thus, in today's extraordinarily competitive and unstable environment, organizations' success, including that of banks, requires purposeful adaptation and accommodation to their national culture and country institutional profiles, two environmental and contextual factors. To what extent these factors can moderate the relationships between the two orientations and performance in a non-Western setting has yet to be examined. This study will examine the moderating role of national culture and country institutional profiles on market and entrepreneurial orientations' effects on banks' performance in non-Western business environment. The following sections will highlight the moderating roles of the two moderating factors on market and entrepreneurial orientations' effects on banks' performance in Jordan.

The Moderating Role of National Culture

National culture describes the common values and conventions from which stem the patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting in a society (e.g., Wallace 1970;

Cushman and King 1985; Jusdanis 1995). Dawar and Parker (1994) identify four approaches that have been used in the marketing literature to identify and measure cultures. These approaches include nationality, ethno-geographic trade areas, national characteristic, and Hofstede's study of cultures. The most widely cited operational definition and measures of national culture are from Hofstede (1980, 1984) who identifies four dimensions — power distance, uncertain avoidance, individualism, and masculinity — of national culture that can be used to describe all cultures. Because of the widespread familiarity of Hofstede's measure of national culture (Sodergaard 1994), particularly among marketing and management scholars (Money 1996; Nakata and Sivakumar 2001), only an abbreviated discussion of the individual dimensions will be presented. The four dimensions follow:

1. *Power distance* is the extent to which less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power be distributed unequally (Hofstede 1997). Societies high in power distance accept power and wealth differences more readily than societies low in power distance, which value equality of classes and people.

2. *Uncertainty avoidance* centers on how societies deal with unknown aspects of the future and the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Hofstede 1980). Societies high in this dimension are anxious over the future and actively avoid risk by devising various means of control include religion, laws, social plans, and written and unwritten rules. In contrast, societies that feel secure about their future have low uncertainty avoidance.

3. *Individualism* refers to the relationship between the individual and the collectivity that prevails in a given society. Societies high in individualism have loose ties, and everyone is expected to look after his/her own personal interests. Low individualism or collectivist societies have close ties among members, hold group values and beliefs, and seek collective interests (Hofstede 1980).

4. *Masculinity* refers to the degree to which a society is characterized by assertiveness (masculinity) versus nurturance (femininity). More masculine societies place greater achievement, tasks, performance, and purposefulness, whereas feminine societies emphasize people relationships, the quality of life, helping others, and not drawing attention to oneself (Hofstede 1980).

Bond et al. (1987) identify a fifth factor called *Confucianism*, which Hofstede and Bond (1988) later call "long-term orientation." Although these factors are universal, they are found at different levels across nations. The following sections will explain Hofstede's national cultural dimensions.

As firms increasingly reach over national borders and are challenged in effectively performing across a complex of national cultures (Hofstede 1983; 1984; Clark 1990; Appiah-Adu 1998; Nakata and Sivakumar 2001), the phenomenon of national culture has become an important topic for marketing researchers and practitioners. Researchers have associated national culture with a host of organizational and managerial behaviors, including management practice (Wheelen and Hunger 1992; Amason 1996), coalition building (Money 1996; Marino et al. 2002), location/investment decision (Amabile at al. 1996), new product development and quality (Nakata and Sivakumar 1996; Chang and Chen 1998; Nakata and

Sivakumar 2001), performance of global branding strategies (Appiah-Adu 1998), corporate ethics (Daft 1998), ethical sensitivity toward various stakeholders (Anusorn et al. 1999; Blodgett et al. 2001), mode of entry (Brouthers and Brouthers 20001), strategy type (Matsuno and Mentzer 2000), international buyer-seller relationship and capital structure (Chui, Lloyd, and Kwok 2002).

Only recently have scholars started to associate the relationship of national culture with two key organizational orientations, market and entrepreneurial, which are recognized as two key success factors in the increasingly competitive global economy (Narver and Slater 1990; Barrett and Weinstein 1998; Baker and Sinkula 1999; Atuahene-Gima and Ko 2001; Pothukuchi et al. 2002). For instance, Nakata and Sivakumar (2001) theorize national culture as a correlate of the marketing concept. With respect to entrepreneurship, researchers claim that its extent varies cross-nationally (Rondinelli and Kasarda 1992). Despite the interest, research pertaining to market and entrepreneurial orientations has remained almost universally non-contingent of national cultures (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). This is an important omission because the fields of international management and marketing, and industrial-organizational psychology agree that universal, cross-national cultures, management-marketing solutions, including market orientation and entrepreneurship, do not exist (Hofstede 1993; Newman and Nollen 1996). Essentially, scholars have a limited understanding about why market and entrepreneurially oriented firms are more successful in one country than in another (Shane 1992).

This study will specify national culture as a contingent variable for the performance effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations of organizations. The theoretical insight for this contention is rooted in the managerial practice-culture congruity, or fit paradigm (e.g., Hofstede 1991; Neman and Slevin 1993; Newman and Nollen 1996; Hayton, George, Zahra 2002), which suggests that managerial practices such as market orientation and entrepreneurship should be aligned with national cultural demands to promote desired organizational outcomes. In other words, cultural differences may enhance or diminish the impact of managerial practices such as market orientation and entrepreneurship, as they bear on organizational outcomes (Hofstede 1991; Robinson, et al. 1991; Armstrong and Sweeny 1994; Rajeep and Tansuhaj 2001). Here, the contingency mechanism arises from the concept of value congruence. That is, the practice-culture fit is evaluated based on the degree to which national cultures and managerial practices, market orientation and entrepreneurship, are similar on underlying dimensions.

In the following, the study will specify Hofstede's (1980) national culture taxonomy (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity) as potential moderators of the performance effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations in the banking industry in Jordan. Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions will be used in this study because of their conceptual merit, empirical support, tractability, acceptance among scholars, and relevance to business studies (Randall 1993; Dawar and Parker 1994; Bhuian and Habib 2001; Nakata and Sivakumar 2001).

National Culture Dimensions in the Banking Industry in Jordan

According to Hofstede's (1980; 1997) typology, the Arab countries, which Jordan belongs to, were classified as having high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, low individualism, and high masculinity (Table 2.1). However, this study postulates that perceptions of national culture (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity) would differ among Jordanian banks' top management personnel.

TABLE 2.1. HOFSTEDE'S (1980) CULTURAL TYPOLOGY OF THE ARAB COUNTRIES' VALUES INCLUDING JORDAN

Cultural Values	Rank	Score	Level
Power Distance Index (PDI)	7	80	High
Individualism (IND)	26/27	38	Low
Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	27	68	High
Masculinity (MAX)	23	53	High

An observation of the Jordanian top management cultural values can shed some light on the differences and similarities between banks with respect to power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. The Jordanian culture is a mixture of Arab traditions and Islamic teachings that have a long history of interaction with Western cultures (Black 2001). This blend of traditional and modern values in congruence or conflict shapes the individual's behaviors from the home to the office. Specifically, in their tribal association, Jordanians learn to work with groups and teams which are considered a source of support and leadership, and an opportunity to share good and bad. Islamic teachings emphasize balancing personality, humility, ethical and moral behaviors, honesty, and equality in work as well as at all business deals. Western values focus on achievement, competition, aggressiveness, and individualism, and they appeal to professional and managers trained in the West. Thus, Jordanian managers as well as customers will be told by tradition what they "can do" and "cannot do," and Islamic teachings dictate what they are "allowed to do" or "not allowed to do," while Western cultures open the door "to be what you want to be" (Venton 2000). Consequently, the degree of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation depends to a certain degree on the managers', employees', and customers' core values (Eisenhardt 1989; Sudin et al. 1994; Black 2001).

With regard to power distance, both Arab traditions and Islamic teachings encourage high power distance by cooperation and with respect for authority and acceptance of social hierarchical status. Arabs value informal means and a consultative approach over formal participation in decision-making processes. However, Arab traditions and Islamic teachings differ in their approach to the uncertainty avoidance cultural dimension. Arab traditions lean toward stability, strict control, and discomfort with the unknown. On the contrary, Islamic teachings are futuristic in nature and encourage openness, innovativeness, and proactiveness (Mohessin 2001).

In general, traditional Arab elements are more influential in Arab managers' behavior, including Jordanians, than Islamic teachings (Laroche and Boulby 2000). Individualism is not praised by either Arab traditions or Islamic teachings. In fact, collectivism is a core value in Arab traditions and Islamic teachings, a value shown to be essential for both implementations of market and entrepreneurial orientations. Finally, high masculinity values are enforced by both Arab traditions and Islamic teachings, which do not fit market and entrepreneurial orientations. Such a culture seems not supportive of either market orientation or entrepreneurship (Boulby and Laroche 2000).

Further, Arab traditions and Islamic teachings differ in their view of entrepreneurship. While Arab traditions do not place entrepreneurs among the social high status ranks, Islamic teachings encourage entrepreneurship principles of innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking. For instance, Islamic teachings encourage investment of money and forbid hoarding of wealth in cash, silver, and gold (Mohessin 2001). Furthermore, it considers success or failure as blessings from God and lessons to be learned, while failure in Arab traditions is shameful (Hofstede 1997). Furthermore, Western values are another force in Jordan that encourage banks to adopt market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation in order to enhance their competitive advantage and performance (Segalla 2002).

In such a culture, banks' decision-makers have to consider the value of their core customers or competitors in order to create value for their customers and build market- oriented culture (Walters, Halliday, and Glaser 2002). For example, faith-oriented customers are not supposed to enter into business deals that endure interest, as is the case with conventional banks. Islamic teachings also embrace cooperation, obedience to authority, honesty, and teamwork. Jordanian customers' needs are known and simple, but their potential needs seem to be increasing and changing in term of quality and variety. Jordanian customers are hard to gain, but once gained, they are more likely not to switch to competition. Jordanian customers value personal relationships, caring, and respect as much as the quality of the products and services. They consider business deals as social rather than just materialistic relationships. They feel obligated to bring more customers to the business in order to strengthen such relationships (O'Reilly 1989; Laroche and Boulby 2000).

In light of these cultural values, Jordanian managers have to operate in a culture in which only lower individualism (collectivism) fits with market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation. While being higher in power distance, higher uncertainty avoidance, and higher masculinity, the Jordanian culture is not ideal for promotion of either of the two orientations (Chatman and Barsade 1995). Thus, Jordanian managers vary in their styles of management according to the variations in their core values, education, training, and experiences. The most noticeable styles of management among Jordanian managers include cooperative, rational, and autocratic-authoritarian. While they appeal to the group norms, they adhere to rules and procedures, and they emphasize monitoring strategies (Hagen and Dwairi 1992). Some top management personnel of Jordanian banks will conform to high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, low individualism, and low masculinity, while others will exhibit lower power distance, lower uncertainty avoidance, lower individualism, and higher masculinity that will reflect on the banks' degrees of market and entrepreneurial orientations. This relationship is the subject of the following sections (see Figures 1, 7, and 8).

Power Distance and Market Orientation-Performance Relationship

Hofstede (1997) asserts that power distance is frequently reflected in the concentration of authority and resources. In high power distance cultures, organizations' structures are often more formal and centralized, with defined and tall hierarchies. In low power distance cultures, organizations' structures tend to be informal, decentralized, and organic (Hofstede 1980). The literature suggests that the values entrenched in low power distance cultures echo the underlying principles of market orientation (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). Explicitly, the principles of decentralization, organic-structure, participative decision-making, and empowerment of employees that characterize a low power distance culture are also essential for becoming market oriented (Money 1996). Scholars argue that lower power distance organizations put customers in the driver seat to take charge, be in control, give orders, and know what is right for them (Narver and Slater 1990; Ruekert 1992). Also, achieving market orientation requires distributing the responsibility of marketing activities across specialists and non-specialists throughout the organization (Webster 1981; Wind 1996; Workman, Homburg, and Gruner 1998; Moorman and Rust 1999). Further, Kohli and Jaworski (1990) argue that both formal and informal means should be deployed for generating market intelligence. Likewise for intelligence dissemination; scholars have emphasized flexible structures and lateral communications (Kotler 1994; Slater and Narver 1994b). Literature has also stressed that all organizational members should be involved in responding to market intelligence (Witcher 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Lu, et al. 1994). Overall, the underlying qualities of market orientation appear to match well with those of low power distance culture and not with high power distance cultures that concentrate authority and decision-making in the upper echelons and among specialists (Hofstede 1980). Accordingly, applying the principles of the practice-culture paradigm, it is more likely that a low power distance culture will amplify the positive effect of market orientation on firm performance, while a high power distance culture will weaken the relationship.

As mentioned earlier, the perception of power distance can also vary among Jordanian ranks. Substantial variations in the level of market orientation in Jordanian banks are likely because of the divergent orientations of managers (traditional managers, Western-trained managers, and foreign managers in joint venture and foreign banks). Jordanian culture is characterized as a higher power distance culture based on formal, hierarchal, and centralized authority and relationships (Hofstede 1997), resulting in building boundaries between departments, individuals, and the power holders and profiling people according to rank, function, and social status. A traditional manager's behavior resembles such cultural perspectives (Chatman and Barsade 1995).

However, other banks in which top management personnel are trained in the West have begun to depart from such restrictive, inflexible structures in order to lower barriers to the exchange of information and ideas (Thomas and Mueller 2000). They encourage delegation of authority to the branch managers, formal as well informal communication and training programs toward orienting employees to customer needs and satisfaction, and maintenance of a long-term commitment and trust relationship with customers (Judeh 2001). Finally, managers of joint ventures, usually foreigners, are more prone to promote lower power distance and behavior (Makino and Neupert 2000). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 17: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower power distance than banks that have higher power distance.

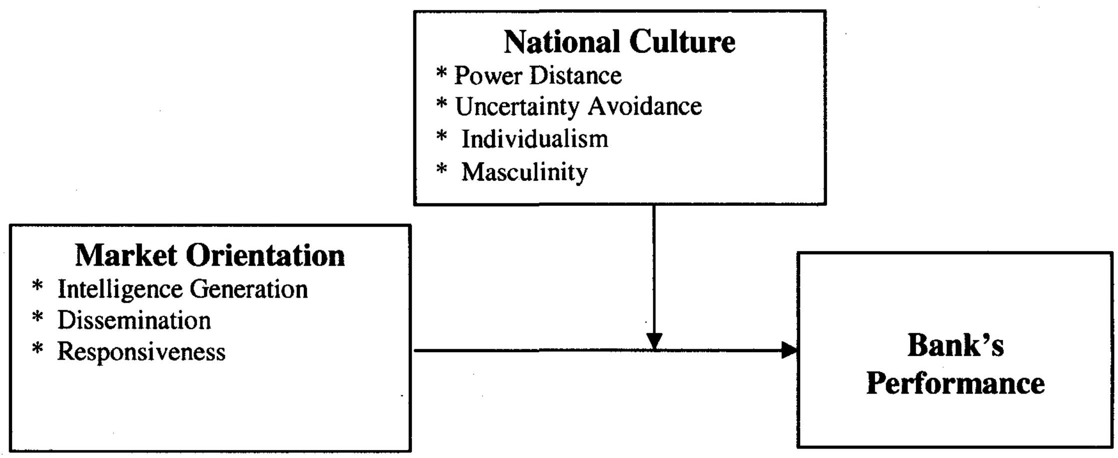

FIGURE 7. Moderating Effects of National Culture on Market Orientation-Performance

Power Distance and Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance Relationship

As mentioned earlier, the fundamentals of entrepreneurship relate to innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking, all of which closely coincide with the basics of lower power distance cultures, such as decentralization, flexibility, participation, and empowerment (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). In contrast, a higher power distance culture that is hierarchical and mechanistic does not seem to fit well with innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking, the archetypes of entrepreneurship

(Mintzberg 1994; Morris, Davis, and Allen 1994). In this sense, a lower power distance culture is more likely to intensify the positive influence of entrepreneurship on organizational performance, whereas a higher power distance culture will perhaps have a deteriorating effect on the performance impact of entrepreneurship according to the practice-culture fit thesis.

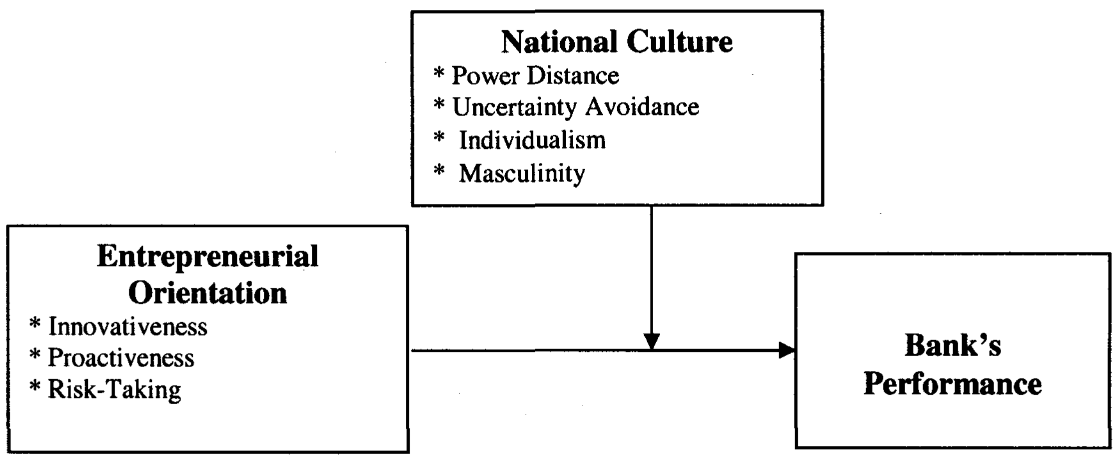

FIGURE 8. Moderating Effects of National Culture on Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance

Researchers have supported this contention. For instance, scholars have observed higher success rates of entrepreneurial activities, such as receptiveness to new ideas from any source (Burgelman 1985) and risk tolerance (Sykes and Block 1989) among organizations that also resist bureaucracy (Quinn 1992; Mintzberg 1979), essential features of lower power distance culture. Further, Kouriloff (2000) has asserted that certain entrepreneurial activities, such as new product development, are more successful within organizations that are more decentralized. And, Azumi and

Hull (1990) have observed higher yields of R&D activities, which are characteristically entrepreneurial, among more organic and non-hierarchical organizations, both of them traits of lower power distance cultures.

Variations in both entrepreneurial orientation and power distance are likely among Jordanian banks as discussed earlier. Entrepreneurial orientation requires flexibility, decentralization, and informal procedures, characteristics not common among some Jordanian managers. Jordanian management style leans more toward rigidity, formality, and centralization, characteristics associated with higher power distance values and which inhibit entrepreneurial dimensions. However, an observation of Jordanian managers' behaviors shows that some managers are less rigid, formal, or authoritarian than others, leading to variation as to their banks' adoption of entrepreneurship (Bakhtari 1995).

A typical Jordanian manager is not confrontational, thereby reducing his propensity to take risk, be aggressive, and be bold, all of which are required to introduce changes through innovations and methods (Steensma, Marino, and Weaver 2000). However, some other managers show more willingness to share responsibilities, are less rigid and less formal, and have been better oriented toward entrepreneurship (Bakhtari 1995). On the other hand, management style and structures of managers of joint venture banks are more prone to entrepreneurial orientation activities than these banks (Kogut and Singh 1988). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 18. In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower power distance than banks that have higher power distance.

Uncertainty Avoidance and Market Orientation-Performance Relationship

While higher uncertainty avoidance cultures embody stability, predictability, risk avoidance, resistance to change, strict control systems, and discomfort with the unknowns of the future (Hofstede 1980; Yoshida 1989), lower uncertainty avoidance cultures demonstrate risk-taking, tolerance to innovation and new ideas, willingness to change and adjust, ease with the unknown, and optimism about the future (Herbing and Miller 1991; Hofstede 1984; Shane 1992). The fundamental values of lower uncertainty avoidance cultures seem to align better with the essentials of market orientation (Houston 1986; Day 1990) than those of higher uncertainty avoidance cultures. In delineating the innate attributes of market orientation, Deshpande, et al. (1993) assert that the strength of market-oriented organizations lies in their willingness to change and adjust any aspect of the business in responding to the changes in market forces. Such readiness to change also implies taking risks and seeking new opportunities through innovation (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). These values of market orientation appear to resemble closely the essence of lower uncertainty avoidance cultures. Thus, applying the rationale of the practice-fit paradigm, one can argue that lower uncertainty avoidance is likely to enhance the effectiveness of market orientation on organization success, while higher uncertainty avoidance culture will possibly dampen the performance effect of market orientation.

Previously, the study postulates why Jordanian banks are likely to differ in the extent to which they are market oriented. Also, a great deal of variation is also likely in the perception of uncertainty avoidance among Jordanian banks. Traditional

Jordanian managers are likely to be uncertainty avoiders and risk-aversive (Shane 1995). They emphasize stability and conformity with rules and regulations based on bureaucratic, formal, and centralized structures to buffer their banks from changes in marketing environments. Exchange of information and ideas has to remain within the frame of the hierarchy of command and formal channels of communications, which inhibit information generation, sharing, and responses to market changes in light of this information (Sinkula and Hampton 1988; Bakhtari 1995).

Some other banks' managers exposed to Western education and training are prone to take risks and promote innovations to respond and adjust to changes in the market based on market intelligence (Makino and Neupert 2000). Finally, managers of joint venture banks (usually foreigners) indicate a preference for the network facilitator and transformational manager likely to use market intelligence often to predict and anticipate market changes and to be ready to adjust the market offerings in facing market changes (Shane 1995; Dennis 1996). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 19: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower uncertainty avoidance than banks that have higher uncertainty avoidance.

Uncertainty Avoidance and Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance Relationship

Based on the innate traits of both high and low uncertainty avoidance cultures, Hofstede (1984) asserts that innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking, the dimensions of entrepreneurs, seem to flourish better in lower uncertainty avoidance cultures. Conversely, by seeking stability and predictability through avoiding risk and change, higher uncertainty avoidance cultures appear not to fit with the spirit of entrepreneurship (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). At the organizational level, research indicates that the management strategy of entrepreneurship, emphasizing new technologies, drastic adjustments, and rapid improvements, may be seen as ineffectual in higher uncertainty avoidance cultures (Harper 1976; Yoshida 1989). On the other hand, Herbing and Miller (1991) argue that, in lower uncertainty avoidance cultures, radical innovations will be viewed as strong and effective. Generally, lower uncertainty avoidance cultures are likely to strengthen the influence of entrepreneurship on an organization's performance.

As mentioned earlier, the presence of traditional, Western-educated managers and foreign managers in joint venture and foreign banks has influenced Jordanian banks to exhibit different levels of entrepreneurial orientations. The same reasons are also likely to manifest in a wide variation in the extent to which Jordanian banks are uncertainty avoiders. Traditional Jordanian managers are likely to be uncertainty avoiders, risk-aversive, and resistant to change (Shane and Venkataraman 1996). Such managers prefer a rational style of management and may not promote entrepreneurial activities that they associate with failures. Some other managers who are trained in the West have begun to show more proactiveness to reduce potential failures and to use teamwork to encourage others around them to be risk-takers and creative employees (Mulhim 2001). Finally, managers of joint venture banks (who are usually foreigners) are more aggressive in risk-taking and proactiveness. Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 20: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower uncertainty avoidance than banks that have higher uncertainty avoidance.

Individualism and Market Orientation Performance Relationship

Individualism focuses on how people relate to others, as free agents (individually) or as a member of a group (collectively). The essential values of higher individualism cultures rest in their emphasis on autonomy, self-expression, independence, and performance-based rewarded achievement (Hofstede 1984; DeFrank et al. 1985; Kale and Barnes 1992; Pavett and Morris 1995). In contrast, in lower individualism (collectivist) cultures, the group is the dominant structure, thus, values such as conformity, coordination, harmony, and sacrifices are upheld (Beechler and Yang 1994; Holt, Ralston, and Terpstra 1994; Diener and Diener 1995). It seems that the ideals of market orientation incorporate better with lower individualism cultures than with higher individualism cultures. Research suggests that, to be truly market oriented, an organization has to understand and satisfy the relational requirements of customers through trust, caring, shared duty, and long-term mutual commitment (Chang and Holt 1996; Money 1996; Nakata and Sivakumar 2001), which are also essential in lower individualism cultures. Another characteristic of market orientation is interfunctional coordination (Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993), which is also valued in lower individualism (collectivist) cultures. Further, researchers advocate teamwork and partnerships traits that are valued by lower individualism cultures as a means to becoming market oriented (Cravens and Shipp 1991; Slater and Narver 1994b). Consequently, a practice-culture fit between market orientation and lower individualism cultures exists. Essentially, the effectiveness of market orientation is likely to be enhanced in lower individualism (collectivist) cultures than in higher individualism cultures.

As noted earlier, not only are variations in the levels of market orientation likely, but also perception of individualism is also likely to vary among Jordanian banks. Jordan is traditionally classified among the lower individualism cultures (Hofstede 1997). As such, Jordanian banks have the potential to be market oriented. In reality, Jordanian organizations are in the initial stage of embracing marketing functions as well as adapting the concept of market orientation. Jordanian culture is a lower individualism culture that values caring, harmony, conformity, and long-term commitment and fits the ideal of market orientation. However, banks' managers differ in their understanding and application of this value to promote market orientation. Traditional managers emphasize conformity, equality in rewards, coordination to promote stability, and control of the banks' operations, not marketing activities. They encourage information generation but for security purposes, not to promote market orientation (Zinkhan, et al. 1987; Maltz and Kohli 1996). Other banks' managers who have been educated in the West have begun to realize that customers' satisfaction and responsiveness to competition require employees' cooperation, commitment, and team-work that are important to support their efforts to be market-oriented banks (Makino and Neupert 2000). They encourage teamwork, employees' participation, and customer service training programs (Najar 2002). Managers of joint venture banks (who are usually foreigners) see the Jordanian value of lower individualism as an asset in building trust and better relations between employees to enhance market orientation activities (Shane 1994b: Black 2001). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 21:In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower individualism than banks that have higher individualism.

Individualism and Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance Relationship

Whereas dimensions of innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking embodied in entrepreneurship are thought to flourish in higher individualism cultures (Morris, Davis, and Allen 1994), they also appear to harmonize well with lower individualism (collectivist) cultures as described above (Gupta, Raj, and Wilemon 1985; Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000). In that sense, the values of entrepreneurship and lower individualism cultures are in congruence. Such a value-congruence is the basis of the practice-culture fit paradigm. In support of this view, researchers have claimed that the success rates of entrepreneurial activities such as innovation, risk-taking, and proactiveness are high among Japanese organizations that use project teams, marketing and R&D interfaces, quality circles, and new product development teams, all of which are characteristics of lower individualism (collectivist) cultures (Howard, Shudo, and Umeshima 1983; MacDowall 1984; Kennard 1991). Further, Subramanian (1990) asserts that success in innovating new products is higher in organizations that emphasize project teams and matrices than that in functional organizations, also a characteristic of higher individualism cultures. A similar view is echoed by other researchers who conceive that successful innovation of new products is more apparent in organizations that let marketing and R&D work in concert with a common vision or purpose (Gupta, Raj, and Wilemon 1985; Souder 1988, Hofstede, et al. 2002), a trait of lower individualism cultures.

In addition to variations in the levels of market orientations among Jordanian banks, this study projects substantial variations in the levels of entrepreneurial orientation among Jordanian banks as a result of differences in individualism among Jordanian banks' managers. While lower individualism (collectivist) cultures, as in the Jordanian culture, encourage entrepreneurial dimensions of innovativeness, risk-taking, and proactiveness, Lazer and Hardin (1994) have argued that the alliance between governments, a few wealthy elite, and the military discourages entrepreneurship. Jordanian banks may partially reflect to what extent banks managers exploit the lower individualism values and distance from or proximity to the above alliance to promote entrepreneurial orientations in their banks (Brand 2001, O'Cass 2001). For example, traditional managers relate the banks' performance to governmental policies rather than to innovativeness, risk-taking, and proactiveness (Dwaik 2001). Thus, participation, teamwork, and other integrative activities are directed toward conformity and stability, not toward entrepreneurship. On the contrary, other banks' managers who are educated in the West have begun to embrace teamwork, participation, cooperation etc., as ways to facilitate research and development, innovative products, and risk-taking elements of entrepreneurship. Furthermore, managers of joint ventures (who are usually foreigners) are incorporating entrepreneurial activities of proactiveness, innovativeness, and risk-taking in their strategies in Jordan (Dalton and Wilson 2000). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 22: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower individualism than with banks with higher individualism.

Masculinity/Femininity and Market Orientation Performance Relationship

Higher masculine cultures place a high value on competitiveness, achievement, recognition, and challenge, whereas lower masculine cultures emphasize relationships, interdependence, and group orientation (Hofstede 1997). Based on these values, it appears that the ideals of lower masculine cultures reverberate better with the underlying principles of market orientation. In other words, there seems to be a value-congruence between market orientation and lower masculine cultures. Nakata and Sivakumar (2001) argue that activities of organizations to promote the interests of external constituencies, the hallmark of market orientation, are likely to be viewed favorably in lower masculine cultures that have altruistic outlooks, whereas actions to support the interests of internal constituencies are possibly encouraged in higher masculine cultures that focus on utilitarianism. In essence, while lower masculine cultures magnify the effectiveness of market orientation, higher masculine cultures weaken the success potentials of market orientation. Further, Day (1990) asserts that market orientation is primarily externally oriented rather than internally oriented. Further, the paradigm of relationship marketing embodied in market orientation advocates building customer relations that go beyond commercial interests and put equal importance on emotional and moral dimensions (Yamaguchi 1994; Chang and Holt 1996). Also, market orientation emphasizes the use of formal and informal means in generating market intelligence, flexible structures, and lateral communication for disseminating information and organization-wide responsiveness to market intelligence (Kohli and Jaworski 1993). All of these inherent qualities of market orientation reflect the essence of lower masculine cultures. The seeming complements between lower masculine cultures and market orientation support the prediction of market orientation being more effective in lower masculine cultures.

As mentioned earlier, not only do Jordanian managers differ in their perceptions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism, but also a great deal of variation is also likely in their perceptions of masculinity that may result in substantial variations in the degree of market orientation among Jordanian banks. Jordanian culture is characterized as a higher masculinity culture that does not seem to promote market orientation (Mueller and Thomas 2000). Organizational structure and managerial behavior inhibit information generation, dissemination, and utilization (Narver and Slater 1990; Bukhtari 1995). For example, the organizational mechanical structures do not facilitate sharing and interfunctional coordination; both are parts of market orientation. Further, managers focus on internal constituencies to enhance harmony and conformity, rather than external constituencies to understand customer needs and wants and competition behavior. Traditional managers are a typical example of such structure and behavior (Dwaik 2001).

However, some other banks' managers who have been trained in the West have begun to give more attention to external constituencies and to encourage participation, and teamwork to enhance information generation, sharing, and utilization (Thomas and Meuller 2000). Moreover, managers of joint venture banks (who are usually foreigners) are encouraging lower masculinity behavior and adopting organic structure that fit with their practices of market orientation activities. Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 23: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower masculinity than with banks with higher masculinity.

Masculinity/Femininity and Entrepreneurial Orientation Performance Relationship

The entrepreneurial values of innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking seem to fit well with the inherent features of lower masculine cultures. Deshpande, et al. (1993) and Hunt and Morgan (1995) assert that recognizing and proacting on opportunities, which are entrepreneurial actions, are highly effective actions in organizations where employees are in regular contact with customers, suppliers, competitors, and other external constituencies. This employee-external constituency interface may reduce the level of risk by relying on relationship building and market sensing capabilities that are characteristic features of lower masculine cultures. Thus, a practice-culture fit is evident. Further, researchers claim that the impact of innovative activities is feeble in higher masculine cultures (Herbing and Miller 1991; Shane 1992). On the other hand, low masculinity will create a cooperative and supportive climate through trust, communication, teamwork, and clan-like association, leading to an increase in people's innovation and propensity to take risks (Thwaites 1992). All in all, entrepreneurship may be seen as more valuable and effectual in lower masculine cultures than in higher masculine cultures.

In addition to variation in the degree of market orientation among Jordanian banks according to differences in masculinity level, substantial variations in the degree of entrepreneurship is also expected for the same reason. Jordanian culture is characterized as a higher masculinity culture that is associated with formalization and centralization, two characteristics that negatively impact the entrepreneurial orientation-performance relationship (Thomas and Mueller 2000). This is the case of traditional managers who focus on internal constituencies to promote stability and harmony, instead of focusing on outsiders' constituents' needs and wants and market changes (Dwaik 2001). For instance reward will be given equally or based on loyalty instead to encourage creativity and risk-taking to introduce new products and services. However, some other managers exposed to Western market and entrepreneurial orientations have begun to focus on external constituents to generate ideas and information about opportunities and encourage coordination, teamwork, etc., to capitalize on these opportunities and introduce new products and innovation (Steensma and Marino, and Weaver 2000). Furthermore, managers of joint venture banks (usually foreigners) are more likely to pay attention to external constituents and building trust with customers (Segalla 2002). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 24: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower masculinity than with banks with higher masculinity.

The Moderating Role of the Country Institutional Profiles

The term "country institutional profiles" refers to the economic, social, political, and technological infrastructures of a country (Kostova 1997; Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000). The term means different things to different researchers (Zucker 1977). The early conceptualizations of country institutional profiles include (1) the unique institutional structures that facilitate organizations' strategic and innovative activities (Nelson 1993); (2) the extent of access to research and educational institutions, financing, and pools of educated labor (Bartholomew 1997); (3) the infrastructure that enhances cooperation between a country's entrepreneurs (Casson 1990); and (4) the patent rights, societal norms, and shared cognitive schemas (Nelson 1993; Busenitz and Lau 1996). In an attempt to draw a common denominator across the broad set of definitions, Kostova (1997) has defined country institutional profiles as a three-dimensional concept, namely, regulatory, cognitive, and normative: (1) first, the regulatory dimension of the institutional profile consists of laws, regulations, and government policies that provide support for new businesses, reduce the risks for individuals starting a new company, and facilitate entrepreneurs' efforts to acquire resources; (2) the cognitive dimension deals with the knowledge and skills possessed by the people in a country pertaining to establishing and operating a new business; and (3) the normative dimension measures the degree to which a country's residents admire entrepreneurial activity and value creative and innovative thinking (Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000).

During the past decade, the phenomenon of country institutional profiles has received an increasing amount of attention from researchers in an attempt to explain the cross-country differences in the effectiveness of various corporate strategies and business practices.

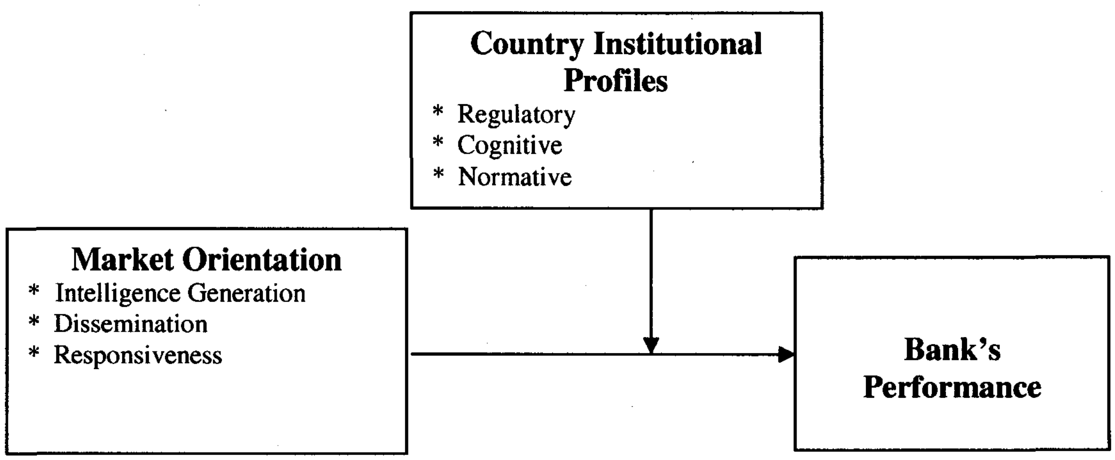

FIGURE 9. Moderating Effects of Country Institutional Profiles on Market Orientation-Performance

Explicitly, researchers have expressed their reservations about the universal applicability of organizational strategies, including market orientation and entrepreneurship (Rondinelli and Kasarda 1992; Murtha and Lenway 1994).

For instance, Murtha and Lenway (1994) argue that country capabilities, which are essentially country institutional profiles, influence the effectiveness of market orientation and entrepreneurship. Furthermore, Rondinelli and Kasarda (1992) argue that, although governments in developing countries have begun to adopt free market reforms and are apparently promoting start-ups, the success rates of entrepreneurship vary cross-nationally. Research also suggests that developing countries, including Jordan, suffer from lack of alignment between cultures, economic systems, and political regimes that may hinder market and entrepreneurial orientations (Lazer and Hardin 1994). In his speech on the "leadership and nation building in the information age," the King of Jordan (1997) emphasized that all systems have to move up and be pro-market oriented. He further stated that a balance between the state and the market regulations should be tilted more toward the market because state interventions may hinder market and entrepreneurial orientations.

This view is supported by the strategic-fit paradigm, which maintains that an alignment between strategic resource deployment and specific requirements of the environmental context is necessary for attaining better performance (Venkatraman 1989). According to the resource-based view of the firm (Capon and Glazer 1987; Deshpande and Farley 1998; Floyd and Woolridge 1999; Rogers and Bamford 2002), both market orientation and entrepreneurship are strategic resources or capabilities of organizations (Day and Wensley 1988; Day and Nedungadi 1994; Matsuno and Mentzer 2000). On the other hand, country institutional profiles are an exogenous construct that constitutes the organizational environment over which the organization has limited control (Kostova 1997). The following sections will review the moderating role of the country's institutional profiles on the effect of market and entrepreneurial orientations on banks' performance in Jordan (see Figures 1, 9, and 10).

Country Institutional Profiles and Market Orientation-Performance Relationship

The literature suggests that the regulatory dimension of country institutional profiles can inhibit or facilitate the effectiveness of market orientation, particularly in developing countries where regulations are often flawed, discriminatory, and aimed not at addressing market failure but at serving the interests of powerful groups (Ouchi 1980; Samli et al. 1987; Appiah-Adu and Singh 1998, Cooper 2000).

The common regulatory interventions in developing countries take place in the form of trade barriers, foreign exchange regulations, price controls, inadequate resource allocations to communication and other infrastructures, and inequitable investment incentives (Dadzie et al. 1997; Appiah-Adu 1997, Booth et al. 20001). These types of interventions can have substantial bearing upon the effectiveness of organizations' efforts in generating, disseminating, and responding to market intelligence generation. Specifically, Appiah-Adu (1997) argues that the success of market research and promotion, epithets of market orientation, is influenced by a rigorous selection of full information disclosure and price regulations, which are regulatory characteristics of certain developing countries. Essentially, because of their discriminatory traits and of undue interventions by power groups, regulations in developing countries can appear favorable to some organizations or industries, while at the same time inhibiting some other organizations and industries (Lazer and Hardin 1994; Zulkafly 2000). Consequently, within-country variations in the perceptions of country institutional profiles are possible in developing countries (Booth, et al. 2000). All in all, a favorably perceived regulatory environment can enhance the performance effect of market orientation.

Further, there is a seeming similarity between the underlying values of market orientation and the essence of the cognitive and normative dimensions of country's institutional profiles (Mitchell, et al. 2000). Scholars argue that market orientation primarily refers to tracking and responding to changing market forces with the primary objective of attaining sustained customer satisfaction (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993), which in turn will ensure business success. In essence, achieving market orientation requires knowledge and appreciation of new business opportunities (Slater and Narver 1995), which are the fundamentals of the cognitive and normative dimensions of country institutional profiles (Mitchell, et al. 2000). However, in Jordan there might be a weak link of value-congruence between market orientation and country institutional profiles in the banking industry. Thus, it is expected that market orientation will be more effective in banks with country institutional profiles more favorable for them than others.

As noted earlier, not only do Jordanian managers differ in their perceptions of national culture, but also a great deal of variation is likely in their perceptions of the country institutional profiles that may produce a substantial variation in the level of market orientation in Jordanian banks (Zulkafly 2000; Brand 2001). Traditional managers of banks associated with the government or more compliant with governmental economic and social plans receive favorable support from the country's regulatory, cognitive, and normative dimensions. These managers perceive governmental interventions in the financial market as important to protect them from competition and to patronize their businesses (Singratt 2002). While some other banks managers trained in the West perceive the country institutional profiles, especially financial regulations, as unsupportive of their effort to be market oriented by limiting access to information, restricting promotion and sales methods, and so forth. They have been calling for more deregulation and liberal financial policies (Holteh 2000; Abu-Oriedeh 2001). Furthermore, the negative perceptions of the country's institutional profiles are felt more by the joint venture banks' managers (foreigners) who see these institutions as restricting their marketing activities such as regulation of foreign labor or requirements to have permission to operate in certain areas or businesses. Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 25: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks when the country institutional profiles are more favorable to the banks, than banks with country institutional profiles less favorable to them.

Country Institutional Profiles and Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance Relationship

The underlying meanings of country institutional profiles dimensions are in harmony with the essence of entrepreneurship, innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking. By focusing on supporting new businesses, reducing risks inherent in new businesses, and allowing entrepreneurs to assess resources, the regulatory dimension mirrors the qualities of entrepreneurship. Likewise, the cognitive and normative dimensions, which relate to shared knowledge and appreciation of new business, respectively, appear to resonate with innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking, the essentials of entrepreneurship. Not surprisingly, Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer (2000) posit that entrepreneurship flourishes in favorable country institutional profiles.

Further, Nelson (1993) argues that the effectiveness of entrepreneurial activities that take place within a country's boundary is dependent on the unique institutional arrangements of the country. Additionally, researchers have linked country institutional profiles and infrastructure to innovative and entrepreneurial activities (Casson 1990; Bartholomew 1997). The country's tangible and intangible infrastructures are critical to support entrepreneurship (Krueger 2000). Further, Krueger (2000) points out the need for cognitive-based models to orient individuals not only reacting to viable opportunities, but also to perceiving them as viable.

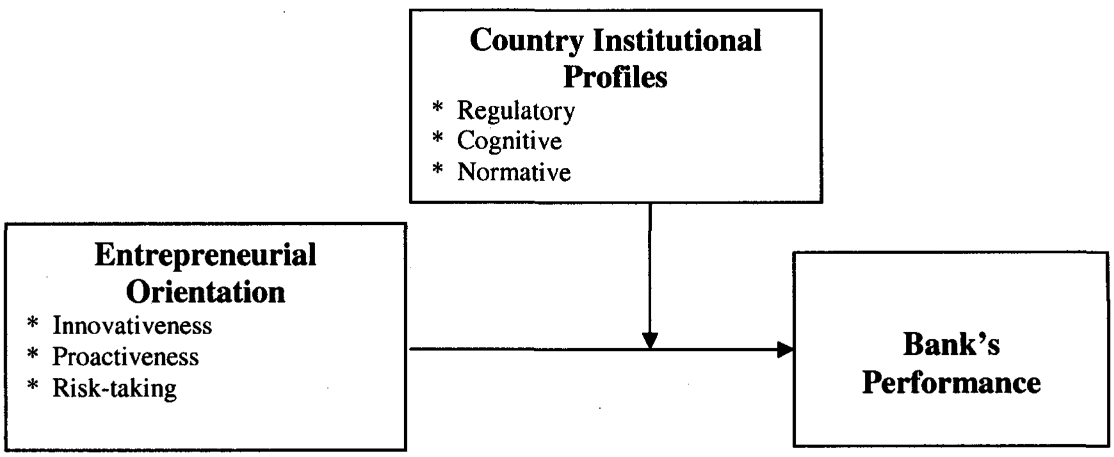

FIGURE 10. Moderating Effects of Country Institutional Profiles on Entrepreneurial Orientation-Performance

This growing body of research implies that entrepreneurship is more effectual in higher (more favorable) country institutional profiles. In other words, country institutional profiles will moderate the performance influence of entrepreneurship. Although Jordan is a developing country, recently its general policies, including those related to the banking industry, have begun to realize the importance of entrepreneurship to economic growth (Hosoe 2001; Brand 2001). As noted earlier, Jordanian managers' (traditional managers, Western educated managers, and foreign managers of joint venture and foreign banks) perceptions of the role of the country institutional profiles has influenced Jordanian banks to exhibit different levels of market orientations (Akel 2002; Shahadah 2002). The same reasons are also likely to manifest in a wide variation in the extent to which Jordanian banks are being entrepreneurially oriented. For instance, traditional managers of banks associated with the government have more access to resources and favorable treatment from the enforcement agencies and have positive perceptions of the country institutional profiles' impacts on their entrepreneurial activities (Brand 2001b). Other banks' managers exposed to Western financial markets feel that country institutional profiles (regulations, cognitive, and normative) have not yet lent the needed support for their entrepreneurial activities (Zulkafly 2000). Likewise, managers of joint venture banks who are foreigners and have trained and practiced in different country institutional profiles feel those Jordanian institutional profiles do not favor them. All in all, banks' managers fully understand that favorable regulation, cognitive, and normative dimensions positively affect the entrepreneurial orientation-performance relationships (Brouthers and Brouthers 2001; Lumpkin and Dess 2001). Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

Hypothesis 26: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks when the country institutional profiles are more favorable, than banks with country institutional profiles less favorable to them.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the process of data collection, analysis, and results.

Data Collection

The data were acquired from branch managers and other senior management employees of banks in Jordan who are members of the Jordanian Banks Association. The key informants were the branch managers and/or other members of their senior management teams. The choice of the banking industry makes the sample homogeneous. The use of a homogeneous respondent sample can provide a strong test of the theory and is supported by Calder, Phillips, and Tybout (1981). This study sample has a number of other attractive characteristics:

1. Past research used senior executives for measuring senior management characteristics (Narver and Slater 1990; Kohli and Jaworski 1990).
2. Branch managers with other members of the senior management team are responsible for strategic decisions at the corporate level and the strategic business unit level and therefore are in the best position to describe the various organizational characteristics to be investigated in the proposed study (Morris and Paul 1987; Narver and Slater 1990; Kohli and Jaworski 1993).

3. The data frame was available. *The 2003 Banks and Finance Institutions Directory in Jordan* include profiles of the 24 banks and their 620 branches in Jordan. Each profile begins with the name, address, telephone number of the bank and its branches, and the name of the manager. It also includes information such as types of services offered, number of employees, number of branches, capital, and so forth.

The instrument contained survey items regarding respondents' perceptions of antecedent constructs (top managements, interdepartmental dynamics, and organizational systems), market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, performance of the banks, and their perceptions of roles of moderating variables (national culture and country's institutional profiles). Support for the use of self-report measures based on respondents' perception was provided by past research (Churchill 1983; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977; Gerbing and Anderson 1988).

Given the nature of poor mail services in developing countries, including Jordan, in addition to other confounding factors associated with the completion of the survey, drop-off and pick-up techniques were employed in order to potentially increase the chances of reaching the target population of the study.

Survey Development

A structured questionnaire was designed to measure the various issues under investigation as shown in Figure 1. Specifically, the questionnaire was divided into eight sections. Section 1 measured the bank's market orientation and contains items related to the three components of the construct: intelligence generation (items 1-10), intelligence dissemination (items 11-18), and intelligence responsiveness (items 19-

32). Section 2 measured the bank's entrepreneurial orientation and contains items related to the three components of the construct: innovativeness (items 1-3), proactiveness (items 4-6), and constructive risk-taking (items 7-9).

Sections 3 and 4 explored the antecedent factors, which included (a) top management emphasis (items1-4) and top management risk aversion (items 5-9); (b) interdepartmental dynamics: conflict (items 1-7) and connectedness (items 8-14); and (c) organizational system: formalization (items 15-21), centralization (items 22-26), and reward system (items 27-31).

The moderating variables were the subjects of Sections 5 and 6. Section 5 dealt with items related to the country's institutional profiles components: regulatory (items 1-3), cognitive (items 4-6) and normative (items 7-13). Section 6 investigated the moderating role of the national culture power distance (1-5), uncertainty avoidance (items 6-10), individualism (items 11-19), and masculinity (items 20-25). Section 7 measured the consequences of a bank's performance (items1-3). Finally, Section 8 contained items regarding the personal and organizational demographical information (items 1-11).

The following steps were been undertaken to overcome the expected response concerns associated with cross-cultural research.

First, following steps were undertaken to assess the research instruments:

1. The survey was reviewed by three Arab-American faculty members currently teaching in United States universities in the field of business, economics, and finance. They are Dr. Ali Darrat (Louisiana Tech University), Dr. Abdel-Hamid Bashir, and Dr. Mahmoud Hajj (both at Grambling State University).

Such a review aimed to address the conceptual and cultural equivalence of the various issues investigated in the survey within the Arab culture.

2. The back-translation technique (Brislin 1970) was used to translate the survey from English to Arabic (Appendix E). The researcher had the assistance of six Arab faculty members. Three of them teach in the United States (Dr. Ali Darrat, Louisiana Tech University; Dr. Abdel-Hamid Bashir and Dr. Mahmoud Hajj, Grambling State University) while the other three teach in Jordanian universities and hold their terminal degree from an American university (Dr. Majid Quran, Al-Hashimite University; Dr. Mowafak Al-Zubui, Yarmouk University; and Dr. Mohammud Al-Messad, Ministry of Higher Education). All the faculty members are not only fluent in both languages, but also knowledgeable and familiar with the issues by the virtue of their positions as business faculty and were thereby qualified to translate the survey.

3. Second, upon incorporating the comments gathered in the first stage, the survey was pretested by four executives from the banking industry in Jordan (Mufeed Al-Saqa, Bank of Jordan; Yasseen Maya'a, Jordan Islamic Bank; Lutf-Allah Ahamed, National bank of Jordan; and Dr. Marwan Al-Zubui, Central Bank of Jordan. They reviewed the questionnaire to reflect on the accuracy of the translation of various marketing concepts and practices dealt within the survey and on the extent of the cultural equivalence with in the Jordanian banks.

4. The survey included only banking firms that match the definition of the Central Bank of Jordan and are licensed to operate as banks and members of the Association of Banks in Jordan.

5. Unlike firms operating in the service sector in Jordan, banks enjoy a high degree of functional specialization (e.g., production, finance, and most important, customer services). Compared with other financial non-banking institutions, banks are larger in size (capital and employees) and family dominance is less noticeable because of the nature of the banking industry. Relatively speaking, the banking industry is very well organized and regulated as a result of foreign influence introduced into the banking industry via education, training, and joint venture foreign banks operating in Jordan.

6. The bank branch, defined as the strategic business unit (SBU), was the unit of analysis in this study; therefore, respondents were requested to respond to the questionnaire based on the information on the SBU in which he or she works.

7. Third, upon incorporating the comments gathered in the second pretesting step, a third pre-testing step of the questionnaire survey design was undertaken to ensure the general ease-of-completion of questionnaire. A convenience sample of 60 branches in Greater Amman area was chosen for this pretest step. The branches ranged in size from five employees to over twenty, and represented public, private, and joint venture banks. The researcher followed a methodology suggested by Ali and Swiercz (1985) and Tunclap (1988) where the researcher's representative hand-delivered the survey to the branch managers. A week later the researcher's representative returned to pick up the

survey. If it was not ready, the representative went back the next week. Once the researcher's representative obtained 60 completed and usable questionnaires, the pre-testing step was completed. The responses showed the general ease-of-completion of the questionnaire, and no further adjustments were needed.

8. Given the fact that all measures employed in this study had been previously used in other studies and psychometrically assessed in a rigorous fashion (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Covin and Slevin, 1989; Hofstede 1980;, and Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer 2000), it was felt that further assessment of the same, in the context of a pre-test, was unnecessary.

Furthermore, to elicit a high level of responses from banks' managers, an attempt was made to obtain a letter of endorsement to the study from the Governor of the Central Bank of Jordan and the chairman of the Jordanian Banks Association. Unfortunately, no such endorsement was received. Also, personal letters were mailed to all bank managers to obtain their endorsement to the study from their bank branch managers and employees. Although some managers showed their support for the study, they "verbally" promised to instruct their managers to participate in the survey, while some managers expressed their unwillingness to participate in such survey. As a result, the population of the study was reduced to 530 branches. Furthermore, 55 branches were dropped from the list because (1) they were a "liaison office" that received and passed transactions to other regional or the main office, and (2) they were in small towns or remote areas.

Population of the Study

At the beginning of the data collection phase, a total of 475 branches constitute the population of the study. A total of 950 copies were hand-delivered to the branch managers who were asked to complete one copy with a senior management employee completing the other.

Measures of the Constructs

This study used existing scales with some refinement for measuring the constructs shown in Figure 1. All scales generally have moderate to high reliability coefficients (Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar 1983; Knight 2000a) that exceed the level recommended by Nunnally (1978). Scale items used to measure of the constructs of interest are listed separately as they are discussed in the following sections and collectively in Appendix D and E in both English and Arabic.

Market Orientation Scale

In the early 1990's, two approaches to measuring market orientation emerged. The first was the study of Narver and Slater (1990) who approached market orientation from a cultural perspective, whereas the second was the study of Jaworski and Kohli (1993) who used a behavioral approach. Both studies have established the foundation for market orientation researchers to build on. Each study developed a valid measure of market orientation and empirically assessed its influence on business performance. Because this study was extending Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) market orientation model, their scale of market orientation had been adopted for measuring the degree of market orientation of banks in Jordan. The scale items are listed in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1. MARKET ORIENTATION SCALE

Intelligence Generation

1. In this bank, we meet with our customers at least once a year to find out what products or services they will need in the future.
2. In this bank, we periodically conduct in-house market research.
3. In this bank, sometimes, we are slow to detect changes in our customers' service preferences.
4. Our employees at the Customer Services Department interact directly with our customers to learn how to serve them better.
5. In this bank, we survey end-users of our products and services at least once a year to assess the quality of our products and services.
6. We often contact or survey those who can influence customers' demand for our services (e.g., non-bank financial institutions, researchers, etc.).
7. We sometimes collect information through informal means (e.g., lunch with friends or governmental official, etc.).
8. In this bank, information about our competitors is generated independently by several departments.
9. We are slow to detect fundamental shifts in the banking industry (e.g., competitor, technology, regulation).
10. We periodically review the likely effects of changes in our business environment (e.g., regulation, technology, competitors, etc.) on customers.

Intelligence Dissemination

11. A lot of informal "hall talk" in this bank concerns our competitors' tactics or strategies.
12. We have interdepartmental meetings at least once a quarter to discuss market trends and developments.
13. Customer service personnel in our bank spend time discussing customers' future needs with other functional departments.
14. This bank periodically circulates documents that provide information on our customers (e.g., reports, newsletters, etc.).
15. When something important happens to a major customer or the market, the whole bank knows about it within a short period.
16. Data on customer satisfaction are disseminated at all levels in this bank on a regular basis.

TABLE 3.1 CONTINUED

17. There is a minimal level of communication between marketing and other departments concerning market development.
18. When one bank branch finds out something important about competitors, it is slow to alert other branches.

Intelligence Responsiveness

19. It takes us forever to decide how to respond to our competitors' service changes.
20. Principles of market segmentation drive new services development efforts in this bank.
21. For one reason or another, we tend to ignore changes in our customers' products or services needs.
22. We periodically review our product development efforts to ensure that they are in line with what customers want.
23. Our bank's business plans are driven by managers' decisions rather than by market research.
24. Several bank branches meet periodically to plan a response to changes taking place in our business environment.
25. The services line we provide depends more on internal politics than real market research.
26. If a major competitor launches an intensive campaign targeted at our customers, we would implement a response immediately.
27. The activities of the different departments in this bank are well coordinated.
28. Sometimes, our customer complaints fall on deaf ears in this bank.
29. Even if we came up with a great marketing plan, we probably would not be able to implement it in a timely fashion in this bank.
30. In this bank, we are quick to respond to significant changes in our competitors' services structures.
31. When we find that our customers are unhappy with the quality of our services, we take corrective action immediately.
32. When we find that customers would like us to modify a product or service, the departments involved make a collective effort to do so.

Entrepreneurial Orientation Scales

The first significant scale development for entrepreneurial orientation was Khandwalla's (1977) scale of entrepreneurial orientation. In 1983, Miller and Friesen came up with a five-item scale. Subsequently, both Khandwalla's (1977) scale and

Miller and Friesen's (1983) scale of entrepreneurial orientation were revised by others, including Morris and Paul (1987), Coven and Slevin (1986; 1989), Smart and Conant (1994). Among these scales, Coven and Slevin's (1989) scale was used to measure the interface between market and entrepreneurial orientations, and this scale fit with the objective of this study. In addition, the scale was found to be internally consistent, stable, and reliable. Therefore, based on Coven and Slevin (1989) and previous discussion of entrepreneurial orientation scales, the scale in Table 3.2 was adopted for measuring the banks' entrepreneurship in this study.

TABLE 3.2. ENTREPRENUERIAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Innovativeness

1. It is a culture of this bank to emphasize innovation and research and development activities.
2. This bank introduces new products and services at a high rate.
3. This bank supports bold approaches to innovative product development.

Proactiveness

4. Employees are encouraged to take initiatives and proactive moves in this bank.
5. This bank is usually the first bank to introduce new technologies and products.
6. This bank has a strong competitive posture toward competitors.

Risk-taking

7. This bank has a strong proclivity for high risk, high return projects.
8. The environment faced by this bank requires boldness to achieve objectives.
9. This bank usually adopts an aggressive, bold posture when faced with risk.

Antecedents to Market and Entrepreneurial Orientations Measures

Three managerial, structural, and organizational constructs were used as antecedents to market and entrepreneurial orientations. The scales of these constructs are listed in Tables 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5.

Top Management: Emphasis and Risk Aversion Scales

Jaworski and Kohli (1992) used two separate scales to measure top management's emphasis and risk aversion. A 4-item scale was used to capture the top management's emphasis in their communication with their employees on the importance of market orientation for the survival of the business. The scale also focused on the extent to which managers are willing to enforce this orientation. A 6-item scale measured the other construct, top management risk aversion. The items were geared toward exploring the top management's policies and action when faced with potential risk and uncertainty. The scales are listed in Table 3.3.

TABLE 3.3. TOP MANAGEMENT EMPHASIS AND RISK-AVERSION SCALES

Top Management Emphasis Scale

1. Top managers repeatedly tell employees that this bank's survival depends on its adapting to market trends.
2. Top managers often tell employees to be oriented to the activities of our competitors.

TABLE 3.3 CONTINUED

3. Top managers keep telling employees that they must gear up now to meet customers' future needs.
4. According to top managers in this bank, serving customers is the most important thing this bank does.

Top Management: Risk Aversion

5. Top managers in this bank believe that higher financial risks are worth taking for higher rewards.
6. Top managers in this bank like to take big financial risks.
7. Top managers in this bank encourage the development of innovative marketing strategies, knowing well that some will fail.
8. Top managers in this bank like to play it safe.
9. Top managers in this bank like to implement plans only if they are very certain that they will work.

Interdepartmental Dynamics: Conflict and Connectedness Scales

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) used two separate scales to measure the interdepartmental conflict and connectedness constructs. The conflict construct scale was composed of 7-items. Items in the scale focused on capturing the impact of incompatibility on departmental goals in the interdepartmental interaction. A 7-item scale measured the connectedness construct. The items were scored on a 5-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Based on earlier discussion, and on Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) scales, the scale in Table 3.4 was adopted in this study to measure the impacts of interdepartmental dynamics constructs, conflict: items 1-7, and connectedness items 7-14.

TABLE 3.4. INTERDEPARTMENTAL DYNAMICS SCALE

Interdepartmental Conflict Scale

1. When employees of several departments get together, tensions frequently run high.
2. Employees in one department generally dislike interacting with those from other departments.
3. Employees from different departments feel that the goals of their respective departments are in harmony with each other.
4. Protecting one's department turf is considered to be a way of life in this bank.
5. The objectives pursued by the Customers' Service Department are incompatible with those of the other departments.
6. There is little or no interdepartmental conflict in this bank.
7. Most departments in this bank get along very well with each other.

Interdepartmental Connectedness Scale

8. In this bank, it is easy to talk with virtually anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.
9. There is ample opportunity for "hall talk" among individuals from different departments in this bank.
10. In this bank, employees from different departments feel comfortable calling each other when the need arises.
11. Managers in this bank discourage employees from discussing work-related matters with those who are not their immediate managers or subordinates.
12. Managers in this bank (branch) are quite accessible to those in other banks (branches).
13. Managers in this bank (branch) can easily schedule meetings with their counterparts in other branches.
14. Communication from one bank to another is expected to be routed through proper channels.

Organizational System: Formalization, Centralization, Departmentalization, and Reward System Scales

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) used three separate scales to measure the constructs pertaining to the organizational systems (formalization, centralization, and the reward system). The three scales were composed of 7, 5, and 6 items, respectively. The number of departments in the business unit measured the departmentalization. The measure of formalization was designed to capture the extent to which jobs were codified while the centralization measure explored the degree of hierarchical authority within the organization. The reward scale (items 27-31) reestablished the bases for evaluating and rewarding individual performance, respectively. Based on earlier discussion, and on Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) scales in Table 3.5 were used in this study to measure the impacts of organizational systems factors (formalization items 15-21, centralization items 22-26, and reward system items 27-31) on the banks' market and entrepreneurial orientations in Jordan. The items were scored on a 5-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

TABLE 3.5. ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS SCALES

Formalization Scale

15. I feel that I am my own boss in most matters.
16. An employee can make his/her own decisions without checking with anybody else.
17. How things are done in this bank is left up to the person doing the work.
18. Most employees in this bank make their own rules on the job.
19. The employees are constantly being monitored for rule violations.
20. Employees in this bank feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules.
21. Employees in this bank are allowed to do almost as they please.

TABLE 3.5 CONTINUED

Centralization Scale

22. Little action can be taken in this bank until a manager approves a decision.
23. An employee who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged in this bank.
24. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.
25. I have to ask my immediate manager before I can do almost anything.
26. Any decision I make has to have my manager's approval.

Reward System Scale

27. No matter which branch they are in, employees in this bank get recognized for being oriented to competitive moves.
28. Customer satisfaction assessments influence top managers' pay in this bank.
29. Formal rewards (e.g., pay raise, promotion) are forth coming to any employee who consistently provides good market information.
30. Performance of customers' service employees is measured by the strength of the relationship they build with the customers.
31. In this bank, we use customer polls for evaluating our employees.

Performance Scales

Narver and Slater (1990) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993) used a combination of judgmental and objective performance in measuring the SBU profitability and performance, respectively. Based on previous work, the scale in Table 3.6 was used for measuring the Jordanian banks' performance in this study. All items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from poor to excellent.

TABLE 3.6. PERFORMANCE SCALE

1. Overall business performance of the bank last year.
2. Overall performance of the bank relative to major competitors last year was.
3. Overall sales growth of the bank relative to major competitors last year was.

Measurement of the Moderating Variables

National Culture Scale

Hofstede's (1980) scale of national culture includes 25 items measuring the four-cultural values, namely, power distance (items 1-6), uncertainty avoidance (items 7-10), individualism (items 11-19), and masculinity (items 20-25). Hofstede's scale was adopted in Table 3.7 to measure the moderating role of the four factors in the effect of market and entrepreneurial orientations on banks' performance in Jordan in this study.

TABLE 3.7. NATIONAL CULTURE SCALE

Power Distance

1. In this bank (branch), the managers make most decisions without consulting others.
2. I always conform to my managers' wishes.

TABLE 3.7 CONTINUED

3. I believe that those managers who ask opinions too often of subordinates are weak or incompetent.
4. In this bank, I tend to avoid any potential arguments with my managers.
5. In this bank, I am always afraid to disagree with managers.

Uncertainty Avoidance

6. In this bank, I like to work in a well-defined job where the requirements are clear.
7. It is important for me to work for a bank that provides high employment stability.
8. Clear and detailed rules / regulation are needed so employees know what is expected of them.
9. In this bank, if I am uncertain about the responsibilities of a job, I get very anxious.
10. In a situation in which other peers evaluate me, I feel that clear and explicit guidelines should be used.

Individualism

11. I do not support my colleagues (group) when I feel they are wrong.
12. It is important for me that my job leaves sufficient time for my personal or family life.
13. If my team (group) is slowing me down, it is better to leave and work alone.
14. It is important that I have a considerable freedom to adopt my own approach to the job.
15. It is better to work in a group than as individuals.
16. Groups make better decisions than individuals.
17. I prefer to be responsible for my own decisions.
18. Contributing to the group is the most important aspect of work.
19. My personal accomplishments are more important to me than group success.

Masculinity

20. It is important to help others on the job.
21. It is important for me to have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement.
22. It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful bank.
23. It is important for me to have a job that has an opportunity for high earnings.
24. It is important that I outperform my colleagues in this bank.
25. It is important for me to work with colleagues who cooperate well with one another.

Country Institutional Profiles Scale

Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer's (2000) scale of country institutional profiles includes 13 items measuring the country's institutional profiles dimensions: the regulatory (items1-3), the cognitive (items 4-8), and the normative (items 9-13). Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer's (2000) scale was adopted in this study for measuring the moderating role of the country's institutional profiles of Jordan in the effect of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation on banks' performance in Jordan. The scale is presented in Table 3.8.

TABLE 3.8. COUNTRY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES SCALE

1.	The government sets aside part of its deposits and contracts for new and small banks.
2.	Government organizations in this country assist individuals with starting businesses, including banking.
3.	Local and central governments have special support available for individuals who want to start a new business, including a bank.
4.	The government sponsors organizations that help new businesses, including banks to develop.
5.	Even after failing in an earlier business, such as a bank, the government assists entrepreneurs in starting again.
6.	Bankers know how to legally protect a new banking business.
7.	Those who start new banking businesses know how to deal with high risk.
8.	Those who start new banking businesses know how to manage risk.
9.	Most people who start new banking businesses know where to find information about markets for their services.
10.	Turning new ideas into businesses, including banks, is an admired career path in this country.
11.	In this country, innovative and creative thinking is viewed as the route to success.
12.	Entrepreneurs are admired in this country.
13.	People in this country tend to greatly admire those who start their own businesses.

Survey Techniques Employed

Assessment of the nature of the survey undertaken that included many constructs and the actual length of the questionnaire of more than 152 questions, in addition to other confounding factors associated with the distribution of the survey (the Banking scandal), it was expected that the response rate would not be overly high. Therefore, several survey techniques such as Dillman's (1978) "total design methods" and research methodology recommended by Ali and Swiercz (1985) and Tunclop (1988) were adopted to enhance the potential response rate.

1. The drop-off of the questionnaire started on July 9 – July 17, 2003.
2. Each envelope contained a copy of the questionnaire and a cover letter that included an "appeal" for compliance in filling out and returning the questionnaire, as well as a clear explanation of the purpose behind the research, and who the appropriate respondent in the branch should be.
3. A clear, specific instruction as to how the questionnaire was to be completed was stated in the top of each section of the questionnaire.
4. Each respondent was offered an optional opportunity to receive a summary of the research findings simply by writing his /her mailing address.
5. Respondent anonymity was assured in that the questionnaire stressed that the respondent's name or his bank's was unnecessary (unless he or she chose to receive a summary of the research findings). In addition, the questionnaire stressed that any information provided would be used only for this research purpose. More specifically, the information would be used only for educational purposes.

6. On July 21 – July 31, 2003, the pick-up processes started. 212 responses were picked up.
7. Direct phone calls, as a "thank you" in expectation of a response, were placed to a significant number of potential responding branches that delayed in responding to the original drop-off.
8. On August 3 – August 10, 2003, 130 responses were picked up.
9. Another wave of direct phone calls were placed to a number of potential responding branches that did not respond to the original drop off and first calls.
10. On August 11 – August 20, 2003, another 119 responses were picked up.
11. Several telephone calls to non-response branches showed that either the branch provided only one response or the branch did not like to respond for one reason or another.

Finally, a total of 461 survey instruments were received for a response rate of 48 percent. Fourteen questionnaires had too many missing values or sections and were unusable. Thus, the usable number of responses was 447. Adding to this number, 60 responses were collected during the pre-testing phase, and the final number of usable responses was 507. After adjusting for the pre-testing responses, the response rate is 53 percent. The characteristics of the data are discussed briefly in the following chapter in regard to selected demographic and organizational information.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

Table 4.1 presents selected demographic (position, gender, education, educational major, experience) and organizational variables (location of the branch, years of establishment, number of employees, number of customers, number of departments, and the nature of ownership) of the sampled management teams and their banks' branches in Jordan.

TABLE 4.1. ORGANIZATIONAL STATUS OF THE PRIMARY RESPONDENT *

Status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
Branch Manager	262	51.7	51.7
Senior Management	245	48.3	100.0
Gender			
Female	102	20.0	20.0
Male	405	80.0	100.0
Education			

TABLE 4.1 CONTINUED

High School	14	2.8	2.8
Community College	79	15.6	18.4
Bachelor	371	73.1	91.5
Graduate Study (MA, ,PhD)	41	8.1	99.6
Others	2	0.4	100.0
Education Major			
Business	435	85.8	85.8
Non-business	72	14.2	100.0
Experience in Years			
1-5	150	29.6	29.6
6-10	148	29.2	58.8
11-15	112	22.1	80.9
16-20	61	12.0	92.9
More than 21	36	7.1	100.0
Location of the Branch			
Amman	338	66.7	66.7
Irbid	68	13.4	80.1
Zarqa	41	8.1	88.2
Others	60	11.8	100.0
Age of Branch in Years			
1-5	61	12.0	12.0
6-10	70	13.8	25.8
11-15	89	17.5	43.3
16-20	104	20.5	63.8
Over than 21	183	36.2	100.0
Number of Employees			
1-5	6	1.2	1.2
6-10	163	32.1	33.3
11-15	225	44.4	77.7
16-20	72	14.2	91.9
Over than 21	41	8.1	100.0
Number of Customers			
Less than 1000	48	9.5	9.5
1001-2000	270	53.2	62.7
2001-3000	130	25.6	88.3
3001-4000	45	8.9	97.2
Over 4000	14	2.8	100.0
Number of Departments			
3-4	227	44.8	45.2
5-6	239	47.1	91.9
7-8	37	7.3	99.2
Over 8	4	0.8	100.0

TABLE 4.1 CONTINUED

Nature of Ownership			
Public	58	11.4	11.4
Private	322	63.5	74.9
Joint venture	127	25.1	100.0

*Numbers represent percentages. Percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

As mentioned earlier, the data were acquired from managers of the branches and other employees of the senior management team in the branches. Of the respondents 51.7% were branch managers while 48.3% were members of the senior management team. The collected demographic information indicated that all respondents were well suited to act in the capacity of the 'key informants" for their respective branch. Furthermore, 80% of the respondents were males while 20 % were females. This result indicated the dominance of males in managerial positions in the banking industry.

Also, the descriptive data in Table 4.1 showed that of the respondents, 96.8% had at least two or more years of graduate studies after high school. It is noteworthy that 73.1% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree and 8.1% had earned a graduate degree (master's or doctorate). In addition, Table 4.1 revealed that of the respondents, 85.8% had a business major and were more likely to have some training in business tools and techniques, including marketing and entrepreneurship.

Slightly more than half of the respondents, 58.8%, had fewer than 10 years' of experience, and 41.2% had more than 10 years of experiences in their current positions, either as branch managers or members of the senior management teams.

This factor can be explained by the fact that managers would be promoted gradually from the rank and files of the banks' cadres. This process required a full range of experiences in all phases of banking before promotion to this rank. In other words, it was safe to conclude that the respondents' experiences in their current positions were more likely to be backed up by a long-term experience in the banking industry. Thus, respondents were more likely to be aware of the different characteristics of the banks, including those traits that were of interests in this study.

Furthermore, Table 4.1 showed some of the banks' variables (location of the branch, years of were establishment, number of employees, number of customers, number of departments, and the nature of ownership) of the sampled bank branches in Jordan. Almost two-thirds (66.7%) of the respondents mentioned that their branches were in Amman, the capital of Jordan; 13.4 % in Irbid, the largest city in the northern part of the country; 8.1% at Zarqa; and 11.8% in other parts of the country. The representation of the branches in the data was representative of the geographical distribution of the banking industry in Jordan.

Data concerning the year of the branch establishment (age) showed that only one–quarter of the participating branches established in the last 10 years, while the three-quarters had been in operation for more than 10 years. The continuous expansion of the banking industry related to the fact that there were not enough banks before the oil-price boom in the early 1970s. The windfall of wealth in the Arab oil-exporting countries opened the door of high-paid jobs for hundreds of thousands of Jordanian workers in the Arab oil-rich states. In addition, the relative liberal economic policies and stability of Jordan made it attractive to Jordanian and non-Jordanian Arab and non-Arab investors. These factors may explain the expansion of the banking industry in the last three decades.

Furthermore, data showed that 9.5% of the branches had fewer than 1000 customers, while 53.2% of the respondents' customers ranged from 1000-2000. And 25.6% of the branches had customers ranging from 2000-3000, and 2.8% had more than 4000 customers. This finding may indicate that banks have to compete for customers. With a population of 6 million, Jordan had more than 600 branches. In other words, there was one branch for every 10,000 persons. Data also showed that the mean of number of customers for a branch in Jordan is over 2100. However, numbers have to be read with care. It seemed that the banks' customers were overlapping because of the differentiation or the population subgroups. For instance, a typical Jordanian will receive his salary from a bank of his employer's choice. But he may take a loan for his son to go to college from the Islamic Bank, his house loan from the Housing Bank, and both loans will be paid through a bank where his relative or friend works. Furthermore, slightly over three quarters of the branches (77.7%) reported the number of their employees ranged from 5-15, while slightly less than one quarter (22.3 %) had over 16 employees. The last organizational factor was the nature of ownership (public, private, or joint venture). Table 4.1 showed that the vast majority (63.5%) of banks in Jordan are privately owned followed by joint venture (25.1%), while only 11.4% are public banks.

Psychometric Analysis of the Measurement Models

Exploratory factor analysis (coefficient alpha, and item-to-total correlation) was estimated to assess the psychometric properties of the scales (Hair et al. 1987; Cole 1987). Items are identified in Tables 4.2 through 4.12.

TABLE 4.2. RELIABILITY ESTIMATES

Scales Items	*α*	*X*	*S*	*Item-to-Total P*	*F*
Market Orientation:					
Intelligence Generation	.71				
MOIG1		29.25	30.35	.28	.73
MOIG2		28.91	29.25	.44	.70
MOIG3		29.11	30.23	.41	.71
MOIG4		29.31	28.43	.53	.69
MOIG5		29.11	27.79	.61	.68
MOIG6		29.39	27.02	.63	.67
MOIG7		29.40	26.42	.56	.68
MOIG8		29.48	27.71	.39	.71
MOIG9		30.17	36.41	.19	.80
MOIG10		29.15	28.39	.47	.70
Intelligence dissemination	.68				
MOID1		16.51	13.11	.36	.68
MOID2		16.06	12.14	.46	.65
MOID3		16.69	11.78	.51	.63
MOID4		16.49	11.17	.46	.65
MOID5		16.16	12.59	.40	.67
MOID6		16.49	11.78	.39	.67
Intelligence Responsiveness	.71				
MOIR2		6.00	30.29	.31	.69
MOIR4		34.88	30.25	.45	.67
MOIR5		4.97	31.15	.29	.69
MOIR6		35.14	29.67	.49	.66

TABLE 4.2 CONTINUED

MOIR7		35.19	29.296	.39	.68
MOIR8		35.38	32.42	.19	.71
MOIR9		34.93	30.08	.40	.67
MOIR11		35.21	30.91	.42	.67
MOIR12		35.21	30.91	.42	.67
MOIR13		34.93	30.34	.50	.66
MOIR14		94.98	29.57	.51	.66
Entrepreneurial Orientation	.834				
EOIN1		29.50	52.30	.72	.47
EOIN2		29.03	30.38	.60	.81
EOIN3		29.11	29.67	.62	.80
EOPR1		29.18	29.98	.57	.81
EOPR2		29.19	31.03	.50	.82
EOPR3		29.11	30.01	.61	.80
EORT1		29.05	30.39	.53	.81
EORT2		29.83	31.73	.41	.83
EORT3		28.93	30.60	.55	.81
Antecedents of MO and EO					
Top Management					
Emphasis	.71				
TMEM1		3.89	.86	.55	00
TMEM2		3.81	.91	.55	00
Risk aversion	.61				
TMRA1		3.45	5.81	.52	.41
TRMA2		3.23	6.22	.40	.50
TRMA3		3.71	5.92	.60	.35
Interdepartmental Dynamism:					
Conflict	.55				
IDCF1		5.32	10.61	.49	33
IDCF4		5.13	40.42	.49	33
IDCF6		5.09	40.87	.55	26
IDCF7		5.01	10.34	.40	44
Connectedness	.62				

TABLE 4.2 CONTINUED

IDCD1		4.93	10.64	.51	.44
IDCD2		5.40	10.73	.56	.37
IDCD3		5.36	10.58	.53	.42
IDCD5		5.13	10.87	.58	.35
Organizational Systems:					
Formalization	.70				
ORGFM1		12.12	9.78	.71	.30
ORGFM2		10.63	10.37	.60	.56
ORGFM3		10.84	10.19	.62	.52
ORGFM4		10.21	10.38	.61	.53
ORGFM7		11.20	10.44	.68	.37
Centralization	.72				
ORGCN2		7.64	9.69	.73	.36
ORGCN3		6.26	9.75	.58	.60
ORGCN4		6.52	9.71	.61	.56
ORGCN5		6.86	9.72	.65	.49
Reward System	.70				
ORGRW3		3.37	6.13	.60	.51
ORGRW4		3.16	5.84	.51	.57
ORGRW5		3.75	5.76	.67	.44
Performance	.74				
PERF1		2.78	6.84	.67	.53
PERF2		2.58	6.98	.53	.65
PERF3		2.85	6.99	.71	.49
National Culture					
Power Distance	.74				
NCPD1		8.81	12.31	70	47
NCPD2		8.17	12.40	64	62
NCPD3		8.10	12.25	65	59
NCPD4		8.81	12.20	70	47
NCPD5		9.34	12.53	74	34
Uncertainty Avoidance	.77				
NCUA1		10.29	14.60	.75	.46
NCUA2		9.59	14.55	.72	.58
NCUA3		9.08	14.76	.71	.59
NCUA4		9.14	14.57	.70	.63

TABLE 4.2 CONTINUED

NCUA5		9.98	14.69	.76	.46
Individualism	.62				
NCID1		13.41	21.23	.60	.29
NCID2		13.05	21.12	.56	.38
NCID3		12.81	21.14	.56	.38
NCID5		13.73	21.60	.60	.27
NCID7		13.81	21.29	.60	.27
NCID8		13.43	21.29	.58	.32
NCID9		12.81	20.93	.56	.39
Masculinity	.81				
NCMS1		13.40	20.06	.78	.55
NCMS2		12.88	20.08	.75	.69
NCMS3		13.16	20.29	.78	.56
NCMS4		13.49	20.18	.78	.57
NCMS5		13.65	20.26	.79	51
NCMS6		13.86	20.21	.78	.54
Country Institutional Profile	.78				
CIPF1		42.01	45.66	.78	.35
CIPF2		41.18	45.67	.77	.42
CIPF3		4.91	45.51	.76	.48
CIPF4		40.93	45.49	.76	.48
CIPF5		43.21	45.57	.78	.32
CIPF6		43.16	45.69	.78	.28
CIPF7		45.66	46.18	.80	.06
CIPF8		40.68	45.54	.76	.48
CIPF9		39.68	45.25	.75	.60
CIPF10		39.37	45.23	.75	.59
CIPF11		39.77	45.41	.76	.51
CIPF12		42.21	45.55	.77	.38
CIPF13		41.00	45.29	.77	.45
Business Environment					
Market Turbulence	.71				
BEMK1		6.64	14.97	.64	.50
BEMK2		6.73	14.85	.64	.52
BEMK3		6.81	14.99	.67	.45
BEMK4		6.94	14.87	.65	.51
BEMK5		7.21	15.18	.70	.36

TABLE 4.2 CONTINUED

Technology Changes	.62				
BETC1		5.33	11.27	.55	.40
BETC2		5.29	11.20	.49	.47
BETC3		5.60	11.44	.55	.39
BETC4		5.65	11.49	.60	.33
Competition Hostility	.66				
BECO1		11.60	20.60	.57	.25
BECO2		11.42	20.52	.54	.31
BECO3		10.99	20.76	.53	.35
BECO4		11.06	20.53	.54	.33
BECO5		11.23	50.82	.53	.33

Market orientation activities scales (10-item market intelligence generation scale, 8-item market intelligence dissemination scale, and 14-item market intelligence responsiveness scales) were assessed separately as shown in Table 4.2. The inter-item reliability alpha assessment generated acceptable reliability scores for the market orientation activities scales, with a coefficient alpha of .71, .68, and .71, respectively. Given Nunnally's (1978) landmark establishment of an alpha co-efficient score of 0.70 or greater, which signifies a reliable scale, the current scale was considered very acceptable. However, the item deletion did not result in any significant increase in the alpha coefficient scores, which indicated stable and internally consistent scales (Nunnally, 1978). The current scales' alpha of .71, .68, and .71 were very comparable with the alpha scores derived by Jaworski and Kohli (1993), the original developers of the scales.

Furthermore, a 9-item EO scale was assessed. As shown in Table 4.2 the inter-item reliability alpha assessment generated a very high coefficient alpha of 0.83. The current EO scale's alpha coefficient was once again comparable with that produced by Covin and Slevin's (1989) original EO scale, which generated an alpha of .87 when used by the original developers of the scale.

Scales of the antecedent variables (4-item top management emphasis scale, 5-item top management risk aversion scale, 5-item conflict scale, 7-item interdepartmental connectedness scale, 7-item formalization scale, 5-item centralization scale, and 5-item reward system scale) were assessed. The results are shown in Table 4.2. The inter-item reliability alpha assessment generated acceptable reliability scores (.71, .61, .62, .70, .72, and .70). Only the interdepartmental conflict reliability score was unacceptable (.55), and based on this result, the variable was eliminated from further analysis. Moreover, a 3-item performance scale was assessed. The inter-item reliability alpha assessment generated a high coefficient alpha of 0.74.

Scales of national culture dimensions (5-item power distance scale, 5-item uncertainty avoidance scale, 9-item individualism scale, and 6-item masculinity scale) were assessed. The inter-item reliability alpha assessment generated acceptable reliability scores for the national culture dimensions with a coefficient alpha of .74, .77, .62, and .81, respectively. As shown in Table 4.2, the country institutional profile (CIP) scale was also highly reliable, generating a coefficient alpha of .78.

Factor Analysis

Once the items' reliability had been assessed, items tentatively selected for each scale were once again factor-analyzed. The results of the factor analysis would be used to primarily determine the unidimensionality of constructs.

The researcher's decision regarding the results of the factor analysis was based on two measures. The first is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure. The KMO measures the sampling adequacy. According to Kaiser (1974), KMO is an index used for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficient to the magnitudes of partial correlation coefficient. If the sum of the squared partial correlation coefficient between all pairs of variables is small when compared to the sum of the squared correlation coefficient, the KMO will be closer to one (1.0). The closer the value of KMO is to one, the more appropriate the factor analysis will be. The further the value of KMO from one, the less appropriate the factor analysis for the sampling population (Kaiser 1974). Kaiser describes KMO measures according to their closeness to one as Marvelous if KMO is in the range of 0.90; Meritorious if it is in the range of 0.80; Middling if it is in the range of 0.70; Mediocre if it is in the range of 0.60; and Miserable if it is in the range of 0.50. Kaiser suggested that measures below a cutoff level of 0.50 are deemed to be unacceptable.

The second indicator was factor loading, or communality among scale items. According to Hair, et al. (1987) deciding which items to keep or remove from the analysis must be made on the basis of factor loadings, or communality among scale items. While it was not based on any mathematical analysis, these researchers argued that when making initial decisions, factor loadings of +. 30 can be considered to be marginally significant, +. 40 and greater to be more important, and factor loadings of +. 50 to be very significant. Communalities, the squared multiple correlation coefficient between a variable and all other variables, is a meaningful indication of the strength of the linear association among the variables (Pedhazer 1982; Hair et al. 1987). Thus, variables demonstrating the smallest multiple R- squared, or communality of less than 0.40 is problematic. Furthermore, Hair, et al. (1987) and Joreskog (1977) also suggested eliminating from the set of variables being analyzed those items considered to be C marginal, and if the KMO increased, then the items should be deleted from the analysis. In this study, a factor loading of 0.40 was the cutoff level.

According to Kaiser (1974), a factor analysis proceeds in three sequential steps: the first step, the correlation matrix for all variables is computed. Variables, which do not appear to be related to other variables, can be identified from the matrix and the association statistics. The second step of the process is factor extraction. Factor extraction is the number of underlying factors necessary to accurately represent the variation in the data, and the method of calculating them must be determined. How well the chosen model fits the data collected can also be ascertained at this point. The third step includes factor rotation, which is an optional step. Factor rotation focuses on transforming the factors to render them interpretable to a greater degree. The current procedures and results of factor analysis are discussed as follows:

Final Market Orientation Scale

As a result of the coefficient alpha estimation, 5 items were eliminated from the original market orientation scale measurement, and factor analysis was performed on 27 items. A principle component factor analysis, employing varimax rotation, was conducted on the 27 items of market orientation scale. The results of the initial PCA extraction are shown in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.3. FACTOR ANALYSIS: MARKET ORIENTATION SCALE

Items	Loading
MOIG1	.391
MOIG2	.518
MOIG3	.345
MOIG4	.582
MOIG5	.651
MOIG6	.551
MOIG7	.507
MOIG8	.426
MOIG9	-.197
MOIG10	.583
MOID1	.416
MOID2	.567
MOID3	.503
MOID4	.475
MOID5	.528
MOID6	.470
MOIR2	.162
MOIR4	.603
MOIR5	.147
MOIR6	.590
MOIR7	-.226
MOIR8	.384
MOID9	.500
MOID11	-7.228E-02

TABLE 4.3 CONTINUED

MOIR12	.555
MOID13	.638
MOID14	.620
KMO = .853 MOIG = Market Orientation Intelligence Generation MOID = Market Orientation Intelligence Dissemination MOID = Market Orientation Intelligence Responsiveness	

A high KMO of sampling adequacy (KMO .853) indicated that factor analysis was appropriate for the data collected from the banking industry in Jordan (Kaiser 1974). Furthermore, examination of the factor loadings (Table 3.3) revealed that out of the 27 items, 8 items (MOIR1, MOIR3, MOIR9, MOIR2, MOIR5, MOIR7, MOIR 8, and MOIR11) were flagged for their low loading below 0.40. Given this rule of thumb, the (MOIR1, MOIR3, MOIR9, MOIR2, MOIR5, MOIR7, MOIR 8, and MOIR11) items were removed, and a principle component extraction analysis was undertaken for a second time with the varimax rotation. An explanation of the removed items is mentioned in a later section.

Final Entrepreneurial Orientation Scale

A principle component factor analysis, employing varimax rotation was conducted on the 9-item EO scale. The results of the initial PCA extraction are shown in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4. FACTOR ANALYSIS: ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Items	Loading
EOIN1	.548
EOIN2	.665
EOIN3	.702
EOPR1	.665
EOPR2	.557
EOPR3	.668
EORT1	.573
EORT2	.449
EORT3	.577

KMO .837.
EOIN = Entrepreneurial Orientation Innovativeness.
EOPR = Entrepreneurial Orientation Proactiveness.
EORT = Entrepreneurial Orientation Risk-taking.

A high KMO of sampling adequacy (KMO .837) indicated that factor analysis was appropriate for the data collected from the banking industry in Jordan (Kaiser 1974). Furthermore, examinations of the factor loadings (Table 4.4) revealed that all 9 items were over the level of .40. Given this rule of thumb, all 9 items were used in the analysis.

National Culture Scale

A 25-item scale was used to measure the four dimensions of national culture (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity), and 23 items were retained after assessment for reliability by confirmatory alpha factor analysis, and all 23 items were factor-analyzed. The results of the initial PCA extraction are shown in Table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5. FACTOR ANALYSIS: NATIONAL CULTURE SCALE FACTOR ANALYSIS: COUNTRY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

Scale Items	Loading	Loading	Loading	Loading
	NCPD	NCUA	NCID	NCMS
NCPD1	605			
NCPD2	774			
NCPD3	767			
NCPD4	628			
NCPD5	627			
NCUA1		400		
NCUA2		539		
NCUA3		602		
NCUA4		717		
NCUA5		709		
NCID5			567	
NCID7			783	
NCID8			756	
NCMS1				670
NCMS2				788
NCMS3				717
NCMS4				693
NCMS5				637
NCMS6				643

KMO .873
NCPD = Power Distance NCUA = Uncertainty Avoidance
NCID = Individualism NCMS = Masculinity

The result in Table 4.5 shows a high KMO of sampling adequacy (KMO .873) indicating that factor analysis was appropriate for the data collected about the cultural environment of the banking industry in Jordan (Kaiser 1974). Furthermore, examination of the factor loadings (Table 4.5) revealed that all items related to power distance (NCPD1, NCPD2, NCPD3, NCPD4, and NCPD5), uncertainty avoidance (NCUA1, NCUA2, NCUA3, NCUA4, and NCUA5), and masculinity (NCMS1, NCMS2, NCMS3, NCMS4, NCMS5, and NCMS6) were loaded on one factor and retained. Only 3 items (NCID5, NCID7, NCID8) related to individualism were retained, while items NCID 1, NCID2, and NCID3, cross loaded and hence were deleted.

Country Institutional Profile Scale

A 13-item scale was used to measure the country institutional profile. All 13 items were retained based on Cronbach alpha score. All 13 items were factor-analyzed as shown in Table 4.6.

A high KMO of sampling adequacy (KMO .817) indicated that factor analysis was appropriate for the data collected about Jordan institutional profiles (Kaiser 1974). Furthermore examination of the factor loadings (Table 3.6) revealed that out of the 13-items, 3-items (CIPF1, CIPF5, and CIPF6) were flagged for their low loading below the cutoff 0.40. Given this rule of thumb, items (CIPF1, CIPF5, and CIPF6) were removed, and a principle component extraction analysis undertaken for a second time with varimax rotation.

TABLE 4.6. FACTOR ANALYSIS: COUNTRY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

Scale Items	Loading
CIPF1	349
CIPF2	.412
CIPF3	.537
CIPF4	.551
CIPF5	.325
CIPF6	.285
CIPF7	.522
CIPF8	.537
CIPF9	.735
CIPF10	.738
CIPF11	.645
CIPF12	.403
CIPF13	.549
KMO =. 817 CIPF = Country Institutional Profiles	

The Removal of Scales' Items

As shown in Tables 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11; 36 items were removed from the scales because of factor analysis assessment of the scales. In addition all the 5 items interdepartmental conflict scale were dropped. Scales' items removed during Cronbach alpha assessments were marked by (*), and items removed during the exploratory factor analysis assessments were marked by (**), while retained scales' items had no marks and were used in the subsequent analysis.

Market Orientation Scale

The final MO scale contained 20 items, after 12 items were deleted as a result of the factor analysis. Table 4.7 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.7. FINAL 19-ITEM MARKET ORIENTATION SCALE

Items	Definition
Intelligence Generation	
MOIG1**	In this bank, we meet with our customers at least once a year to find out what products or services they will need in the future.
MOIG2	In this bank, we periodically conduct in-house market research.
MOIG3**	In this bank, sometimes, we are slow to detect changes in our customers' service preferences.
MOIG4	Our employees at the Customer Services Department interact directly with our customers to learn how to serve them better.
MOIG5	In this bank, we survey end-users of our products and services at least once a year to assess the quality of our products and services.
MOIG6	We often contact or survey those who can influence customers' demand for our services (e.g., non- bank financial institutions, researchers, etc.).
MOIG7	We sometimes collect information through informal means (e.g., lunch with friends or governmental official, etc.).
MOIG8	In this bank, information about our competitors is generated independently by several departments.
MOIG9**	We are slow to detect fundamental shifts in the banking industry (e.g., competitor, technology, regulation).
MOIG10	We periodically review the likely effects of changes in our business environment (e.g., regulation, technology, competitors, etc.) on customers.
Intelligence Dissemination	
MOID1	A lot of informal "hall talk" in this bank concerns our competitors' tactics or strategies.
MOID2	We have interdepartmental meetings at least once a quarter to discuss market trends and developments.
MOID3	Customer service personnel in our bank spend time discussing customers' future needs with other functional departments.
MOID4	This bank periodically circulates documents that provide information on our customers (e.g., reports, newsletters, etc.).

TABLE 4.7 CONTINUED

MOID5	When something important happens to a major customer or the market, the whole bank knows about it within a short period
MOID6	Data on customer satisfaction are disseminated at all levels in this bank on a regular basis.
MOID7*	There is minimal level of communication between marketing and other departments concerning market development.
MOID8*	When one bank branch finds out something important about competitors, it is slow to alert other branches.
Intelligence Responsiveness	
MOIR1*	It takes us forever to decide how to respond to our competitor's services changes.
MOIR2**	Principles of market segmentation drive new services development efforts in this bank.
MOIR3*	For one reason or another, we tend to ignore changes in our customers' products or services needs.
MOIR4	We periodically review our product development efforts to ensure that they are in line with what customers want.
MOIR5	Our bank's business plans are driven by managers' decisions rather than by market research.
MPIR6	Several bank branches meet periodically to plan a response to changes taking place in our business environment.
MOIR7**	The services line we provide depends more on internal politics than real market research.
MOIR8**	If a major competitor launches an intensive campaign targeted at our customers, we would implement a response immediately.
MOIR9	The activities of the different departments in this bank are well coordinated.
MOIR10*	Sometimes, our customer complaints fall on deaf ears in this bank.
MOIR11**	Even if we came up with a great marketing plan, we probably would not be able to implement it in a timely fashion in this bank.
MOIR12	In this bank, we are quick to respond to significant changes in our competitors' services structures.
MOIR13	When we find that our customers are unhappy with the quality of our services, we take corrective action immediately.
MOIR14	When we find that customers would like us to modify a product or service, the departments involved make a collective effort to do so.

* 5 MO scale items removed as a result of coefficient alpha estimation
** 8 MO scale items removed as a result of factor analysis
Final 20 MO scale items in the analysis

The 12 items (MOIG1, MOIG3, MOIG9, MOID 7, MOID8, MOIR1, MOIR2, MOIR3, MOIR7, MOIR8, MOIR10, and MOIR11) removed from the MO scale analysis were from the three MO activities. Three items (MOIG1, MOIG3, and MOIG9) were connected to market intelligence generation, two items (MOID7 and MOID8) were related to market intelligence dissemination, while 7-items (MOIR1, MOIR2, MOIR3, MOIR7, MOIR8, MOIR10, and MOIR11) were related to the banks' responsiveness to the generated market intelligence.

The removal of MOIG1 was in all likelihood related to the nature of the sampling population. These are the banks' branch managers or employees. Formal meetings with customers are usually carried out through the main headquarters and during the general assembly annual meeting. However, meetings or contacts with influential and preferable customers are conducted informally through members of the board of directors or high-ranking managers.

The removal of items MOIG3, MOIG9, MOID7, MOID8, MOIR1, MOIR2, MOIR3, MOIR7, MOIR8, MOIR10, and MOIR11 could be explained in the context of the national culture in Jordan. It is noteworthy that all these items contain a negative perspective such as "we are slow," "it takes forever," "we ignore," "we are not able," and so forth. Such labels are not in line with the cultural values either in Arab traditions or Islamic teachings. Both sources of national cultural values do not encourage the "negative attitude." Meanwhile, while they discourage twisting the truth, they open a loophole, which is, "If there is no good thing to say, keep silent." This type of behavior fits well in a collectivist culture like Jordan (Hofstede 1997).

Furthermore, in a classical management style, as in Jordan, it is not a surprise that employees will show "solidarity" when it comes to their banks.

The removal of MOIR2 and MOIR7 needs more explanation. Both items deal with the role of segmentation in driving new services and the role of internal politics in deciding the line of services provided to customers. Although segmentation in the Jordanian banking industry is maintained by governmental economic policies and development plans, recent economic reform policies left the banks to decide upon which line of business they choose to focus. For instance, the Housing Bank is adopting a diversity approach beyond housing loans. In the same way, the Industrial Development Bank is also extending its activities and reforming to convert from a public bank to a commercial one.

The removal of item MOIR7 may be explained by its political tenor. In developing countries, including Jordan, politics and economics overlap. A simple review of the members of the Board of Directors indicated that "political economy" is at the heart of life in that part of the world. However, respondents who are part of the management teams declined to see this fact because of its impact on their professionalism or unwillingness to respond to such political issues. However, the common thread of "negative tune" between the 12-items removed from the MO scale could indicate that the banking industry in Jordan is moving toward implementing the marketing concept.

Entrepreneurial Orientation Scale

All 9 items of the scale of EO entered the final analysis because none of the items were deleted as a result of the factor analysis assessments. Table 4.8 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.8. FINAL 9-ITEM ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Items	Definition
Innovativeness	
EOIN1	It is a culture of this bank to emphasize innovation and research and development activities.
EOIN2	This bank introduces new products and services at a high rate.
EOIN3	This bank supports bold approaches to innovative product development.
Proactiveness	
EOPR1	Employees are encouraged to take initiatives and proactive moves in this bank.
EOPR2	This bank is usually the first bank to introduce new technologies and products.
EOPR3	This bank has a strong competitive posture toward competitors.
Risk-taking	
EORT1	This bank has a strong proclivity for high risk, high return projects.
EORT2	The environment faced by this bank requires boldness to achieve objectives.
EORT3	This bank usually adopts an aggressive, bold posture when faced with risk.

The Antecedents' Scales: Managerial, Structural, and Organizational Systems

The antecedents' scales were assessed only by confirmatory alpha factor analysis because the remaining items of each scale (less than 4 items) do not justify being factor- analyzed. Table 4.9 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.9. FINAL MANAGERIAL, STRUCTURAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS SCALES

Items	Definition
Top Management Emphasis	
TMEM1	Top managers repeatedly tell employees that this bank's survival depends on it's adapting to market trends.
TMEM2	Top managers often tell employees to be oriented to the activities of our competitors.
TMEM3*	Top managers keep telling employees that they must gear up now to meet customers' future needs.
TMEM4*	According to top managers in this bank, serving customers is the most important thing this bank does.
Top Management: Risk Aversion	
TMRA1	Top managers in this bank believe that higher financial risks are worth taking for higher rewards.
TMRA2	Top managers in this bank like to take big financial risks.
TMRA3	Top managers in this bank encourage the development of innovative marketing strategies, knowing well that some will fail.
TMRA4*	Top managers in this bank like to play it safe.
TMRA5*	Top managers in this bank like to implement plans only if they are very certain that they will work.
Interdepartmental Conflict	
IDCF1*	When employees of several departments get together, tensions frequently run high.

TABLE 4.9 CONTINUED

IDCF2*	Employees in one department generally dislike interacting with those from other departments.
IDCF3	Employees from different departments feel that the goals of their respective departments are in harmony with each other.
IDCF4	Protecting one's department turf is considered to be a way of life in this bank.
IDCF5*	The objectives pursued by the Customers' Service Department are incompatible with those of the other departments.
IDCF6	There is little or no interdepartmental conflict in this bank.
IDCF7	Most departments in this bank get along very well with each other.

Interdepartmental Connectedness scale

IDCD1	In this bank, it is easy to talk with virtually anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.
IDCD2	There is ample opportunity for "hall talk" among individuals from different departments in this bank.
IDCD3	In this bank, employees from different departments feel comfortable calling each other when the need arises.
IDCD 4*	Managers in this bank discourage employees from discussing work-related matters with those who are not their immediate managers or subordinates.
IDCD 5	Managers in this bank (branch) are quite accessible to those in other banks (branches).
IDCD 6*	Managers in this bank (branch) can easily schedule meetings with their counterparts in other branches.
IDCD 7*	Communication from one bank to another is expected to be routed through proper channels.

Formalization Scale

ORGFM1	I feel that I am my own boss in most matters.
ORGFM2	An employee can make his/her own decisions without checking with anybody else.
ORGFM3	How things are done in this bank is left up to the person doing the work.
ORGFM4	Most employees in this bank make their own rules on the job.
ORGFM5*	The employees are constantly being monitored for rule violations.
ORGFM6*	Employees in this bank feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules.
ORGFM7	Employees in this bank are allowed to do almost as they please.

Centralization Scale

ORGCN1*	Little action can be taken in this bank until a manager approves a decision.

TABLE 4.9 CONTINUED

ORGCN 2	An employee who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged in this bank.
ORGCN 3	Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.
ORGCN 4	I have to ask my immediate manager before I can do almost anything.
ORGCN 5	Any decision I make has to have my managers' approval.
Reward System Scale	
ORGRW 1*	No matter which branch they are in, employees in this bank get recognized for being oriented to competitive moves.
ORGRW 2*	Customer satisfaction assessments influence top managers' pay in this bank.
ORGRW 3	Formal rewards (e.g., pay raise, promotion) are forth-coming to any employee who consistently provides good market information.
ORGRW 4	Performance of customers' service employees is measured by the strength of the relationship they build with the customers.
ORGRW 5	In this bank, we use customer polls for evaluating our employees.

As shown in Table 4.9, 2 items (TMEM3 and TMEM4) of the original 4 items on the top management emphasis's scale were removed because of confirmatory alpha factor analysis assessment. Both items were related to top management customer orientation. A possible explanation for the removal of the 2 items was that marketing is not yet dominant in Jordan. The marketing function is not a priority for Jordanian managers according to their lack of marketing training and the nature of the supply economy as the case in developing countries, including Jordan. As shown also in Table 4.9, 2 items of the original 5-item top management risk aversion scale were removed as a result of confirmatory alpha factor analysis assessment. The 2 items were TMRA4 (top management in this bank like to play it safe) and TMRA5 (top management in this bank liked to implement plans only if they are very certain that they will work). Given the timing of the survey, the logical explanation for the removal of TMRA4 and TMRA5 scale items as a by-product of the banking scandal and the political environment in the region may have clouded the perception of many of the respondents.

All 7 items (IDCF1-IDCF7) of the interdepartmental conflict scale were dropped from the analysis because of low reliability (.55). As mentioned earlier in the literature, Jordanian managers are not confrontational, and they do not tolerate conflict. The cultural values of collectivism, high power distance, and uncertainty avoidance enforce this system. Depending on the personal values and educational backgrounds of the respondents, the conflict scale items, because of the nature of their wording, may have been of a nature as to suffer more than other scale items.

In contrast to the interdepartmental conflict scale, of the original 7-item interdepartmental connectedness scale, only items IDCD6 (managers in this bank/branch can easily schedule meetings with their counterparts in other branches) and IDCD 7 (communication from one bank to another is expected to be routed through proper channels) were removed. The possible explanation for the removal of these 2 items may be related to the nature of respondents who are members of the management teams. Apparently, it is unlikely for a branch manager to schedule meetings with his/her counterparts in other branches without approval from the top general management, but managers could use informal means of communication without prior approval of the top management in their respective bank.

The results of the organizational systems scales (formalization, centralization, and reward system) assessment are shown in Table 4.9. Formalization scale-item ORGFM5 (the employees are constantly being monitored for rule violations) and item

ORGFM6 (employees in this bank feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules) were removed from the analysis. Both items related to the controlling behavior in the bank. As shown from this study population, the respondents were highly educated and held a key position in their respective banks. Thus, based on the respondents' nature and educational backgrounds, the removal of these 2 items is justifiable. Furthermore, item ORGCN1 (little action can be taken in this bank until managers approves a decision.) was removed from the centralization scale. A possible explanation for the removal of this item may be the wording of the statement "little action" influenced the respondent's perception. However, given the demographic characteristics of the respondents indicated that the respondents were decision-makers. Thus, their responses to items ORGFM5, ORGFM6, and ORGCN1 were influenced by their managerial positions as decision-makers.

Likewise, 2 items were removed from the original 5-item reward system scale. The items removed were ORGRW1 (no matter which branch they are in, employees in this bank get recognized for being oriented to competitive moves) and ORGRW 2 (customer satisfaction assessments influence top managers' pay in this bank). The removal of the 2 items may be related to their contradiction with the reward systems in most Jordanian banks. As mentioned earlier in the literature, rewards are distributed according to conformity and loyalty and mostly equality between employees. This fact may have been instrumental in the respondent's strong disagreement with the contents of the 2 items.

Performance Scale

The factor analysis assessments showed that all 3 items on the scale of performance were reliable and entered the final analysis. Table 4.10 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.10. FINAL-ITEMS OF PERFORMANCE SCALE

Items	Definition
Performance scale	
PERF1	Overall business performance of the bank last year.
PERF2	Overall performance of the bank relative to major competitors last year was.
PERF3	Overall sales growth of the bank relative to major competitors last year was.

National Culture Scale

The final NC scale contained 19 items, after 6 items were deleted as a result of the factor analysis assessments. Table 4.11 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.11. FINAL 19-ITEM NATIONAL CULTURE SCALE

Items	Definition
Power Distance	
NCPD1	In this bank (branch), the managers make most decisions without consulting others
NCPD2	I always conform to my managers' wishes.

TABLE 4.11 CONTINUED

NCPD3	I believe that those managers who ask opinions too often of subordinates are weak or incompetent.
NCPD4	In this bank, I tend to avoid any potential arguments with my managers.
NCPD5	In this bank, I am always afraid to disagree with managers.
Uncertainty Avoidance	
NCUA1	In this bank, I like to work in a well-defined job where the requirements are clear.
NCUA2	It is important for me to work for a bank that provides high employment stability.
NCUA3	Clear and detailed rules / regulation are needed so employees know what is expected of them.
NCUA4	In this bank, if I am uncertain about the responsibilities of a job, I get very anxious.
NCUA5	In a situation in which other peers evaluate me, I feel that clear and explicit guidelines should be used.
Individualism	
NCID1**	I do not support my colleagues (group) when I feel they are wrong.
NCID2**	It is important for me that my job leaves sufficient time for my personal or family life.
NCID3**	If my team (group) is slowing me down, it is better to leave and work alone.
NCID4*	It is important that I have a considerable freedom to adopt my own approach to the job.
NCID5	It is better to work in a group than as individuals.
NCID6*	Groups make better decisions than individuals.
NCID7	I prefer to be responsible for my own decisions.
NCID8	Contributing to the group is the most important aspect of work.
NCID9**	My personal accomplishments are more important to me than group success.
Masculinity	
NCMS1	It is important to help others on the job.
NCMS2	It is important for me to have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement.
NCMS3	It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful bank.
NCMS4	It is important for me to have a job that has an opportunity for high earnings.
NCMS5	It is important that I outperform my colleagues in this bank.
NCMS6	It is important for me to work with colleagues who cooperate well with one another.

TABLE 4.11 CONTINUED

*. 2 NCID scale items removed as a result of coefficient alpha estimation
** 4 NCID scale items removed as a result of factor analysis
Final 19 NC scale items in the analysis

Secondly, from the 25-item national culture scales, 6 items (NCID1, NCID2, NCID3, NCID4, NCID6, and NCID9) were removed during the factor analysis processes. It is noteworthy that all 6 items were extracted from one dimension, namely "individualism." All these items reflect the collectivist culture values in which the group is the dominant structure; thus, values such as conformity, coordination, harmony, and sacrifices are upheld, and any contradiction or threats to these basic values are resistible. However, Jordanian society is in a transitional stage in its attempts to move from being traditional to the stage of modernization. In this transitional stage Jordanian behavior is influenced by a bundle or mixed values. At one time, individual acting in the most traditional conservative manner, and on other occasions he or she is acting in the most modern fashion. Thus, the removal of the individualism items was a reflection of the state of values among the population of this study. Most respondents were exposed to Western cultural value of individualism, but it seems they are holding for their traditional values of collectivism.

The Country Institutional Profiles Scale

The final CIPF scale contained 10 items, after 3 items were deleted as results of the factor analysis assessments. Table 4.12 presents the final scale.

TABLE 4.12. FINAL 10-ITEM COUNTRY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE SCALE

Items	Definition
Country Institutional Profiles Scale	
CIPF1**	The government sets aside part of its deposits and contracts for new and small banks.
CIPF2	Government organizations in this country assist individuals with starting businesses, including banking.
CIPF3	Local and central governments have special support available for individuals who want to start a new business, including a bank.
CIPF4	The government sponsors organizations that help new businesses, including banks to develop.
CIPF5**	Even after failing in an earlier business, such as a bank, the government assists entrepreneurs in starting again.
CIPF6**	Bankers know how to legally protect a new banking business.
CIPF7	Those who start new banking businesses know how to deal with high risk.
CIPF8	Those who start new banking businesses know how to manage risk.
CIPF9	Most people who start new banking businesses know where to find information about markets for their services.
CIPF10	Turning new ideas into businesses, including banks, are an admired career path in this country.
CIPF11	In this country, innovative and creative thinking is viewed as the route to success.
CIPF12	Entrepreneurs are admired in this country.
CIPF13	People in this country tend to greatly admire those who start their own businesses.

*. 2 NCID scale items removed as a result of coefficient alpha estimation
** 4 NCID scale items removed as a result of factor analysis
Final 19 NC scale items in the analysis

Finally, 3 items (CIPF1, CIPF5, and CIPF6) from the original 13-item country institutional profile scale were removed as a result of the factor analysis process. It is noticeable that all 3 items deal with the issue of government support and management of new banks. For instance, items CIPF1 and CIPF5 relate to governmental support for new banks. The explanation for removing these items from the analysis is justifiable in light of the new economic reform in Jordan. Recently, the Jordanian government is minimizing its intervention in economic activities and adopting free market economy. However, in the last three decades, expansion in the banking industry was carried out successfully by the private sector.

Item CIPF6 (bankers know how to legally protect a new banking business) is harder to explain in light of expansion of the banking industry in the last three decades. The only artifact that may have influenced the respondent's perception of this item was the banking scandal, which clouded the economic climate at the time of the survey. At the time of the survey, the local media were reporting this scandal, raising public concerns about bankers' managerial and legal abilities to protect their banking activities.

Hypotheses Testing

The current research poses 26 separate research hypotheses, which were empirically tested via multivariate regression analysis. In an effort to test the null hypotheses related to these 26 research hypotheses, a series of multiple regression models were presented for the purpose of identifying the significant factors in determining the performance of banks in Jordan. In addition, the regression models were used to indicate the various associations of each model's independent and dependent variables.

In each of these regression models, the following indicators were analyzed to explain the variation in the dependent variables: the coefficient of determination R square (R^2), which indicates the amount of variation in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables in a regression equation was reported. In other words, the R square (R^2) indicates the percentage of the total variation in the dependent variable values attributable to, or explained by, the independent variables in a regression equation (Mendenhall and Sincich 1989).

One drawback of using the R^2 criterion is that the value of R^2 will increase when new independent variables are added to the model. Therefore, the decision of when to add or not add new variables to the regression model becomes a subjective one (Mendenhall and Sincich 1989). However, the values of coefficient of determination (R^2) that indicate whether adding or eliminating a variable will result in a significant increase or decrease in the total explanatory variables estimates are reported in this study. The F value is a criterion to evaluate the overall usefulness of the regression model in analyzing, predicting, or explaining the variation in the dependent variables and also is reported (Bohrnstedt and Knoke 1982). In this study, the model is statistically significant if the value of F is larger than .05 (Prob > F), which is the level of significance. However, some variables were considered significant, even if the value of F is .10 because of the nature of the research. Furthermore, R square changes and F change were reported.

The Durbin-Watson d statistics were also reported in this study as a statistical tool to test for the presence of residual correlation (see Appendix F). The measure of this test ranges from 0 to 4. If the value of the Durbin-Watson test is near zero, it indicates a presence of significant positive autocorrelation, while a value close to 4 implies the presence of a significant negative autocorrelation. A value near 2 indicates that there is little or no significant autocorrelation, which means that all pairs of error or residual terms are independent and that the regression analysis is useful (Mendenhall and McClave, 1981).

The parameter estimates of betas and corresponding P- value (P significance) are also important indicators in the regression analysis. The parameter estimate of beta (β) provides a useful interpretation of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The (β) value, which may be either positive or negative, indicates the amount of increase or decrease in a dependent variable for one unit of difference in the independent variable, controlling for the other independent variables. The P value corresponding to each coefficient of estimates refers to the level of significance of that independent variable. If the P value of the independent variable is less than the level of significance, which in this study is 0.05, it indicates that the independent variable had a significant relationship with the dependent variable, holding other independent variables in the regression equation constant (Bohrnstedt and Knoke 1982; Cohen and Cohen 1975).

A total of 8 regression models have been estimated to test all the hypotheses in the study. The regression models used in this study to investigate the hypothesized relationships between the constructs in the proposed contingency model are shown below. In these regressions, a bank's performance was the dependent variable, while market and entrepreneurial orientations were the independent variables. Two control variables were also incorporated as independent variables in the regression equations. The hypothesized impacts of the antecedents on the two orientations were presented in the regression models. Regression models were utilized to identify and analyze the role of two moderating variables, national culture and country institutional profiles, on the effects of the two orientations on the banks' performance. Their moderating roles were investigated through their introduction into the regression model relationships. The mathematical representation of the hypothesized relationships between antecedents, market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, national culture, country institutional profile, and performance variables in the proposed models are as follows:

Model 1: Two variables, number of employees (NE) and number of customers (NS), were used as controlling variables and tested by estimating the following regression equation:

$$MO_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + e_1$$

Where:

MO_1	= market orientation.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 2: Two variables, number of employees (NE) and number of customers (NS), were used as controlling variables. The equation is as follows:

$$EO_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + e_1$$

Where:

EO_1	= entrepreneurial orientation.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 3: Eight variables, top management emphasis, top management risk-aversion, interdepartmental conflict, interdepartmental connectedness, organizational formalization, centralization, departmentalization, and rewards systems, were used as an antecedents variables of market orientation and were tested by estimating by the following regression equation:

$$MO_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + \beta_1 (TMEM) + \beta_2 (TMRA) + \beta_6 (IDCD)$$

$$+ \beta_8 (ORGFM) + \beta_{10} (ORGCN) + \beta_{12} (ORGDP) + \beta_{14} (ORGRW) + e_1$$

Where:

MO_1	= market orientation.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
TMEM	= top management emphasis.
TMRA	= top management risk aversion.
IDCD	= interdepartmental connectedness.
ORGFM	= formalization.
ORGCN	= centralization.
ORGDP	= departmentalization.
ORGRW	= reward system.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 4: Six variables, top management risk-aversion, interdepartmental conflict, interdepartmental connectedness, organizational formalization, centralization, and departmentalization, were used as an antecedents variables of entrepreneurial orientation and were tested by estimating by the following regression equation:

$$EO_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + \beta_3\,(TMRA) + \beta_7\,(IDCD) + \beta_9\,(ORGFM) + \beta_{11}\,(ORGCN) + \beta_{13}\,(ORGDP) + e_1$$

Where:

EO	= entrepreneurial orientation.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
TMRA	= top management risk aversion.
IDCD	= interdepartmental connectedness.
ORGFM	= formalization.
ORGCN	= centralization.
ORGDP	= departmentalization.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 5: Two variables, number of employees (NE) and number of customers (NS), were used as controlling variables of banks' performance, and were tested by estimating the following regression equation:

$$PF_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + e_1$$

Where:

PF_1	= banks' performance.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 6: This model included the controlling variables, market orientation, and entrepreneurial orientation and was tested by estimating the following equation:

$$PF_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + \beta_1\,(MO) + \beta_2\,(EO) + e_1$$

Where:

PF_1	= banks' performance.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
e_1	= the error term.

<u>Model 7</u>: The moderating variables, national culture (NC), and country institutional profiles (CIPF), regressed in the banks' performance (PF_1). Estimating the following regression equation tested this model:

$$PF_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\, (NE) + \beta\, ns\, (NS) + \beta_1 (MO) + \beta_2 (EO) + \beta_3 (NCPD) + \beta_4 (NCUA) + \beta_5 (NCID) + \beta_6 (NCMS) + \beta_7 (CP) + e_1.$$

Where:

PF	= banks' performance.
NE	= number of employees.
NS	= number of customers.
MO	= market orientation.
EO	= entrepreneurial orientation.
NCPD	= national culture power distance.
NCUA	= national culture uncertainty avoidance.
NCID	= national culture individualism.
NCMS	= national culture masculinity.
CP	= country institutional profiles.
e_1	= the error term.

Model 8: This model represented the interaction effects among the variables in the contingency framework in Figure 1, which was tested by estimating the following regression equation:

$$PF_1 = a_1 + \beta\, ne\,(NE) + \beta\, ns\,(NS) + \beta_1 (MO) + \beta_2 (EO) + \beta_3 (NCPD) + \beta_4 (NCUA) + \beta_5 (NCID) + \beta_6 (NCMS) + \beta_7 (CP) + + \beta_8 (MO*NCPD) + \beta_9 (MO*NCUA) + \beta_{10} (MO*NCID) + \beta_{11} (MO*NCMS) + \beta_{12} (MO*CP) + \beta_{13} (EO*NCPD) + \beta_{14} (EO*NCUA) + \beta_{15} (EO*NCID) + \beta_{16} (EO*NCMS) + \beta_{17} (EO*CP) + e_1.$$

Where:

PF_1 = banks' performance (PF).

NE = number of employees.

NS = number of customers.

MO = market orientation.

EO = entrepreneurial orientation.

NCPD = national culture power distance.

NCUA = national culture uncertainty avoidance.

NCID = national culture individualism.

NCMS = national culture masculinity.

CP = country institutional profiles.

MO*NCPD = market orientation * national culture power distance.

MO*NCUA = market orientation * national culture uncertainty avoidance.

MO*NCID = market orientation * national culture individualism.

MO*NCMS = market orientation * national culture masculinity.

MO*CP = market orientation * country institutional profiles.

EO*NCPD = entrepreneurial orientation * national culture power distance.

EO*NCUA = entrepreneurial orientation * national culture uncertainty avoidance.

EO*NCID = entrepreneurial orientation * national culture individualism.

EO*NCMS = entrepreneurial orientation * national culture masculinity.

EO*CP = entrepreneurial orientation * country institutional profiles.

e_1 = the error term.

Regression Results

The progression of the regressions undertaken proceeds in four steps as follows: In the first step, regression models 1, 2, and 5 included the independent controlling variables number of employees and number of customers to control for the additional determinants of the MO, EO, and PF (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). In the second step, regression models 3 and 4 included the independents antecedents (1) top management emphasis on market orientation, (2) top management risk aversion, (3) interdepartmental connectedness, (4) formalization, (5) centralization, (6) departmentalization, and (7) reward system to determine the impact of these antecedents in the degree of MO and EO in the banking industry in Jordan. In the third step, regression model 6 included the controlling variables, MO and EO to test their impact on the dependent variables banks' performance in Jordan. Finally, in step four, the interaction terms between the main constructs MO, EO and the moderating variables NC and CIPF were regressed to determine the role of moderating variables in moderating the effects of MO and EO on the banks' performance. A collective summary of the results of the regression (model 1 through 8) is shown in Table 4.13. However, the regression results for each model are presented in Appendix D.

TABLE 4.13. REGRESSION RESULTS

Regression Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Dependent Variables	MO_1	EO_1	$MO1_1$	EO_1	PF_1	PF_1	PF_1	PF_1
R^2	.009	.019	.320	.133	.031	.192	.239	.263
P-Value	0.97	.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
NE	-.007 (.058)***	-.01 (.017)**	-.00001 (.997)	-.0004 (.357)	-.01 (.000)*	-.01 (.001)*	-.01 (.017)**	-.01 (.018)**
NS	-.00006 (.820)	-.003 (.334)	-.001 (.596)	-.004 (.176)	.003 (.325)	.004 (.150)	.004 (.177)	.004 (.155)
MO	---	---	---	---	---	.149 (.034)**	.08 (.216)	.238 (.024)**
EO	---	---	---	---	---	.363 (.000)*	.272 (.000)*	.205 (.030)**
TMEM	---	---	.269 (.000)*	---	---	---	---	---
TMRA	---	---	.05 (.063)***	.08 (021)**	---	---	---	---
IDCD	---	---	.158 (.000)*	.261 (.000)*	---	---	---	---
ORGFM	---	---	.02 (.378)	-.139 (.000)*	---	---	---	---
ORGCN	---	---	.07 (.007)*	.02 (.523)	---	---	---	---
ORGRW	---	---	.125 (.000)*	---	---	---	---	---
ORGDP	---	---	.005 (.979)	-.01 (.564)	---	---	---	---
NCPD	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.08 (.854)	.002 (.963)
NCUA	---	---	---	---	---	---	.138 (.007)*	.127 (.018)**
NCID	---	---	---	---	---	---	.07 (.058)***	-.08 (.037)**
NCMS	---	---	---	---	---	---	.07 (.185)	.05 (.394)
CIP							.127 (.074)***	.165 (.032)**
MO*NCPD	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.167 (.079)***
MO*NCUA	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.09 (.391)
MO*NCID	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.122 (.175)

MO*NCMS	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.179 (.14)
MO*CP	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.372 (.020)**
EO*NCPD	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.02 (.374)
EO*NCUA	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.121 (.221)
EO*NCID	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.07 (.365)
EO*NCMS	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.112 (273)
EO*CP	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.221) (.106)
Values in parenthesis represent the P-value: * P < 0.01, ** P < 0.05, ***P < 0.10.								

As shown in Table 4.13, model 1 is significant at .10 levels with an R^2 of 1%. The parameter of estimate of β coefficient (β = -.07, P=. 058) was significantly negative for the number of full-time employees. The β coefficient (β = -.0006, P=. 820) for number of customers shows that this variable had no impact on the dependent variable MO.

Model 2 is significant at .05 levels with an R^2 of 1.9%. The β coefficient and its corresponding value (β = -.01, P=. 017) indicate that the independent controlling variable number of employees demonstrated a significant negative impact on the variance of the dependent variable, entrepreneurial orientation. The β coefficient (β = -.0003, P= .334) for number of customers variable shows this variable had no impact on the level of entrepreneurial orientation in Jordanian banks.

The regression results in Table 4.13 showed that model 3 is significant at .01 levels with an R^2 of 32%. Also, the results of regression model 3 revealed that the β coefficients were for the controlling variables number of employees (β = .000, P=. 997) and number of customers (β = -.001, P=. 596) demonstrating that both controlling variables had no impact on the variance of the dependent variable, market orientation (MO).

The results of model 3 showed that the Beta coefficients were positive for the independent top management emphasis (β =. 269, P=. 000), top management risk aversion (β =. 05, P=. 063), interdepartmental connectedness (β =. 158, P=. 000), organization centralization (β = .07, P=. 007), and organization reward system (β =. 125, P=. 000) variables indicating that the independent variables demonstrated a significant positive impact on the variance of the dependent variable, market orientation (MO). Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses and state that H_1, H_2, H_6, H_9, H_{14} have been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

Furthermore, the β for the independent variables, organization formalization (β = -.02, P=. 378), and number of departments (β = .0005, P=. 979) indicated that these independent variables had no impact in determining the degree of the dependent variable, market orientation (MO). Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses, and state H_8 and H_{10} have not been empirically supported to have any significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

In regression model 4, top management emphasis (H_1) and the reward system (H_{14}) were hypothesized to affect market orientation but not entrepreneurial orientation; both variables were excluded from model 4. Table 4.13 indicates that this model is significant at .01 levels with an R^2 of 13%.

The β for the controlling variables number of employees (β = -.004, P=. 357) and for number of customers (β = -.004, P=. 176) demonstrated no impact on the variance of the dependent variable, entrepreneurial orientation, in the banking industry in Jordan.

However, the β coefficients for the independent variables top management risk aversion (β = .08, P=. 021) and interdepartmental connectedness (β .261, P=. 000) demonstrated significant positive impact on the variance of the dependent variable EO, while organization formalization (β = -.139, P=. 000) demonstrated a significant negative impact on the variance of the dependent variable EO. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses, and state that H_3, H_7, and H_{11} have been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

The β for the independent variables organizational centralization (β = .027, P=. 523) and number of departments (β = -.027, P=. 564) demonstrated no significant impact on the variance of the dependent variable, entrepreneurial orientation (EO). Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses and state that H_{12}, and H_{13} have not been empirically supported to have a significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

In regression model 5, the controlling variables, number of employees and number of customers were also regressed on the dependent variable banks' performance (PF) to control the effects of additional determinants of banks' performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). The empirical results of model 5 are shown in Tables 4.13. The model is significant at level .01 with an R^2 of 3.1%. It should be noted that once again the β (β = -.01, P=. 000) for number of employees was significantly negative. However, the β for the number of customers (β =. 003, P=. 325) indicated that this variable had no impact on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF) in Jordan.

In model 6, market orientation (MO) and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) were added to the equation as independent variables. The empirical results of model 6 in Table 4.13 revealed that this model is significant at .01 level with an R^2 of 19%. The results of this model showed that the β coefficients (β = -.01, P=. 001) for the independent controlling variable number of employees was significantly negative, while for number of customers was not significant (β = .004, P=. 150).

The coefficient of estimates (β = .149, P=. 034) for market orientation and (β = .363, P =. 000) for entrepreneurial orientation variable were positive, indicating that both market and entrepreneurial orientations variables demonstrated a significant positive impact on the variance of the dependent variable banks' performance (PF). Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses, and state that H_{15} and H_{16} have been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

As shown in Table 4.13 the moderating variables in model 7, national culture (NC) and the country institutional profile (CIPF), were added to the equation of this model. The model is significant at .000 level with R^2 of 23%. The results also showed that the β coefficients (β = -.101, P=. 017) were significantly negative for the controlling variable number of employees, while there was (β = .008, P=. 177) no impact for the number of customers variable.

Furthermore, the β coefficient indicated that MO (β = .08, P=. 216) had no impact on the dependent variable PF, while (β = .272, P=. 000) entrepreneurial orientation (EO) variable showed a significant positive influence on the banks performance in Jordan. The national culture dimensions varied on their influences on the Jordanian banks' performance. For instance, power distance (β = -.08, P=. 854) and masculinity (β .072, P=.185) had no influence on the variance of PF. Uncertainty avoidance (β = .138, P=. 007) showed a positive impact on the dependent variables PF, and individualism (β = -.077, P=. 058) demonstrated a negative one. The country institutional profile (CIPF) demonstrated significant positive (β = .127, P=.074) impact on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF).

In regression model 8, the multiplicative interaction terms (MO*NC, MO*CP, EO*NC, and EO*CP) variables were added to assess the moderating role of national culture and the country institutional profile on the MO-performance and EO-performance relationships. The regression results in Table 4.13 showed that this model is significant at .01 level with an R^2 of 26%. The results of regression 8 showed no changes in the pattern of the controlling variables, number of employees and number of customers. Both variables behaved in the same manner. While number of employees (β = -.01, P=. 018) had a significant negative impact, number of customers (β = .004, P=. 155) showed no impact on the dependent variables banks' performance. The findings of regression model 8 indicated that both market orientation (β = .238, P=. 024) and entrepreneurial orientation (β =. 205, P=. 030) were significantly positive.

The moderating role for national culture varies in its influence on the MO-PF and EO-PF relationships. While uncertainty avoidance (β = .127, P=. 018) had significantly positive influence on the PF, in contrast individualism (β= -. 086, P=. 037) had a significant negative influence. Furthermore, power distance (β = .002, P=.

963) and masculinity (β = .05, P=. 394) had no influence on the banks' performance. However, the country institutional profiles variable (β = .165, P=. 032) had a significantly positive impact on the independent variable, the banks' performance.

It was noted that, from among the interactions variables, only market orientation* power distance (β = .167, P=. 079) and market orientation * country institutional profile (β = .372, P=. 020) had a significant positive moderating roles on the effect of MO on the banks' performance in Jordan. However, the β for moderating variables MO*NCUA (β = - .09, P=. 391), MO*NCID (β = - .122, P=. 175), MO*NCMS (β = - .179, P=. 140), EO*NCPD (β = - .022, P=. 734), EO*NCUA (β = .121, P=. 221), EO*NCID (β = .07. P=. 385), EO*NCMS (β = .112, P=. 273), and EO*CP (β = - .221, P=. 106) indicating that these moderating variables had no moderating role on the relationships between market orientation and banks' performance, and entrepreneurial orientation and banks' performance in the banking industry in Jordan.

Based upon the results of model 8, H_{17} to H_{26} could be explained as follows:

H_{17} and H_{18}. The dimension of national culture power distance (NCPD) variable demonstrated no influence on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF). But this variable's interaction with MO (MO*NCPD) showed a significant positive role on moderating the effects of MO on the variance of dependent variable, bank' performance, while power distance had no moderating role on the effect of EO on the banks' performance. Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses, and state that H_{17} has been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance, while we fail to reject the null hypotheses, and state that H_{18} has not been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

H_{19} and H_{20}: Although uncertainty avoidance (NCUA) variable demonstrated a significant positive influence on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF), it showed no significant moderating role during the interaction with neither MO (MO*NCUA) nor EO (EO*NCUA). However, the parameter of estimate (β = .124, P=. 018) for the independent variable uncertainty avoidance dropped down to (β = - .09, P=. 391) and (β = .121, P=. 221), respectively, during the interaction phase with MO and EO. Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses, and state that H_{19} and H_{20} have not been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

H_{21} and H_{22}: Likewise, individualism (NCID) variable demonstrated a significant negative influence on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF), but it shows no role on moderating the effects of MO (MO*NCID) or EO (EO*NCID) on the variance of dependent variable, banks' performance. Moreover, the β (β = -.086, P=. 037) associated with individualism changed after the interaction phase with MO and EO to (β = - .122, P=. 175) and (β = - .07, P=. 365), respectively. Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses, and state that H_{21} and H_{22} have not been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

H_{23} and H_{24}: The masculinity (NCMS) variable demonstrated no influence (β = .05, P= .394) on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF) either independently or through interactions with MO (β = - .179, P=. 14) and EO (β =

.112, P=. 273). Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses, and state that H_{23} and H_{24} have not been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the level .000 of significance.

H_{25} and H_{26}: The country institutional profile (CIPF) variable (β = .165, P=. 032), demonstrated an independent significant positive influence on the variance of the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF). At the same time, it shows (β = .372, P=. 020) a significant role on moderating the effect of MO (MO*CP), but not the effect of EO (β = -.221, P=. 106) on the variance of dependent variable, banks' performance, in Jordan. Furthermore, the β coefficients for CIPF increased from (β = .165, P=. 032) before the interaction with MO to (β = .372, P=. 020) after the interaction with MO. Therefore, we fail to accept the null hypotheses, and state that H_{25} has been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance. We fail to reject the null hypotheses, and state that H_{26} has not been empirically supported to a highly significant degree at the .000 level of significance.

The study findings demonstrated, in effect, that a significant positive relationship exists among market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, and performance. And more importantly, it was found that national culture dimensions (power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity) played a limited role on the effect of MO and EO on the banks' performance in Jordan. From all the national culture dimensions, only power distance had a significant role of moderating the relationship between MO-PF. However, no other moderating role was found for any of the national culture dimensions on the EO-PF relationship. Similarly, the country institutional profile had positively moderated the impact of market orientation on the banks' performance, but no moderating role was found for this variable on the effect of, and entrepreneurial orientation on, the banks' performance.

Furthermore, the result of Durbin-Watson d statistics test showed a statistical test value near 2 indicating that there is little or no significant autocorrelation, which means that all pairs of errors or residual terms are independent and that the regression analysis is useful (Mendenhall and McClave 1981). Furthermore, the statistical analysis indicated that there was no multicollinearity problem evident in the regression models. The important indicators of VIF, and tolerance all indicated little or no difficulty with collinearity or multicollinearity between the variables. Results indicated that the impact of the independent, moderating, and interaction variables on the dependent variable of the banks' performance couldn't be attributed to any existing correlation between any of the independent variables in the equation. Rather, the effects noted are due to the independent attributes of the underlying market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, national culture, and country institutional profile constructs. Conclusively, it appeared as a result of the examination of the various plots that there is no significant skewness or kurtosis and no significant violations of normality. It looks as though the potential correlation between the constructs and scales variables was largely removed during the prior factor analysis assessments during the generation of the scales employed in this research.

Chapter Summary

The previous regression analysis and discussion embedded the empirical investigation of the research hypotheses presented in Chapter II. The demographic and organizational characteristics of the sample were summarized. Furthermore, the psychometric analysis (explanatory alpha and rotation factors analysis) techniques used in the assessment of the scales (antecedents scale, market orientation scale, entrepreneurial orientation scale, national culture scale, and country institutional profile scale) utilized for hypotheses testing. The results of the explanatory alpha factor analysis and exploratory factor analysis with rotation demonstrated high degrees of inter-item reliability and construct validity for all scales. Furthermore, multivariate regression techniques were used to investigate the degree of statistical support for the research hypotheses. A summary of the statistical analysis findings and their managerial implications are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to extend Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) market orientation model to the banking industry of Jordan. Specifically, the study (1) added entrepreneurial orientation as a second mediating variable with market orientation, (2) incorporated national culture and country institutional profile as moderators on the performance effects of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation, and (3) replicated other relationships in the market orientation model of Jaworski and Kohli in the banking industry of Jordan. This study attempted to contribute to the literature by addressing the following research questions: What is the state of market orientation and entrepreneurial orientation among Jordanian banks? To what extent do top management, organizational, and structural factors influence the market and entrepreneurial orientations of Jordanian banks? Do market and entrepreneurial orientations influence the performance of banks in Jordan? Do national culture and country institutional profiles moderate the effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations on the performance of banks in Jordan? To achieve these objectives, four instruments were used: Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) scales of market orientation, Covin and Slevin's (1989) scale of entrepreneurial orientation, Hofstede's (1997) scale of national culture, and Busenitz, Gomez, and Spencer's (2000) scale of country institutional profiles.

A national sample of 950 senior managers from 475 bank branches of banks in Jordan participated in this study. Responses were received from 461 participants, yielding a response rate of 48 percent. Because 14 of the questionnaires were incomplete, 447 questionnaires were usable. Adding to this number, 60 responses were collected during the pretesting phase; a total of 507 responses (53 percent) were used in this study.

Conclusion and Policy Implications

The study investigated 26 hypotheses presented in Chapter 2 by using a series of multiple regressions. The policy implications of the research findings are broad and significant, given that the dependent variables of concern to the study, market orientation (MO), entrepreneurial orientation (EO), and the banks' performance (PF) are of significant importance to public, private, and profit-like organizations. The hypotheses, their findings, and policy implications are presented as follows.

The Controlling Variables (Regression Models 1, 2, and 5)

As shown in Table 4:13, the regression results of models 1 through 8 indicated that the controlling variables number of employees and number of customers had different influences on the dependent variables MO, EO, and PF. For instance, the regression results of models 1 and 2 showed that number of employees had a significant negative impact on MO and EO respectively. While the regression results of models 3 and 4 indicated that number of employees had no significant influence on the degree of MO and EO in the banking industry in Jordan. However, the regression results of models 5, 6, 7, and 8 illustrated that number of employees had a negative significant influence on the Jordanian banks' performance. Meanwhile, number of customers had no significant impact on the three dependent variables MO, EO, and PF in all models 1 through 8. However, despite the fact that models 1, 2, and 5 were statistically significant (.097; .007, and 0.000), the low R^2 values (.009, .019 and .031) demonstrated that the controlling variables, in all probability, lacked any real significant predictive power.

These findings may be partially explained by the fact that number of employees may have not been a real reflection of the business activities in a country like Jordan. Employment in the developing countries, including Jordan, could be done for means other than productivity, such as social and political reasons. This conclusion was based on the descriptive statistics presented in Table 4.1. This table indicated that there is one employee for each 150 customers. However, based upon the researcher's conversation with several branch managers, there were indications that customers overlapped between banks and branches. It is common in that part of the world for a customer to deal with more than one bank at the same time.

The Independent Antecedents Variables (Regression Model 3 and Model 4, $H_1 - H_{14}$)

Regression models 3 and 4 were undertaken in response to the research question in this study, which is: To what extents do top management, organizational, and structural factors influence the MO and EO in Jordan?

Antecedents of Market Orientation (Regression Model 3, H_1, H_2, H_6, H_8, H_{10}, H_{12}, and H_{14})

The results of regression model 3 were related to Hypotheses H_1, H_2, H_6, H_8, H_{10}, H_{12}, and H_{14} that represent the antecedents of MO in the banking industry in Jordan as follows:

Hypothesis 1: In Jordan, the greater the top managements' emphasis on market orientation, the greater the market orientation of banks.

The regression results of model 3 supported Hypothesis 1. The parameter of estimate of β (β =. 269, P = .000) for the independent variable, top management's emphasis on MO, indicated that top management was the most important variable in promoting MO in the banking industry in Jordan. This finding may be explained partially by the fact that in the developing countries, including Jordan, elites play not only a facilitative role, but also are role models and symbolize the nation's vision for growth and development. Thus, top management's emphasis on market orientation is likely to encourage employees to generate, disseminate, and respond to market intelligence (Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Moreover, as shown in Table 4.1, the vast majority of the respondents had graduated from universities (81.5%) or community colleges (15.6%) and were likely to be exposed to the market and entrepreneurship orientations because most of them (85.6) had business background.

One major policy implication from H_1 is that top managements in Jordan have the ability and opportunity to drive their banks to be market-oriented. To enhance their banks' market orientation, they have to continue their emphasis on MO by communicating and explaining the advantages of market orientation to their employees through speeches, company publications, policy statements, and mostly their personal actions by providing the necessary resources for employees to be continually sensitive and responsive to market developments.

Hypothesis 2: In Jordan, the greater the risk aversion of top management, the lesser the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 2 was not supported by the statistical findings of regression model 3. Contrary to the expectation, top management risk aversion appeared to have a significant positive affect on promoting MO (β =. 05, P = .063) in the banking industry in Jordan. This finding may be explained partially by the fact that, despite the relative political stability in Jordan, the highly uncertain business environment in the Middle East influenced Jordanian managers' behavior and strategies. In such an environment, managers, including banks' managers, responded by increasing the emphasis on marketing–related activities such as market scanning, research, relationships with customers, and expansion to protect existing market share, and retain customers and revenues (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Another explanation may be related to the fact that the younger generation (e.g., branch managers) of managers who were exposed to Western thought of marketing management understood that implementing market orientation activities entails some risks (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Thus, for a bank to be market-oriented, management has to be willing to take risks. It seems that the new generation of managers were showing more propensity to take risks and try new marketing and management paradigms.

One major policy implication from H_2 is that top managements in Jordan have been aware that risk aversiveness may serve a short-term purpose, but MO is a long-term strategy to take advantage and cope with changes in market and business environments. Jordanian managers have to increase their willingness to take calculated risks, because the elitist and symbolism views of Jordanian bankers and their willingness to take risks and accept occasional failure encouraged and facilitated bank-wide commitment to be market-oriented and to be actively involved in the market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to it. Otherwise, employees in the lower hierarchy are unlikely to be sensitive and responsive to market developments.

Hypothesis 6: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental connectedness, the greater the degree of market orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was supported by regression model 3 findings. Results from model 3 indicated that (β =. 158, P=. 000) interdepartmental connectedness was a significant positive determinant in degree of MO in the banking industry in Jordan. It could be concluded from this finding that the small size of the branches increased their interdependence to achieve their objectives. Consequently, levels of formal as well as informal contacts within and between branches encouraged employees to act in a concerted manner in the process of market intelligence generation, dissemination, and utilization.

The policy implication from H_6 is that top managements in Jordan have to continue their efforts to encourage formal and informal contacts such as meetings, newsletters, speeches, suggestion boxes, and other related formal and informal activities. These activities are essential to enhance employees' connectedness, which is a necessary condition to be market oriented. Furthermore, banks' managers have to encourage more employees' involvements in decisions making processes and information sharing by adopting the participative style of management, instead of the more restrictive consultative style.

Hypothesis 8: In Jordan, the greater the formalization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was not supported by the results of regression model 3. The statistical analysis revealed that formalization ($\beta = -.02$, $P = .378$) was not a significant factor on the degree of MO in the banking industry in Jordan. This finding was in contrast to Narver and Slater's (1991) finding, but supported Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) finding. This result may partially be explained by the fact that the structure of the banking industry was rooted in Western banking systems. Thus, the structure of banks in Jordan can be characterized as organic or near organic more than other typical organizations whose structures were more likely to be mechanical. Other explanations may be related to the international nature of the banking functions, which required banks to adopt similar processes. Furthermore, the highly educated managers in the banking industry were showing more confidence and willingness to empower their employees by other managerial means than just rules and regulations. For these reasons, the silent impact of formalization on MO can be understood in this transitional stage of the Jordanian economy as a whole from the stage of being mixed economy to an open market economy which required those organizations, including banks, to be more open, flexible, and less formal. In sum, the silent influence of formalization on MO was better explained by Jaworski and Kohli (1993, p.65) when they stated, "it would seem that the content of formal rules, rather than their mere presence, is a more important determinant of MO."

One major policy implication from H_8 is that top managements in Jordan have to continue encouraging employees' participation and to be self-motivated, self-controlled, and creative, while reducing their reliance on rules and regulations and other formal means to gain compliance and conformity.

Hypothesis 9: In Jordan, the greater the centralization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was supported by the findings of model 3. Conversely to formalization, centralization (β =. 07, P=. 007) seemed to be a determinant factor of the Jordanian banks' degree of MO. This finding was partially in line with Slater and Narver's (1990) and Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) findings. These scholars reported negative impact for centralization in market intelligence generation and dissemination, but it had a positive impact in the responsiveness or implementation stage. Similarly, because of the nature of the banking industry worldwide, the Jordanian banking industry had to keep pace with international standards, development, and technology. Therefore, it seemed more imitative than creative. Thus, centralization in Jordan sounds like a workable concept to implement developments in the banking industry worldwide. Another factor could be related to the new generation of managers' willingness to delegate responsibilities and decentralized decision-making processes if they have to respond fast enough to customers' needs and wants ahead of their competitors. Once again Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) argument that the importance of centralization content, rather than its mere presence, determined the degree of MO.

One major policy implication from H_9 is that top managements in Jordan have to be aware of the negative impact of centralization on market intelligence generation and dissemination that may hinder the banks' ability to adopt market-orientation. They have to continue their efforts in encouraging employees to accept responsibilities and take actions without fear of failure or penalty.

Hypothesis 10: In Jordan, the greater the departmentalization, the lower the degree of market orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was not supported. The statistical analysis findings indicated that this variable (β =. 005, p =. 979) had no impact on the degree of MO in the banking industry in Jordan. This result may be explained by the nature of the study population, which was banks' branches. The small size of the branches made it difficult to have effective functional departments. In many cases, one employee is acting as a customer relations officer, another is acting as a loan officer, or collection officer and so forth.

Policy implication from this finding is that the banks' top managements have to be aware that departmentalization may hinder inter-functional coordination and interdepartmental connectedness, which are essential elements in determining the degree of market orientation. Thus, top managements have to guard against malfunctions associated with departmentalization such as narrow identification, and "we" versus "them." Top managements have to continue their emphasis on the bank as one unit by encouraging goal interdependency, interdepartmental communication, committees and teamwork, and organizational loyalty and objectives that are expected to enhance interdepartmental connectedness.

Hypothesis 14: In Jordan, the greater the reliance on market-based factors for evaluating and rewarding, the greater the degree of market orientation of banks.

Hypothesis 14 was supported. In contrast to expectation, findings from the statistical analysis demonstrated that, in Jordan, market orientation appeared to be highly impacted by the reward system (β =. 125, P= .000). Literature suggests that reward systems based on customers' satisfaction, relationships, commitments, and other customers related activities promote MO. However, Jordanian managers lean toward equality in distributing rewards. This system seemed to change. The researcher's conversation with several branch managers revealed that recently a combination of reward systems had been used in their respective banks. For instance, branch managers received a percentage of the branch annual net profit, although it was not clear if this reward was based on performance (e.g., customers' satisfaction and relationships). What was clear was that the reward system in Jordan had been moving from being based on equality to being results oriented. One policy implication from this finding is that the banks' management has to encourage the link between performance and reward systems. Customer satisfactions, level of complaints, long-term relationship with customers, and customers' feedback have to be factors in establishing reward systems. In other words, customers have to be encouraged to take the lead, provide feedback, and be the driving force for the banks to be market oriented.

Antecedents of Entrepreneurial Orientation (Regression Models 4, H_3, H_7, H_9, H_{11}, H_{12}, and H_{13})

The results of regression model 4 were related to Hypotheses, H_3, H_7, H_9, H_{11}, H_{12}, and H_{13} that represent the antecedents of EO in the banking industry in Jordan as follows:

Hypothesis 3: In Jordan, the greater the top management risk aversion, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was not supported by results of regression model 4. Contrary to prior hypotheses, the β (β. 08, P =. 021) for top management risk aversion indicated that this variable had a significant positive impact in determining the degree of EO in the banking industry in Jordan. Literature suggested that EO activities might be increasing in the presence of environmental uncertainty (Zahra and Covin 1995). Thus, this finding of hypothesis 3 may be explained partially by the relative stability in Jordan coupled with the step-by-step reform policy and the high uncertainty of the business environment in the Middle East that might have influenced Jordanian managers' behavior and strategies. Jordanian managers, including banks' managers, responded by curtailing their innovativeness, but they concentrated on other EO dimensions such as proactiveness and risk-taking to shield their banks against environmental changes or to capitalize on such opportunities. Moreover, Jordan became a refuge for foreign investors, mainly from neighboring countries, who were looking for a safe place to avoid risks in their homeland. Another explanation may be related to the fact that the young generation (e.g., branches managers) of managers who were exposed to Western thought and principles of marketing and management had more propensity to take risks and try new marketing and management strategies.

The policy implication from H_3 is that top managements in Jordan have to be aware that risk aversiveness could be a short-term policy to face environmental challenges in the Middle East. But EO is a long-term strategy not only to protect banks against changes in environment, but also it enhances their performance and competitiveness. Another policy implication of this finding is that banks' managements have to be aware that risk-taking, not risk-aversiveness, is a main dimension to be entrepreneurially oriented. For banks to be responsive to environmental challenges, they have to keep introducing new products and services; new methods of production, management, and marketing; new markets; and new sources of capital. All these strategies carry a high risk of failure that may jeopardize the banks' position (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Also, managers have to set an example for their employees and encouraged them to be risk-takers and creative by promoting an organizational culture that rewards creativity without penalizing failure.

Hypothesis 7: In Jordan, the greater the interdepartmental connectedness, the greater the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was supported. The statistical analysis showed that interdepartmental connectedness (β =. 261, P= .000) had the strongest link to EO among other variables in model 4. As previously mentioned, interdepartmental connectedness enhanced level of communication, coordination (Jaworski and Kohli 1993), and assistance in helping middle-managers develop a social network that encourages them to take risks and bold decisions in responding to customers' needs and environmental changes (Fukuyama (1995). Thus, this finding may partially be explained by the fact that the population of this study was from the middle managers of the banking industry in Jordan who had more propensity to take risks based on their Western entrepreneurship training. Apparently, these managers had been able to build a social network that encouraged them to take risks, be proactive, and make bold decisions in responding to market and environmental challenges.

The policy implication of this finding is the same as recommended for H_6. Top managements could capitalize in the cultural values of collectivities to promote interdepartmental connectedness between employees. Furthermore, top managements could encourage formal as well as informal contacts by employing communication technology to enhance levels of communication and social networking to promote EO dimensions. Collective activities such as teamwork, brainstorming, and focus groups could be utilized to encourage interdepartmental connectedness and promote EO.

Hypothesis 11: In Jordan, the greater the formalization, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was supported. The statistical analysis findings demonstrated that formalization (β = -.139, P= .000) had a significant negative impact on EO. The negative relationship between EO and formalization may be partially explained by the fact that Jordanian banks' managers, because of their double role as entrepreneurs/managers relied on their entrepreneurial role and become more formal in taking and delegating decisions and authority when it comes to EO because of the potential risk associated with entrepreneurship activities.

One major policy implication from H_{11} is that top managements in Jordan have to reconsider the application of real organic structure to be capable of coping with environmental changes and being adaptive to entrepreneurial orientation.

Hypothesis 12: In Jordan, the greater the centralization, the lower the degree of entrepreneurial orientation of banks.

This hypothesis was not supported by the statistical findings of model 4. The statistical analysis findings demonstrated that centralization (β = .027, P=. 523) had no impact on determining the degree of EO in the banking industry in Jordan. This finding may be partially explained by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) in that it appears that the content of centralization policies, rather than mere presence, is a more important determinant of EO. Apparently, the branches of the banks had enjoyed a certain level of decentralization or relaxed centralization according to the nature of their function. One major policy implication from H_{12} is that top managements in Jordan have to empower employees to make decisions at lower levels of their respective banks to overcome the negative determinant impact of formalization in EO.

Hypothesis 13: In Jordan, the greater the departmentalization, the lower the degree of Entrepreneurial orientation of the banks.

This hypothesis was not supported. The statistical analysis findings indicated that departmentalization (β = -.01, P= .564) had no impact on determining the banks' degree of entrepreneurial orientation. This finding may be partially explained by the nature of the study population, which was the banks' branches. The small size of the branches makes it difficult to have effective functional departments able to interact with each other and carriy out entrepreneurial activities that required collective activities.

One policy implication from this finding is that banks' managements have to encourage the positive side of departmentalization such as enhancing specialization and skills to provide effective support by screening and scanning the business environment for opportunities and pinpointing risk associated with such opportunities to assist the banks' decision-makers to be proactive in capitalizing in potential opportunities, enhance their propensity to take risks, and be creative.

Market and Entrepreneurial Orientation Variables (Regression Model 6, H_{15} - H_{16})

Regression model 6 was undertaken in response to the research question in this study, which is: Do market and entrepreneurial orientations influence the performance of banks in Jordan?

Hypothesis 15: In Jordan, the greater the degree of banks' market orientation, the higher the business performance of banks.

Hypothesis 16: In Jordan, the greater the degree of banks' entrepreneurial orientation, the higher the business performance of banks.

Hypothesis 15 and Hypothesis 16 were supported. The statistical analysis of model 6 demonstrated that MO (β =. 149, P= .034) and EO (β = .363, P=. 000) had a positive significant influence on the dependent variable, banks' performance (PF), in Jordan. What is noted is that the β attached to EO is almost three times larger than the β attached to MO. Given the fact that the larger β is attached to an independent variable, the more important that variable is to be in the variance of the dependent variable. Thus, EO had a more important or had a stronger linkage with the bank's performance than the market orientation of the bank.

These findings are not easy to explain, except that in Jordan entrepreneurs are likely to keep holding the key managerial positions in their banks. The separation between ownership and management or the application of the agency theory of the organization is still a gray area in that part of the world. Based in the fact that most of Jordanian banks' managers are entrepreneurs to start with may explain the strong link between EO and performance. Owners/managers are likely to focus on EO dimensions to expand their banks' activities by opening more branches or venturing into new types of banking activities while giving less attention to market orientation activities. Furthermore, literature suggests that organizations, including banks, increase their entrepreneurial activities while reducing those related to MO as a strategy to shield the organization on face of environmental changes, as is the case in the Middle East nowadays. Apparently, Jordanian managers, including bankers, are acting proactively in capitalizing in these opportunities by enhancing their entrepreneurship and introducing new marketing and managerial techniques, entering new markets, and introducing new technology at the expense of market orientation activities.

The policy implications from these findings are that banks have to balance and weigh which strategy MO or EO they would like to promote. They have to consider that entrepreneurial orientation and market orientation are two necessary strategies for the banks' competitiveness and performance. However, in the long run, market orientation activities have to be highly considered. Since market-oriented banks will not only be able to keep customers and attract others, but they will also stimulate the banks' innovativeness, reactivity, and creativity to respond ahead of competitors in meeting customers' needs and wants.

The Moderating Variables Effects (Regression Models 7 and 8, H_{17} - H_{26})

Regression models 7 and 8 were undertaken in response to the research question in this study, which is as follows: Do national culture and country institutional profiles moderate the effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations on the performance of banks in Jordan?

Findings from the statistical analysis of model 7 indicated that the independent moderating variables reduced the importance of market orientation on the banks' performance to be insignificant (β=. 08, P= .219) while slightly reducing the importance of EO (β = .272, P=. 000). However, the influence of the moderating variables on the banks' performance in Jordan (PF) varies. Power distance (β= -.08, P= .854) and masculinity variables (β= .072, P= .185) had no impacts on the banks' performance. Uncertainty avoidance (β = .138, P= .007) had a significant positive impact, while individualism (β = -.077, P=. 058) had a significant negative impact on the bank' performance in Jordan. Surprisingly, the moderating variable country institutional profiles (CIPF) had a significant positive (β = .127, P =. 074) impact on the performance of banking industry in Jordan.

The Interaction Variables Effects (Regression Model 8, $H_{17} – H_{26}$)

The statistical analysis findings of model 8 demonstrated that several changes took place in the linkages between the independent variables and the dependent variable as a result of introducing the interaction variables to the equation.

The most interesting findings of this model were that adding the interaction variables to the model reduced the importance of EO (β = .205, P=. 024) and made it almost equal to MO (β = .238, P= .030) and that both significantly impacted the banks' performance in Jordan. In other words, in the Jordanian cultural and institutional contexts, MO and EO, had almost the same impacts and importance on the banks' performance. These findings may be partially explained as a result of the nature of Jordanian's cultural values and its institutional profiles as follows:

Hypothesis 17: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower power distance than banks that have higher power distance.

Hypothesis 17 was supported. The statistical analysis of model 8 indicated that (β = .002, P .963) power distance had no influence on the variance of the banks' performance. However, the moderating role of power distance after interaction with market orientation (MO*NCPD) increased (β = .167, P = .079) and became significantly positive. This finding had a significant contribution to the literature. The literature suggested that high power distance cultures, like Jordan, were not suitable for MO activities. Apparently, within the context of the Jordanian culture, the opposite was true. The statistical analysis findings demonstrated that power distance had positively affected the MO-PF relationship compared with the findings of model 7.

This finding can partially be explained by the fact that it was the content of high power distance value, rather than its mere presence, that magnified its moderating role on the relationship between MO-PF in Jordan. The population of this study, who were members of management teams in the banking industry, had been highly connected to the social power base in Jordan. Thus, it was not a surprise that high power distance value had a significant positive role on moderating the effect of MO on the banks' performance. Furthermore, the new generation of managers (population of this study) used open-door policies with their employees and customers in a less formal and less centralized way.

One policy implication is that banks' managements in Jordan have to continue their emphasis on the importance of MO to improve the banks' performance. They have to encourage cultural changes from high power distance to lower power distance culture in order to reduce barriers between employees and encourage communication, cooperation, and interdepartmental connectedness. Top managements have to continue their efforts to move from the bureaucratic structure to be more flexible, informal, and less centralized to promote market orientation culture between their employees.

Hypothesis 18: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower power distance than banks that have higher power distance.

Hypothesis 18 was not supported. Results of model 8 indicated that the β of (EO*NCPD) after the interaction stayed very low (β = -.02, P=. 374) meaning that there was no moderating role for power distance in the consequences of EO on the banks' performance in Jordan. This finding could be explained partially by the fact that, although the population of the study consisted of members of management teams in the banking industry, it seemed their impact on the EO activities was limited. Apparently, decisions related to entrepreneurship dimensions in the banking industry, such as introducing new products, new markets, new technology, and so forth, were more likely to be controlled by the owner/managers because of the potential risk associated with such dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation. One policy implication is that bank managements in Jordan have to continue their efforts to lower power distance in order to install an entrepreneurship culture in which employees will be encouraged to take initiative, be creative, and be willing to take risks.

Hypothesis 19: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower uncertainty avoidance than banks that have higher uncertainty avoidance.

Hypothesis 19 was not supported. The statistical analysis of model 8 indicated that the β for uncertainty avoidance variable in model 7 (β = .138, P=. 007) and model 8 (β = .127, P=. 018) were significantly positive; this means that uncertainty avoidance had a direct impact on the banks' performance. But the β coefficient (β = - .09, P=. 391) for the interaction between this variable and MO (MO*NCUA) indicated that uncertainty avoidance had no moderating role in the consequences of MO on the performance of banks in Jordan.

Hypothesis 20: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower uncertainty avoidance than banks that have higher uncertainty avoidance.

Hypothesis 20 was not supported. The parameter of estimate (β = -.122, P= .221) for the interaction between uncertainty avoidance variable and EO (EO*NCUA) indicated that uncertainty avoidance had no moderating role in the consequences of EO on the performance of banks in Jordan. The explanation for the significant positive β associated with NCUA in model 7 and 8 before the interactions effects could be explained by the fact that organizations, including banks, alter their marketing and entrepreneurship activities either to keep their shares from customers and markets without being market or entrepreneurial oriented. But, when banks begin to implement market orientation activities and entrepreneurial dimensions, these two concepts require willingness to demonstrate risk-taking, tolerance to innovations and new ideas, willingness to change and adjust to challenges, and acceptance of new paradigms (Herbing and Miller 1991). Such requirements were in contrast to the fundamental values of a high uncertainty avoidance culture like Jordan. Another explanation was that, despite the high level of education among the respondents, it appeared that most Jordanian managers were likely to return to emphasizing stability and, conformity with rules and regulations to buffer their organizations and banks from changes in the environment, as was the case in the Middle East at the time of the survey.

The policy implications of findings 19 and 20 apply to Jordanian banks looking to improve their respective bank's performance within the high uncertainty avoidance culture; to install organizational culture in which employees demonstrate risk-taking, tolerance to innovations, and new ideas; willingness to change and adjust to challenges; and acceptance of new paradigms to overcome uncertainty in the environment instead of being uncertainty avoiders or risk aversive. Education as well as training in crisis management, risk management, effective marketing research for forecasting and scanning the environment for opportunities and potential risks, flexibility in processes, and decentralization of decision-making well contribute to lowering uncertainty avoidance and empowering employees to cope with it once they have to.

Hypothesis 21: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower individualism than banks that have higher individualism.

This hypothesis was not supported. The β associated with individualism (NCID) in model 7 (β= -.077, P=. 058) and in model 8 (β= -.86, P= .037) were significantly negative. This means that individualism had a significant negative influence on the banks' performance in Jordan. However, the interaction between NCID and MO (MO*NCID) showed that individualism (β = - .122, P=. 175) had no moderating role in the MO-PF relationship.

Hypothesis 22: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower individualism than banks those have higher individualism.

This hypothesis was not supported. Likewise, the β coefficient (β =. 07, P= .365) attached to individualism interaction with EO (EO*NCID) showed that individualism also had no moderating role in the EO-PF relationship.

Findings 21 and 22 can be partially explained by the fact that the significant negative influence of individualism (models 7 and 8) before the interactions was consistent with the literature. Although entrepreneurship was thought to flourish in higher individualism cultures (Morris, Davis, and Allen 1994), market orientation seemed to incorporate better in lower (collectivist) individualism (Slater and Narver 1994b; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). But, according to the practice-culture fit paradigm, both MO and EO and lower individualism are in congruence (Chandler, Keller, and Lyon 2000). This explanation may support findings 21 and 22 where individualism has no moderating role either in the MO-PF or EO-PF relationships since the group had been the central dominant structure in Jordan's cultural values.

The policy implications of findings 21 and 22 apply to Jordanian banks' managers who are concerned about their bank's performance to continue supporting the cultural values of conformity, cooperation, and coordination that are essential to promote MO and EO, and ultimately enhance their consequences on the banks' performance. However, banks' managers have to pay attention to the individual's uniqueness (skills, objectives, motives, etc.) and guard against the "social loafing" effect associated with the team, committees, and group assignments. Organizational culture and policies can be established to balance a middle ground. While promoting groups and teamwork, reward systems, promotion assignment, etc., they have to lean more toward appreciating the individual's knowledge, skills, and ability to perform.

Hypothesis 23: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower masculinity than with banks with higher masculinity.

This hypothesis was not supported. Results of the statistical analysis of models 7 and 8 that masculinity (β =. 072, P= .185, and β =. 05, P=. 394) had no influence on the dependent variable, the banks' performance. Furthermore, the β attached to the interaction between NCID and MO (MO*NCMS) showed that masculinity (β = - .179, P=. 144) had no moderating role in the MO-PF relationship.

Hypothesis 24: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks that have lower masculinity than with banks with higher masculinity.

This hypothesis was not supported. Based on the statistical analysis, the β (β = .112, P=. 273) attached with masculinity interaction with EO (EO*NCMS) was also insignificant. Thus, it can be concluded that the moderating variable, masculinity had no moderating role on the relationship between EO-PF in the banks in Jordan.

Findings 23 and 24 may be partially explained by the fact that the insignificant impact of masculinity before (model 7) and after (model 8) the interactions was consistent with the literature. Literature reported that there was a practice-culture fit between MO activities and EO dimensions and lower masculinity cultures (Shane 1992; Nakata and Siva Kumar 2001). This explanation may support findings 23 and 24 where masculinity had no moderating roles either in the MO-PF or EO-Pf relationships because the cultural value in Jordan is characterized as a high masculinity culture. The policy implications of findings 23 and 24 are related to the fact that Jordan had been in the middle of the road in its masculinity cultural values (Hofstede 1980, 1997). Thus, Jordanian banks' managers working to promote MO and EO to enhance their banks performance could capitalize on the cultural transition from high masculinity to lower masculinity.

Hypothesis 25: In Jordan, market orientation will have a stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks when the country institutional profiles are more favorable to the bank, than banks with country institutional profiles less favorable to them.

This hypothesis was supported. The statistical analysis findings demonstrated that the moderating variable country institutional profiles (CIPF) was significant. The parameter of estimates attached to CIPF in models 7 (β =. 127, P= .074) and 8 (β =. 165, P = .032) were significantly positive. This means that CIPF had an influence on the dependent variable, banks' performance, in Jordan. Furthermore, the result of CIPF interaction with MO (MO*CP) increased the β coefficient attached to these variables (β =. 372, P=. 020), indicating that this variable had the strongest moderating role in the consequences of MO on the banks' performance (PF) in Jordan.

Hypothesis 26: In Jordan, entrepreneurial orientation will have stronger relationship with performance in Jordanian banks when the country institutional profiles are more favorable, than banks with country institutional profiles less favorable to them

This hypothesis was not supported. The β coefficient (β = -. 221, P= .106) attached to the interaction between EO and CIPF (EO*CP) indicated that the country institutional profiles had no moderating role in the effects of EO on the banks' performance in Jordan.

The significant positive impact of CIPF (models 7 and 8) demonstrated that CIPF had a determinant influence of banks' performance and reflected the important role of government in business activities. Thus, the findings of hypotheses 25 and 26 can be partially explained by the significant role of government in the economy. Contrary to prior hypotheses, the lager parameter of estimates of β associated with MO*CP indicated that CIPF had the strongest moderating role on the effect of MO on the banks' performance. Consequently, the regulatory, cognitive, and normative dimensions of the CIPF were supportive of market orientation. Banks in Jordan had been significant partners with the government in helping in the implementation of national development plans. Therefore, banks could always count on governmental support. Furthermore, governmental representatives on the banks' Board of Directors represented a link between governmental institutions and the banks. Those representatives had been instrumental in moderating between the regulatory agencies and the banking industry. The researcher's point of view was that governmental institutions played the role of facilitators by collecting information; generating, initiating, or enacting new ideas; and making this information available through public records, publications, conferences, and other means. Such activities had been stimulative and helpful for banks that strived to be market-oriented. Generally speaking, developing countries, including Jordan, who were adopting the supply-side economy always encouraged "easy solutions" by striving to enhance the availability of products and services through marketing-import activities such as imports, fair shows, and advertising, price discounts on special occasions, storage, and so forth.

However, the lack of CIPF moderating role on the effect of EO on the banks' performance may be explained by the nature of the population of this study (branch managers and top management members) who were more aware of the lack of capital and other assistance for new entrepreneurs. This awareness may have influenced their perception about the country institutional profiles to support entrepreneurship. Furthermore, the literature suggested that developing countries for one reason or another did not encourage entrepreneurship. For instance, lack of capital, entrepreneurship training, and risk insurance coupled with other regulatory processes pushed people to be job seekers rather than take-risk entrepreneurs.

The policy implications of findings 25 and 26 are that banks' managements have to continue their efforts to stimulate support of the country's institutions. Bank managers could invest their social connections with governmental and non-governmental institutions that appear to share common interests with the banking industry. Alliance building, such as joint ventures, joint projects, and cooptation, could enhance the supporting bases for the banks and minimize potential risks or uncertainties. Banks' managers also should continue their efforts to invest in public image and support. For instance, they can sponsor social activities and organizations such as sports, volunteer work, and scholarships.

Furthermore, bank managers must pay attention to stimulating entrepreneurship culture. They could encourage their employees to be creative and be willing to take risks without fear of failure. Banks could be instrumental in encouraging business people and enhancing the younger generation's vision for entrepreneurship as an alternative for the already small and tight job market in the country. Such policies could enhance external connections with the surrounding environment, stimulate feedback, retain and gain customers, and ultimately generate new ideas and businesses.

Contributions of the Study

As previously mentioned in the Significance of the Study section, the contributions of this study are many. To date, no research had been done on these concepts in the Arab countries' business environment with the exception of Bhuian's (1997; 1998), and Bhuian and Habib's (2001) studies of Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, no empirical work had explored the effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations on performance, particularly in the banking industry in Jordan. In addition, this study was the first to examine the moderating roles of national culture and the country's institutional profiles in the strength of the relationships of the two orientations on the banks' performance in Jordan.

The study demonstrated that market and entrepreneurial orientations significantly and positively impacted the banks' performance in Jordan, providing significant contributions for marketing theory, entrepreneurship theory, cultural theory, and institutional theory. The study findings of empirical support for the applicability and generalizability of market and entrepreneurial orientations across boundaries in a developing country made further significant contributions. Furthermore, the study made an important contribution to the literature in marketing and management by demonstrating how moderating factors positively and negatively impacted the consequences of effects of market and entrepreneurial orientations on banks' performance, and to what extent the two orientations can be a positive or a negative force in easing or stimulating the moderating factors' roles.

Another major contribution of this study, contrary to the majority of existing studies that had concentrated on the manufacturing sector, extended the existing research on MO and EO to a service industry, namely, the banks in Jordan. The study also demonstrated that Jordanian cultural values were not significantly resistant to new ideas and new paradigms, but, on the contrary, they were either supportive or had a silent impact. This information may contribute to other studies that support the generalizability of Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) model of market orientation to a non-Western business culture.

Furthermore, this study demonstrated that the country institutional profiles had a major role in moderating the banks' efforts to be market-oriented but not entrepreneurial. This finding might indicate that governmental support is still essential for marketing and management development in the developing countries to compensate for the weakness of entrepreneurs and to increase people's dependency on their institutions. The discovery of the failure of country intuitional profile in moderating the effect of entrepreneurship on the banks' performance in Jordan is another major contribution to entrepreneurship theory. These findings shed light on the limited success of the governmental command-and-control approach to the economy in developing countries, including Jordan, and lend support for the call for more open economic policies and the adoption of a free market economy.

Moreover, the significance of this study resides on at being the first application of a comprehensive model of many constructs and resulting in the findings converging with Jaworski and Kohl's (1993) findings. Thus, the study might lend support to the generalizability of Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) model of market orientation across cultures. Also, this study may provide basic data for future studies and stimulate further research on how to advance market and entrepreneurial orientations in developing countries. Finally, this study also may be of value to multinational corporations that have to deal with different cultures and institutional profiles.

Study Limitations

It should be pointed out that this study has several limitations. This may be especially important for those researchers who are less familiar with Arab cultures, business environments, and differing research.

The first limitation of the study is the timing of the survey. For the last two years, some Jordanian financial institutions have been under investigation for corruption and money scandals. The coincidence of the survey, "The National Survey of Banks in Jordan," at the time influenced the willingness of some banks to participate fully or at all.

The second limitation is related to the length of the study and data collection procedures. The actual length of the questionnaire exceeded eleven pages. Such length, according to Dillman (1978), may reduce the expected response rate. In addition, a non-random, non-probability method was used in selecting the study population and data collection. These techniques may influence the findings of the study and its application to other businesses.

The third limitation is the lack of accurate data in developing countries like Jordan. For instance, data in developing countries, including Jordan, are lagging 2-3 years. The unavailability of such public databases limits the researcher's ability to compare his findings with other data sources.

The fourth limitation is that no study has examined the constructs of this research in Jordan before. Therefore, the researcher had to proceed without the advantage of having a model or other research findings that may be utilized as an indicator or benchmark for this study.

Another limitation of this study is that Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) model of market orientation, across cultures and in non-Western business settings is still evolving. Most research conducted in market orientation–performance relationships took place in developed countries where the generalizability of Jaworski and Kohli's

(1993) model resided in its application to the emerging Third World culture and business environment.

A fifth limitation of this study is the use of a single informant as the source of contact and information. Although a branch manager and other senior member of his management team participated in the survey, the researcher had no free contacts with the other respondents. The situation made it difficult to verify information or test response biases.

A sixth limitation is that the population of the study was the traditional commercial banks' branches listed in *The Banks and Finance Institutions Directory in Jordan 2003* while the non-traditional financial institutions were not researched. The non-traditional financial institutions are an essential part of financial services in Jordan and constitute major competitors for the traditional banking system over market share and customers. The non-traditional financial institutions are very well known for their conveniences, flexibility, ease of use, and personalization of services, allowances, and higher exchange rates.

Directions for Future Research

This study indicated that future research is needed in several directions. Thus, several recommendations are presented mainly to banks' managers in particular and other managers of public, private, and profit-like Jordanian or international organizations.

1. Whenever possible, it is recommended that future research limits the actual length of the questionnaires to fewer than 10 pages, and employs random and

probability sampling techniques to ensure higher response rates and more general findings.

2. This study should be replicated in several research directions: in the same banking industry in Jordan to provide direct comparison; in the same industry at a future date to test the possible changes, if any, in the respondents' perceptions of the constructs; and in different industries to assess the degrees of regularity, specificity, and range in business in general.

3. Another research direction is the replication of this study in other cultural settings (e.g., Hofstede's 1980 cultural classification) to assess and examine the impact of different cultural settings on the relationships between the constructs. It would be useful to replicate this research in other countries to compare the impacts of country specific institutional profiles in the construct relationships.

4. Another avenue for future research is within or between countries in order to consider refining the model instruments (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Covin and Slevin, Hofstede 1980; and Busenitz, Gomaz, and Spencer 2000) for use in different cultural and business environments. Kohli and Jaworski's (1990) in-depth interview with targeted participants could be replicated in other business settings.

5. This study employed national culture and country institutional profiles as moderating variables; it may be worth the effort for future research to use these variables as determinant variables to examine their roles in promoting market and entrepreneurial orientations.

6. The study also demonstrated that Jordanian cultural values are not significantly resistant to new ideas and new paradigms, on the contrary, they were either supportive or had a silent impact. Another future research direction could be to explore the application of the constructs in this study in other cultures. Such future research may support the generalizability of Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) model of market orientation and the constructs of this study in non-Western business cultures.

7. One of the major obstacles for comparative or international studies in developing countries in general and in Arab countries in particular is the lack of accurate data or the collection of such data to accurately research an issue. It is precisely for this reason that the results of this study might serve as a benchmark to stimulate additional studies in that part of the world. Thus, this study recommends integration of research activities from different cultures and countries to build and exchange data as an important part of the solution to promote comparative marketing studies.

APPENDIX A

SUMMARY OF SELECTED DEFINITIONS OF THE MARKET ORIENTATION CONSTRUCT

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SUMMARY OF SELECTED DEFINITIONS OF THE MARKET ORIENTATION CONSTRUCT

Author	Definitional Keywords
Barksdale & Darden (1971)*	Adoption of marketing concept, consumer orientation, profits driven, meet consumer needs, desire more government Regulation.
McNamara (1972)*	Adoption of marketing concept, implementation of marketing concept, status of marketing, coordinated marketing, scope of marketing research.
Lawton and Parasuraman (1980)*	Adoption of marketing concept, background of the firm's top management.
Parasuraman (1983)*	Adoption of marketing concept, status of marketing, focus on consumer needs.
Barlett, Schewe and Allen (1984)*	Organizational orientation, consumer orientation, planning orientation, segmentation orientation, aggressiveness orientation, dynamic orientation.
Foxall (1984)*	Adoption of marketing concept by entire organization
Morris and Paul (1987)*	Marketing department, use of consultants and marketing research, planning, product managers, status of marketing, background of management, feedback devices.
Canning (1988)*	CEO's role in marketing, adaptive strategy, market oriented MIS, cost effectiveness, new product development, and marketing coordination, marketing considered professional, marketing as a corporate culture
Deshpande and Webster (1989)*	Strategic focus on consumer, marketing as a corporate culture.
Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Consumer orientation, marketing coordination, organization wide intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, responsiveness to market intelligence.
Narver and Slater (1990)	Consumer orientation, Competitor orientation, coordinated marketing, profitability, marketing as a corporate culture.

*Source: Miles, M. P. and D. R. Arnold. (1991). " The Relationship Between Marketing Orientation and Entrepreneurial Orientation," *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, v. 15: 49-65.

APPENDIX B

SUMMARY OF SELECTED DEFINITIONS OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION CONSTRUCT

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SUMMARY OF SELECTED DEFINITIONS OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION CONSTRUCT

Author	Definitional Keywords
McClelland (1976)	Innovation, need to achieve, risk accepting, proactive
Khandwalla (1977)	Financial innovation, proactive, pragmatic
Shapiro and Sokol (1982)	Proactive, functional, initiator management, decentralized, rewards to risk-taking
Miller and Friesen (1983)	Aggressiveness, innovative new products, novel solution, logistical innovation, emphasis on research and development
Foxall (1984)	Opportunity seeking, control of external parties for own gain
Ginsberg (1985)	Aggressive, seek novel solution, innovative of new product, innovative distribution
Meyers (1986)	Innovation
Morris and Paul (1987)	New product introduction, innovative production and logistics, risk-taking, aggressive, seek novel solutions, research and development emphasis, active opportunity scans, bold, growth oriented, pragmatic, compromising, charismatic, leaders
Covin & Slevin (1989)	Innovative, proactive, risk-taking propensity

Source: Miles. M. P. and D. R. Arnold. (1991). " The Relationship Between Marketing Orientation and Entrepreneurial Orientation," *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, v. 15: 49-65

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF SELECTED STUDIES OF MARKET ORIENTATION

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SUMMARY OF SELECTED STUDIES OF MARKET ORIENTATION

Author	Definitional Keywords
A. Studies That Found Positive Association Between Market Orientation and Performance	
Ruekert(1992)	Positive association
Deshpande et al. (1993)	Positive association between customer perceptions of MO; and performance. No association between the levels of MO as reported by managers, and performance.
Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Positive association with subjective measure of overall performance, but not objective measure of market share.
Deng and Dart (1994)	Positive association.
Au and Tse (1995)	Positive (weak) association.
Greenley (1995a)	Positive (weak) association between comprehensiveness of MO and performance.
Pelham and Wilson (1996)	Positive association.
Pitt Caruana & Berthon (1996)	Positive (weak) association.
Slater and Narver (1996)	Positive (weak) association.
Balakrishnan (1996)	Positive association.
Avolonitis and Gounaris (1997)	Positive association.
Bhuian (1997)	Positive association.
Balabanis, Stables and Phillips (1997)	No association between current reported level of MO and performance. Significant association with reported previous level of MO and performance.
Doyle and Wong (1998)	Positive association.
Appiah-Adu and Ranchhod (1998)	Positive association with some performance measures but not others.
Horng and Chen (1998)	Positive association.
Gray et al. (1998)	Positive association.
Oezkowski and Farrell (1998)	Positive association.
Van Egeren and O'Connor (1998)	Positive association.
Thirkell and Dau (1998)	Positive association with export performance.
Ngai & Ellis (1998)	Positive association.
Caruana, Ramasesham & Ewing (1998)	Positive association.
Appiah-Adu and Singh (1998)	Positive association.

Chang and Chen (1998)	Positive association.

B. Studies That Found A Positive Association But Also Moderating Effects:

Narver and Slater (1990)	U-shaped association. Company type (commodity-non commodity) affects the relationship between MO and performance.
Slater and Narver (1993)	Positive association with performance, but company type moderator effects noted.
Slater and Narver (1994)	Positive association. Environmental moderator effects also noted.
Atuahene-Gima (1995)	Positive association. Environmental moderator effects also noted.
Greenely and Foxall (1997)	Multiple Stakeholder Orientation (including customer and competitor orientations) positively associated with some performance measures but not others. Environmental moderator effects also noted.
Bhuian (1998)	Positive association. Environmental moderator effects also noted.

C. Studies That Found An Association Only Under Certain Conditions:

Diamantopoulos and Hart (1993)	Association depends on the environment.
Greenely (1995b)	Association depends on the environment.
Appiah-Adu (1998)	Association depends on the environment.

D. Studies That Found No Significant Association:

Esslemont and Lewis (1991)	No significant association.
Tse (1998)	No significant association.
Caruana, Pitt and Berthon (1999)	No significant association.

Note: MO refers to Market Orientation.

Source: Dawes, J. (2000). "Market Orientation and Market Profitability: Further Evidence Incorporating Longitudinal Data," Australian Journal of Management, v. 25 (2): 173-200.

APPENDIX D

REGRESSION RESULTS

APPENDIX D

REGRESSION RESULTS

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 1

Step 1: Dependent Variable. MO		Method: Enter	
R	.096[a]	R square Changes	.009
R square	.009	F Changes	2.344
Adjusted R Square	.005	df1	2
Std. Error of the Estimate	.5962	df2	504
DW	1.510	Sig. F Change	.097

ANOVA [b]

Model		Sum of Squares	dF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.667	2	.833	2.344	.097[a]
	Residual	179.172	504	.356		
	Total	180.839	506			

Model 1	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.406	.067		50.561	.000
number of fulltime employees	-7.376E-03	.004	-.091	-1.897	.058
number of customers of the branch	-6.409E-04	.003	-.011	-.228	.820

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 2

Step 2: Dependent Variable. EO Method: Enter

R	.139	R square Changes	.019
R square	.019	F Changes	4.972
Adjusted R Square	.015	df1	2
Std. Error of the Estimate	.6780	df2	504
DW	1.646	Sig. F Change	.007

ANOVA [b]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.1
Regression	4.572	2	2.86	2.344	.007[a]
Residual	231.714	504	.460		
Total	236.286	506			

a. Predictors: (Constants), number of customers of the branch, number of full time employees
b. Dependent Variable: MEANMO

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.845	.077		50.195	.000
number of fulltime employees	-1.058E-02	.004	-.114	-2.392	.017
number of customers of the branch	3.089E-03	.003	-.046	-.968	.334

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 3

Step 3: Dependent Variable. MO   Method: Enter

R	.565[a]	R square Changes	.320
R square	.320	F Changes	25.957
Adjusted R Square	.307	df1	9
Std. Error of the Estimate	.4975	df2	497
DW	1.586	Sig. F Change	.000

ANOVA [b]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	57.823	9	6.425	25.957	.000[a]
Residual	123.016	497	.248		
Total	180.839	506			

a. Predictors: (Constants), MEANDPRT, MEANORCN, MEANORFM, MEANIDC, MEANORRW, number of customers of the branch, MEANTMEM, MEANTMRA, number of full-time employees Dependent Variable: MEANMO

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	1.028	.214		4.816	.000
number of fulltime employees	-1.284e-05	.004	.000	.004	.997
number of customers of the branch	-1606E-03	.002	-.028	.666	.596
TMEM	.269	.029	.374	9.241	.000
TMRA	5.292E-02	.028	.075	1.861	.063
NIDC	.158	.033	.190	4.788	.000
ORFM	-2793E-02	.031	-.037	-.883	.378
ORCN	7.308E-02	.027	.102	2.712	.007
ORRW	.125	.028	.181	4.498	.000
DPRT	5.028E-04	.019	.001	.026	.979

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 4

Step 2: Dependent Variable. EO		Method: Enter	
R	.365[a]	R square Changes	.133
R square	.133	F Changes	10.955
Adjusted R Square	.121	df1	7
Std. Error of the Estimate	.6407	df2	499
DW	1.699	Sig. F Change	.000

ANOVA [b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	31.475	9	4.496	10.955	.000[a]
	Residual	204.812	499	.410		
	Total	236.286	506			

b. Predictors: (Constants), MEANDPRT, MEANORCN, MEANORFM, MEANIDC, number of customers of the branch, MEANTMRA, number of full-time employees

c. Dependent Variable: MEANEO

Coefficients[a]

Model 4	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.956	.247		11.949	.000
number of fulltime employees	-4.154E-03	.005	-.045	-.921	.357
number of customers of the branch	-4.190E-03	.003	-.063	-1.356	.176
TMRA	8.284E-02	.036	.103	2.324	.021
NIDC	.261	.041	.274	6.388	.000
ORFM	-.139	.038	-.163	-3.651	.000
ORCN	2.200E-02	.034	.027	.640	.523
DPRT	-1.431E-02	.025	-.027	-.577	.564

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 5

Model 5: Dependent Variable. PF		Method: Enter

R	.177[a]	R square Changes	.031
R square	.031	F Changes	8.126
Adjusted R Square	.027	df1	2
Std. Error of the Estimate	.7668	df2	504
DW	1.613	Sig.F Change	.000

ANOVA [b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.556	2	4.778	8.126	.000[a]
	Residual	296.335	504	.588		
	Total	305.891	506			

d. Predictors: (Constants), number of customers of the branch, number of full-time employees
e. Dependent Variable: MEANPERF

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	3.662	.087		42.268	.000
number of fulltime employees	-1.993E-02	.005	-.190	3.985	.000
number of customers of the branch	3.553E-03	.004	.047	.984	.325

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 6

Step 6: Dependent Variable. PF Method: Enter

R	.438[a]	R square Changes	.192
R square	.192	F Changes	24.842
Adjusted R Square	.186	df1	4
Std. Error of the Estimate	.7016	df2	502
DW	1.655	Sig. F Change	.000

ANOVA [b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	58.764	4	14.691	29.842	.000[a]
	Residual	247.127	502	.492		
	Total	305.891	506			

f. Predictors: (Constants), MEANEO number of customers of the branch, number of full-time employees, MEANMO
g. Dependent Variable: MEANPERF

Coefficients[a]

Model 6	Unstandardized coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	1.758	.210		8.356	.000
number of fulltime employees	-1.499E-02	.005	-.143	-3.257	.001
number of customers of the branch	4.770E-03	.003	.063	1.442	.150
MO	.149	.070	.115	2.124	.034
EO	.363	.062	.319	5.869	.000

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 7

Model 7: Dependent Variable. PF		Method: Enter	
R	.489[a]	R square Changes	.239
R square	.239	F Changes	17.376
Adjusted R Square	.226	df1	9
Std. Error of the Estimate	.6842	df2	497
DW	1.709	Sig. F Change	.000

ANOVA [b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73.212	9	8.135	17.376	.000[a]
	Residual	232.697	497	.468		
	Total	305.891	506			

a. Predictors: (Constants), MEANCIPF, number of customer of the branch, MEANNCPD, MEANNCID, full time employees, MEANEO, MEANNCUA, MEANNCMS, MEANMO
b. Dependent Variable: MEANPERF

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig
(Constant)	1.220	.287		4.274	.000
number of fulltime employees	-1.103E-02	.005	-.105	-2.402	.017
number of customers of the branch	4.374E-03	.003	.058	1.351	.177
MO	8.792E-02.	.071	.068	1.2331	.219
EO	272	.063	.239	4.296	.000
NCPD	-8.611R-02.	.047	-.008	-.184	.854
NCUA	138	.051	.134	2.696	.007
NCID	-7.776R-02	.041	-.077	-1.901	.058
NCMS	7.838R-02	.059	.072	1.327	.185
CIPF	.127	.071	.102	1.788	.074

RESULTS OF REGRESSION MODEL 8

Model 8: Dependent Variable. PF		Method: Enter	
R	.513[a]	R square Changes	.263
R square	.263	F Changes	9.162
Adjusted R Square	.235	df1	19
Std. Error of the Estimate	.6802	df2	487
DW	1.685	Sig. F Change	.000

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	80.546	19	4.239	9.162	.000[a]
	Residual	225.345	487	.463		
	Total	305.891	506			

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	.918	.361		2.540	.011
number of employees	-1.102E-02	.005	-.105	-2.377	.018
number of branch customers	4.709E-03	.003	.062	1.425	.155
MO	.238	.105	.183	2.272	.024
EO	.205	.094	.180	2.170	.030
NCPD	2.195E-03	.047	.002	.046	.963
NCUA	.127	.054	.124	2.379	.018
NCID	-8.647E-02	.041	.086	-2.094	.037
NCMS	5.273E-02	.062	.049	.854	.394
CIPF	.165	.077	.133	2.155	.032
MO*NCPD	.167	.095	.105	1.761	.079
MO*NCUA	-9.773E-02	.114	-.062	-.858	.391
MO*NCID	-.122	.090	-.079	-1.358	.175
MO*NCMS	-.179	.123	-.121	-1.464	.144
MO*CP	.372	.160	.259	2.332	.020
EO*NCPD	-2.959E-02	.087	-.022	-.340	.734
EO*NCUA	.121	.099	.090	1.226	.221
EO*NCID	7.178E-02	.079	.050	.905	.365
EC*NCMS	.112	.102	.091	1.097	.273
EO*CP	-.221	.136	-.183	-1.619	.106

APPENDIX E

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT
(ENGLISH LANGUAGE VERSION)

LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

NATIONAL SURVEY OF BANKS IN JORDAN 2003

Dear Respondents,

Let me begin by briefly introducing myself. My name is Musa A. Dwairi, a Jordanian native professor. I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Marketing and Management area at Louisiana Tech University, Ruston, Louisiana, United States of America. I ask for approximately 20 – 30 minutes of your time, in order to fill out a brief questionnaire related to the demand and competitive nature of the banking industry. This questionnaire is the research instrument that I am using in order to complete the research requirement of my doctoral dissertation.

The package you have received has two copies of the questionnaire. I am requesting that you complete one copy, and the other copy to be completed by one of your senior management team. My representative will be back to pick-up the questionnaire in the enclosed envelopes within 10 days. For your convenience, the questionnaire is written in both Arabic and English languages. Please feel free to use the language of your choice. Your responses are very important and will be kept strictly confidential. If you have any questions, please contact me at: E-mail: DWAIRIM@yahoo.Com; Tel. & Fax: (318) 255- 7770; Mailing address: P. O. Box: 1437, Ruston Louisiana, 71270, United States of America. Or the project supervisor Dr. Shahid Bhuian, at: Phone (318) 257-3580. Fax (318) 257- 4253. http://www.cab.latech.edu.

Again, Dr. Shahid Bhuian and myself would like to express our sincere appreciation for your time and effort.

Most cordially,

Musa A. Dwairi, Ph.D.
Project Director
Grambling State University
Grambling, Louisiana 71245
U. S. A.

LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

NATIONAL SURVEY OF BANKS IN JORDAN, 2003

Dear Respondent:

In today's extraordinarily competitive environment, banks' success requires purposeful adaptation and accommodation to change. This study is being conducted in an attempt to help banks maximize their performance in these times of great uncertainty. We ask that you complete this questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope within the next five days. The questionnaire is designed to take no more than 30 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses are very important and will be kept strictly confidential. If you so desire, a copy of the study results will be made available to you (Please check below if you would like to receive a summary.)

☐ Yes, I would like to receive a summary of the study results.

We wish to express our sincere appreciation for your time and effort.

Musa A. Dwairi, Ph.D.
Project Director
Professor of Public Administration
College of Liberal Arts
Grambling State University
Grambling, Louisiana 71270
U.S.A.

Shahid N. Bhuian, Ph.D.
Project Supervisor
Professor of Marketing
College of Administration and Business
Louisiana Tech University
Ruston, Louisiana 71272
U.S.A.

Section I

In this section, we seek your opinions about certain marketing practices in your bank. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements. Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your feelings about the following practices in your bank.

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
1. In this bank, we meet with our customers at least once a year to find out what products or services they will need in the future	1	2	3	4	5
2. In this bank, we periodically conduct in-house market research	1	2	3	4	5
3. In this bank, we are slow to detect changes in our customers' service preferences	1	2	3	4	5
4. Our employees in the Customer Services Department interact directly with our customers to learn how to serve them better	1	2	3	4	5
5. In this bank, we survey end-users of our products and services at least once a year to assess the quality of our products and services	1	2	3	4	5
6. We often contact or survey those who can influence customers' demand for services (e.g., non-bank financial institutions, researchers, media, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
7. We collect information through informal means (e.g., lunch with friends, governmental officials, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
8. In this bank, information about our competitors is generated independently by several departments	1	2	3	4	5
9. We are slow to detect fundamental shifts in the banking industry (e.g., competitors, technology, regulations, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
10. We periodically review the likely effect of changes in our Business environment (e.g., competitors, technology, regulations, etc.) on customers	1	2	3	4	5
11. A lot of informal "hall talk" in this bank concerns our competitors' tactics or strategies	1	2	3	4	5
12. We have interdepartmental meetings at least once a quarter to discuss market trends and developments	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on the next page

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
13. Customer Service Personnel in our bank spend time discussing customers' future needs with other functional departments	1	2	3	4	5
14. This bank circulates documents that provide information on our customers (e.g., reports, newsletters, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
15. When something important happens to a major customer or the market, the whole bank knows about it within a short period	1	2	3	4	5
16. Data on customer satisfaction are disseminated at all levels in this bank on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5
17. There is a minimal level of communication between marketing and other departments concerning market development	1	2	3	4	5
18. When one bank branch finds out something important about competitors, it is slow to alert other branches	1	2	3	4	5
19. It takes us forever to decide how to respond to our competitors' service changes	1	2	3	4	5
20. Principles of market segmentation drive new services development efforts in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
21. For one reason or another, we tend to ignore changes in our customers products or services needs	1	2	3	4	5
22. We periodically review our product development efforts to ensure that they are in line with what customers want	1	2	3	4	5
23. Our bank's business plans are more driven by managers' decisions than by market research	1	2	3	4	5
24. Several bank branches meet periodically to plan a response to changes taking place in our business environment	1	2	3	4	5
25. The services line we provide depends more on internal politics than real market research	1	2	3	4	5
26. If a major competitor launches an intensive campaign targeted at our customers, we would implement a response immediately	1	2	3	4	5
27. The activities of the different departments in this bank are well coordinated	1	2	3	4	5
28. Our customers' complains fall on deaf ears in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
29. Even if we came up with a great marketing plan, we probably would not be able to implement it in a timely fashion in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
30. In this bank, we are quick to respond to significant changes in our competitors' services structures	1	2	3	4	5
31. When we find that our customers are unhappy with the quality of our services, we take corrective action immediately	1	2	3	4	5
32. When we find that customers would like us to modify a product or service, the departments involved make a concerted effort to do so	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on next page

Section II

In this section, we are interested in your opinions about the products and services of your bank. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion on each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is the culture of this bank to emphasize innovation and research and development activities	1	2	3	4	5
2. This bank introduces new products and services at a high frequency	1	2	3	4	5
3. This bank supports bold approaches to innovative product development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Employees are encouraged to take initiatives and proactive moves in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
5. This bank is usually the first bank to introduce new technologies and products	1	2	3	4	5
6. This bank has a strong competitive posture toward competitors	1	2	3	4	5
7. This bank has a strong proclivity for high risk, high return projects	1	2	3	4	5
8. The environment faced by this bank requires boldness to achieve objectives	1	2	3	4	5
9. This bank usually adopts on aggressive, bold posture when faced with risk	1	2	3	4	5

Section III

In this section, we are interested in your feelings about the members of the management team in your bank. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your feelings.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Top managers repeatedly tell employees that this bank's survival depends on its adapting to market trends	1	2	3	4	5
2. Top managers often tell employees to be oriented to the activities of our competitors	1	2	3	4	5
3. Top managers keep telling employees that they must gear up now to meet customers' future needs	1	2	3	4	5
4. According to top managers in this bank, serving customers is the most important activity in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
5. Top managers in this bank believe that higher financial risks are worth taking for higher rewards	1	2	3	4	5
6. Top managers in this bank like to take big financial risks	1	2	3	4	5
7. Top managers in this bank encourage the development of innovative marketing strategies, knowing well that some will fail	1	2	3	4	5
8. Top managers in this bank like to play it safe	1	2	3	4	5
9. Top managers in this bank like to implement plans only if they are very certain they will work	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on next page

Section IV

In this section, we seek your opinion about the business structure (i.e., personal/organizational relationships, responsibilities, and reward system) in your bank. Please read the following statements and circle the number that best describes your feelings about each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When employees of several departments get together, tensions frequently run high	1	2	3	4	5
2. Employees in one department generally dislike interacting with those from other departments	1	2	3	4	5
3. Employees from different departments feel that the goals of their respective departments are in harmony with each other	1	2	3	4	5
4. Protecting onelk department turf is considered to be a way of life in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
5. The objectives pursued by the Customers Service Department are incompatible with those of other departments	1	2	3	4	5
6. There is little or no interdepartmental conflict in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
7. Most departments in this bank get along very well with each other	1	2	3	4	5
8. In this bank, it is easy to talk with virtually anyone, regardless or rank or position	1	2	3	4	5
9. There is ample opportunity for hall talks among individuals from different departments in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
10. In this bank, employees from different departments feel comfortable calling each other when the need arises	1	2	3	4	5
11. Managers in this bank discourage employees from discussing work-related matters with those who are not their immediate managers or subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
12. Managers in this bank are quite accessible to those in other banks	1	2	3	4	5
13. Managers in this bank can easily schedule meetings with their counterparts in other banks	1	2	3	4	5
14. Communication from one bank to another is expected to be routed through proper channels	1	2	3	4	5
15. I feel that I am my own boss in most matters	1	2	3	4	5
16. The employee can make his/her own decisions without checking with anyone else	1	2	3	4	5
17. How things are done in this bank is left up to the person doing the work	1	2	3	4	5
18. Most employees in this bank make their own rules on the job	1	2	3	4	5
19. The employees are constantly being monitored on for rule violations	1	2	3	4	5
20. Employees in this bank feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules	1	2	3	4	5
21. Employees in this bank are allowed to do almost as they please	1	2	3	4	5
22. Little action can be taken in this bank until a manager approves a decision	1	2	3	4	5
23. An employee who wants to make his/her own decisions would be quickly discouraged in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
24. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on next page

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
25. I have to ask my immediate manager before I can do almost anything	1	2	3	4	5
26. Any decision I make has to have my managers' approval	1	2	3	4	5
27. No matter which branch they are in, employees in this bank get recognized for being oriented to competitive moves	1	2	3	4	5
28. Customer satisfaction assessments influence top managers' pay in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
29. Formal rewards (e.g., pay raise, promotion) are forthcoming to any employee who consistently provides good market information	1	2	3	4	5
30. Performance of Customer Service employees is measured by the strength of the relationship they build with the customers	1	2	3	4	5
31. In this bank, we use customer polls for evaluating our employees	1	2	3	4	5

Section V

In this section, we are interested in your perceptions of Jordan's business infrastructures. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your perceptions.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Government organizations in this country assist individuals with starting businesses, including banking	1	2	3	4	5
2. The government sets aside part of its banking service needs for new and small banks	1	2	3	4	5
3. Local and central governments have special support available for individuals who want to start a new business, including a bank	1	2	3	4	5
4. The government sponsors organizations that help new businesses, including banks' to develop	1	2	3	4	5
5. Even after failing in an earlier business, such as a bank, the government assists entrepreneurs in starting again	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bankers know how to legally protect a new banking business	1	2	3	4	5
7. Those who start new banking businesses know how to deal with high risk	1	2	3	4	5
8. Those who start new banking businesses know how to manage risk	1	2	3	4	5
9. Most people who start new banking businesses know where to find information about markets for their services	1	2	3	4	5
10. Turning new ideas into businesses, including banks, is an admired career path in this country	1	2	3	4	5
11. In this country, innovative and creative thinking is viewed as the route to success	1	2	3	4	5
12. Entrepreneurs are admired in this country	1	2	3	4	5
13. People in this country tend to greatly admire those who start their own businesses, including banks	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on next page

Section VI

In this section, we are interested in your perceptions of Jordan's business culture. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your perceptions.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In this bank, managers make most decisions without consulting others	1	2	3	4	5
2. I always conform to my managers' wishes	1	2	3	4	5
3. I believe that those managers who ask opinions too often of subordinates are weak or incompetent	1	2	3	4	5
4. In this bank, I tend to avoid any potential arguments with my managers	1	2	3	4	5
5. In this bank, I am always afraid to disagree with managers	1	2	3	4	5
6. In this bank, I like to work in a well-defined job where the requirements are clear	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is important for me to work for a bank that provides high employment stability	1	2	3	4	5
8. Clear and detailed rules/regulations are needed so employees know what is expected of them	1	2	3	4	5
9. In this bank, if I am uncertain about the responsibilities of a job, I get very anxious	1	2	3	4	5
10. In a situation in which other peers evaluate me, I feel that clear and explicit guidelines should be used	1	2	3	4	5
11. I do not support my colleagues (group) when I feel they are wrong	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is important for me that my job leaves sufficient time for my personal or family life	1	2	3	4	5
13. If my team (group) is slowing me down, it is better to leave and work alone	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is important that I have considerable freedom to adopt my own approach to the job	1	2	3	4	5
15. It is better to work in a group than individually	1	2	3	4	5
16. Groups make better decisions than individuals	1	2	3	4	5
17. I prefer to be responsible for my own decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Contributing to the group is the most important aspect of work in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
19. My personal accomplishments are more important to me than group success	1	2	3	4	5
20. It is important to help others on the job	1	2	3	4	5
21. It is important for me to have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5
22. It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful bank	1	2	3	4	5
23. It is important for me to have a job that has an opportunity for high earnings	1	2	3	4	5
24. It is important that I out-perform my colleagues in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
25. It is important for me to work with colleagues who cooperate well with one another	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on next page

Section VII

In this section, we are interested in your perceptions of employees' feelings about this bank. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your perceptions.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Employees feel as though their future is intimately linked to that of this bank	1	2	3	4	5
2. Employees would be happy to make personal sacrifices if they it were important for the bank's well-being	1	2	3	4	5
3. The bond between this bank and its employees is weak	1	2	3	4	5
4. In general, employees are proud to work for this bank	1	2	3	4	5
5. Employees often go above and beyond the call of duty to ensure this bank's well being	1	2	3	4	5
6. Employees have little or no commitment to this bank	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is clear that employees are fond of this bank	1	2	3	4	5
8. Employees of this bank are genuinely concerned about the needs and the problems of each other	1	2	3	4	5
9. Team spirit pervades all ranks in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
10. The employees in this bank feel, like a part of a big family	1	2	3	4	5
11. Employees in this bank feel emotionally attached to each other	1	2	3	4	5
12. Employees in this bank feel like they are in together	1	2	3	4	5
13. This bank lacks the team spirit	1	2	3	4	5
14. Employees in this bank view themselves as independent individuals who have to tolerate others around them	1	2	3	4	5

Section IX

In this section, we are interested in your assessment of your bank's performance. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately reflects your bank performance.

	Far Above Average	Slightly Above Average	Average	Slightly Below Average	Far Below Average
1. Overall performance of the bank last year was	1	2	3	4	5
2. Overall performance of the bank relative to major competitors last year was	1	2	3	4	5
3. Overall sales growth of the bank relative to major competitors last year was	1	2	3	4	5

Section VIII

These items ask for some personal and organizational information. Please be assured that your responses to these questions are confidential. Please answer each item.

1. What is your title?
   1. _____ General Manager   2. _____ Branch Manager
   3. _____ Others: (Specify) ______________________

2. What is your Gender?
   1. _____ Female   2. _____ Male

3. What is your educational background?
   1. _____ High School   2. _____ Community College
   3. _____ College Degree (BA).   3. _____ Graduate Studies (Master/ Doctorate)
   5. _____ Other (specify) ______________________

4. What is your educational major?
   1. _____ Business   2. _____ Non Business
   3. _____ Other (specify) ______________________

5. How long have you been serving in a senior management capacity for this branch? ______________________

6. Where is your bank (branch) located?
   1. _____ Amman   2. _____ Irbid
   3. _____ Zarqa   4. _____ Others (Specify) ______________________

Please continue on next page

7. What is the approximate age of this branch? ______________________

8. How many full time employees are with this branch? ______________________

9. What is your estimate of the total number of your customers? ______________________

10. How many divisions (departments) are in this branch? ______________________

11. Do you consider your bank primarily as:
    1. _____ Private   2. _____ Public
    3. _____ Joint venture   4. _____ Foreign
    5. _____ Other (specify) ______________________

Please Note: If you wish to receive a summary of the findings of this research, please write your name and the mailing address to which the information is to be sent. Please note that this is optional.

Name: ______________________ Mailing Address: ______________________

____

____

!!! YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS SURVEY IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED!!!

APPENDIX F

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT
(ARABIC LANGUAGE VERSION)

LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

السادة الكرام،

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

اسمحوا لي أن أقدم نفسي الداعي لكم الدكتور موسى عايش دويري، أردني الجنسية، وحاليا مرشح لدرجة الدكتوراه في مجال إدارة التسويق بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية.

يقوم الباحث بجمع معلومات عن الممارسات التسويقية بين البنوك الأردنية، نتائج هذا البحث أمر مهم لإتمام متطلبات درجة الدكتوراه، كما أنها ستساعدني لتقديم بعض المقترحات التي قد تكون مفيدة لكم لمساعدة بنوككم في زيادة مستوى أدائها الكلي.

لذا فإنني أكتب لكم لمساعدتي في هذا البحث، وتخصيص ٢٠-٣٠ دقيقة من وقتكم لتعبئة هذا الاستبيان المرفق.

المغلفين المرفقين يتضمنان نسختين من الاستبيان، أرجو من حضرتكم التكرم بتعبئة نسخة واحدة من هذا الاستبيان، بصفتكم مديرا لهذا البنك أو الفرع، وتعبئة النسخة الثانية من قبل أحد موظفيكم العاملين في قسم خدمة العملاء. وكما تلاحظون أن هذا الاستبيان مكتوب باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية ويمكنكم استخدام إحدى اللغتين حسبما ترونه مناسبا.

علما أن هذا الاستبيان أمر حيوي وهام لرسالة الدكتوراه والتي هي الأولى من نوعها في هذا المجال، لذا فإنني أرجو منكم الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة والعبارات، حيث انه لا توجد إجابة خاطئة او صائبة ، ولا تتطلب أية أرقام أو معلومات مالية عنكم أو عن هذا البنك، كما انه يمكنكم عدم توضيح اسمكم او اسم البنك إلا إذا رغبتم بتسلم نسخة من نتائج هذا البحث.

هذا مع العلم بان أية معلومات يتضمنها هذا الاستبيان ستعامل بسرية تامة وستستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط.

شاكرا لكم حسن تعاونكم بالنيابة عن الدكتور شاهد يوهين مشرف البحث وبالأصالة عن نفسي ، و إذا كان لديكم أية استفسارات تتعلق بهذا الاستبيان، أرجو الاتصال بنا على العنوان المبين أدناه:

أخيكم

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UNIVERSITY

استبيان الممارسات التسويقية بين البنوك في الأردن لعام ٢٠٠٣م

السيد المجيب،

في هذه الظروف المتغيرة يتوقف نجاح البنوك على مدى استجابتها وتكيفها مع هذه المتغيرات، وهذا البحث يهدف لمساعدة البنوك في محاولتها لزيادة الكفاءة ومستوى الأداء في هذه الظروف. لذا نرجو أن تقوم بتعبئة هذا الاستبيان وإعادته في خلال أيام. الاستبيان مصمم على ان لا يحتاج تعبئة لأكثر من (٢٠-٣٠) دقيقة، مشاركتكم بهذا البحث مهمة وستعامل بسرية تامة. الرجاء اذا كنتم ترغبون بتسلم نسخة من نتائج هذا البحث حال توفرها ان توضحوا ذلك.

( ) نعم أرغب بتسلم نسخة من نتائج هذا البحث.

أرجو أن نعبر لكم عن عميق الشكر والتقدير لمشاركتكم الطيبة في هذا البحث.

الدكتور موسى الدويري	الدكتور شاهد بوهين
مدير مشروع البحث	مشرف البحث

الجزء الأول: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع.

....

في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان نرغب في معرفة وجهة نظركم في بعض الممارسات التسويقية المتداولة في بنككم، ليس هناك إجابة صائبة او خاطئة، الرجاء وضع دائرة حول الرقم المناسب والذي يعكس رأيكم لمدى تطبيق بنككم لهذه الممارسات.

		أبداً	نادراً	أحيانا	غالبا	دائما
١.	نجتمع مع عملائنا مرة واحدة في العام للتعرف على نوعية الخدمات التي يرغبون أن نقدمها لهم في المستقبل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢.	نقوم بجمع معلومات عن السوق بصورة دورية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣.	أحيانا يتأخر هذا البنك /الفرع في الاستجابة للتغيرات في رغبة العملاء لخدمة ما.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٤.	يقوم موظفو قسم خدمات العملاء بالاتصال بالعملاء للتعرف على أفضل السبل لتقديم الخدمات لهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٥.	يقوم هذا البنك/الفرع بصورة دورية استقطاب وجهة نظر العملاء عن نوعية الخدمات المقدمة لهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٦.	نقوم أحيانا بالتحدث او التقصي اراء هؤلاء الذين يحتمل ان يؤثروا في طلب العملاء لخدماتنا البنكية (مثل المؤسسات غير البنكية، الباحثين، الأعلام...).	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٧.	نقوم بجمع المعلومات بوسائل غير رسمية (مثل غداء عمل مع أصدقاء البنك او أحد المسؤولين الرسميين).	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٨.	تقوم دائرة مستقلة بجمع المعلومات عن المنافسين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٩.	نحن بطيئون بتتبع المتغيرات الأساسية في قطاع البنوك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٠.	نقوم بشكل دوري بمراجعة الأثر المحتملة لتغيرات البيئة	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الاقتصادية على العملاء.

١١.	تتركز المحادثات العادية بين الموظفين على المنافسين وخططهم واستراتيجياتهم .	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٢.	تجتمع الفروع والدوائر المختلفة بشكل دوري على الأقل لبحث اتجاهات السوق البنكية وتطوراتها.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٣.	في هذا البنك/الفرع يقضي موظفو قسم خدمات العملاء جزءا من وقتهم مع مسؤولي الدوائر الأخرى لبحث رغبات العملاء المستقبلية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٤.	يقوم هذا البنك/الفرع بشكل دوري بتعميم النشرات المتضمنة معلومات عن العملاء على الموظفين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٥.	يطلع هذا البنك/الفرع على ما يحدث للعميل المهم او السوق خلال فترة قصيرة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٦.	تعمم المعلومات المتعلقة برضاء العملاء على جميع الموظفين بشكل منتظم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٧.	تبادل المعلومات بين قسم خدمات العملاء والأقسام الأخرى محدود جداً.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٨.	عندما تحصل إحدى الدوائر على معلومات مهمة عن المنافسين فإنها تحذر الدوائر الأخرى ببطء.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٩.	نحتاج في هذا البنك/ الفرع إلى فترة طويلة للاستجابة للتغير في خدمات المنافسين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٠.	أن مبدأ التخصص في السوق عامل مهم في تحسين الخدمات.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢١.	لسبب أو لآخر نميل إلى تجاهل التغيرات في احتياجات العملاء.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٢.	نقوم بشكل دوري بمراجعة الجهود لتطوير الخدمات البنكية للتأكد من مطابقتها لرغبات العملاء.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٣.	خططنا العملية تتوقف على قرارات المديرين اكثر من اعتمادها على أبحاث السوق.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٤.	تجتمع الدوائر المختلفة بشكل دوري لوضع خطة للاستجابة للتغيرات في البيئة الاقتصادية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٥.	تتوقف الخدمات التي نقدمها على السياسة الداخلية اكثر من توقفها على أبحاث السوق.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٦.	إذا قام أحد المنافسين بدعاية مكثفة لجذب عملائنا فإننا نقوم بالرد على ذلك فورا.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٧.	يوجد تنسيق جيد بين أنشطة الدوائر المختلفة في هذا البنك/الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٨.	أحيانا لا تجد شكاوي العملاء آذانا صاغية في هذا البنك/الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٩.	حتى لو كانت الخطة التسويقية ممتازة، فإنه يبدو أننا لن نكون	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

قادرين على تنفيذها بالوقت المناسب.					
٣٠. نحن سريعو الاستجابة للتغيرات الجوهرية في خدمات منافسينا.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣١. في حالة معرفة عدم رضا عملائنا عن مستوى خدماتنا نقوم حالا باتخاذ الإجراءات التصحيحية المناسبة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣٢. تقوم الدوائر المعنية باتخاذ الخطوات اللازمة لملائمة الخدمات البنكية وذوق العملاء.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء الثاني: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع أيضاً.

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في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان نرغب في معرفة رأيكم عن الخدمات التي يقدمها بنككم/ فرعكم، الرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعكس رأيكم في مضمون كل عبارة.

	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة
١. تركز السياسة العامة في هذا البنك/ الفرع على أهمية تطوير الأبحاث والاختراعات.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢. يقدم هذا البنك خدمات جديدة على مستوى عال.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣. يدعم هذا البنك اتخاذ الخطوات الجريئة في التحديث والتجديد.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٤. يشجع هذا البنك موظفيه لاتخاذ مبادرات وخطوات إيجابية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٥. يعتبر هذا البنك/الفرع في طليعة البنوك باستخدام الوسائل الحديثة والخدمات.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٦. يتخذ هذا البنك/ الفرع خطوات جريئة لمواجهة منافسيه.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٧. يتخذ هذا البنك/ الفرع خطوات جريئة إذا توقع مردوداً عالياً.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٨. تستوجب الصناعة المصرفية اتخاذ خطوات جريئة لتحقيق الأهداف.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٩. يتبنى هذا البنك/ الفرع سياسة جريئة وشجاعة عندما يتطلب الأمر مواجهة الأخطار المحيطة بأعمال البنك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء الثالث: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع أيضاً.

في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان نرغب في معرفة وجهة نظركم في إدارة هذا البنك، فالرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعكس وجهة نظركم.

	العبارة	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة
١.	يؤكد المديرون على الموظفين باستمرار ان بقاء هذا البنك يعتمد على تأقلم البنك مع السوق البنكية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢.	يخبر المديرون الموظفين بان يكونوا يقظين لنشاطات المنافسين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣.	يؤكد المدراء على الموظفين للعمل بنشاط لمواءمة حاجات العملاء المستقبلية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٤.	طبقاً للمديرين هنا، فان خدمة العملاء هي العمل الأهم في هذا البنك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٥.	يعتقد مديرو هذا البنك بان المخاطر المالية العالية تستحق الأخذ بها من اجل مردود أعلى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٦.	لا يمانع مديرو هذا البنك من الإقدام على مخاطر مالية عالية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٧.	يشجع مديرو هذا البنك تطوير وتحسين خطط تسويقية إبداعية مع علمهم المسبق بان بعضها آيلة للفشل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٨.	يفضل مديرو هذا البنك ان يكونوا في الجانب الأسلم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٩.	يرغب المدراء في هذا البنك بتطبيق الخطط إذا تأكدوا من نجاحها	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء الرابع: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع أيضاً.

في هذا الجزء نرغب في إبداء رأيكم حول هيكلية العمل (العلاقات الشخصية، المؤسسة، المسؤوليات، نظام الحوافز ... الخ) في هذا البنك/الفرع، الرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعكس رأيكم في كل عبارة.

	العبارة	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة
١.	عندما يجتمع موظفون من دوائر أو فروع مختلفة فان مستوى التوتر يرتفع بينهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢.	لا يرغب الموظفون من فرع ما بالتعامل مع أقرانهم من فروع أخرى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣.	يشعر الموظفون من فروع مختلفة بان أهدافهم منسجمة مع أهداف فروع أخرى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

٤.	تعتبر حماية مصالح الفروع جزءاً مهماً في سياسة هذا البنك/ الفرع وبقاءه.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٥.	يبدو أن الأهداف التي تتبناها دائرة خدمات العملاء تتعارض ولا تتناسق مع أهداف الدوائر الأخرى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٦.	يمكن القول: ان الصراع الداخلي بين الفروع معدوم أو لا مجال له.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٧.	تتعامل معظم الفروع في هذا البنك مع بعضها البعض بشكل جيد.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٨.	يمكنك التخاطب او الاتصال باي موظف في هذا البنك/ الفرع بغض النظر عن رتبته ومركزه.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٩.	تتوفر فرص كثيرة للاتصالات غير الرسمية بين موظفي هذا البنك من مختلف الدوائر.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٠.	يشعر الموظفون من فروع مختلفة بالارتياح للاتصال والتشاور مع زملائهم من فروع أخرى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١١.	لا يشجع المديرون في هذا البنك/ الفرع موظفيهم بحث أو مناقشة أمور تتعلق بعملهم مع غير رؤسائهم المباشرين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٢.	قنوات الاتصال مع المدراء مفتوحة للموظفين في هذا البنك/ الفرع من الفروع الأخرى.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٣.	مدراء هذا البنك/ الفرع يمكنهم جدولة اجتماعات مع نظائرهم في فروع أخرى أو البنوك الاخرى بسهولة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٤.	يستحسن ان تتم الاتصالات بين الفروع من خلال القنوات الرسمية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٥.	اشعر أني المسؤول عن نفسي في كثير من الأمور في هذا البنك/ الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٦.	يمكن لاي موظف ان يقرر وحده دون الرجوع لأي شخص آخر.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٧.	تتوقف كيفية القيام بعمل ما على قرار الشخص الذي سيقوم بهذا العمل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٨.	يضع غالبية الموظفين في هذا البنك قوانينهم الخاصة بالنسبة للعمل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٩.	يراقب الموظفون باستمرار للتأكد من عدم مخالفتهم القوانين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٠.	يشعر الموظفون في هذا البنك/ الفرع بأنهم تحت المراقبة المستمرة للتأكد من اتباعهم لجميع قواعد العمل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢١.	يسمح لموظفي هذا البنك/ الفرع القيام بأي عمل يحلو لهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٢.	لا يمكن القيام بأي عمل في هذا البنك قبل موافقة المسؤولين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٣.	لا يشجع الموظفون في هذا البنك/ الفرع على اتخاذ قراراتهم بانفسهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

٢٤. يجب الحصول على موافقة المسؤولين حتى في الأمور الصغيرة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٥. يجب على ان احصل على موافقة رئيسي المباشر قبل القيام بأي عمل.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٦. يجب ان احصل على موافقة رئيسي المباشر على أي قرار اتخذه.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٧. بغض النظر عن الفرع الذي يعملون به يقيم الموظفون في هذا البنك/ الفرع عن مدى تجاوبهم مع تحركات المنافسين.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٨. يؤثر مدى رضا عملائنا على رواتب المديرين في هذا البنك/ الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٩. يكافئ أي موظف يأتي بمعلومات جيدة عن السوق البنكية بزيادة راتبه او ترقيته.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣٠. تقييم كفاءة موظفي قسم خدمات العملاء بمدى متانة العلاقة بينهم وبين عملائهم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣١. نقوم في هذا البنك/ الفرع باستطلاع آراء العملاء كوسيلة لتقييم مستوى كفاءة موظفي خدمات العملاء.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء الخامس: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع أيضاً.

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في هذا الجزء نحاول استطلاع رأيكم حول البنية التحتية للعمل في الأردن، الرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعكس رأيكم في كل عبارة.

	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة
١. تشجع المؤسسات الحكومية في هذا البلد الأفراد في تأسيس أعمالهم بما في ذلك البنوك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢. تخصص الحكومة جزءاً من أعمالها المصرفية للبنوك الصغيرة والجديدة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣. تدعم الحكومة الوطنية والمحلية الأفراد لتأسيس أعمالا جديدة بما فيها البنوك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٤. تشجع الحكومة المؤسسات المتخصصة لتقديم دعمها لاصحاب الأعمال الجديدة بما فيها إنشاء البنوك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٥. تستمر الحكومة بدعم رجال الأعمال حتى في حالة فشل محاولتهم الاولى لإنشاء أعمال جديدة بما فيها البنوك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٦. رجال البنوك يعرفون جيدا الأمور القانونية المتعلقة بصناعتهم البنكية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٧. رجال البنوك يعرفون جيدا كيف يتعاملون مع الأخطار المحيطة	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

	أمر حيوي ومهم.					
١٣.	أفضل العمل وحدي إذا كان العمل مع المجموعة يؤثر في إنتاجي.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٤.	أن يتوفر لي حرية تطبيق أسلوبي الشخصي في العمل أمر هام وضروري.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٥.	العمل ضمن مجموعة أفضل من العمل بصورة فردية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٦.	قرارات المجموعة او الفريق أكثر صوابا من القرارات الفردية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٧.	أفضل أن أكون مسؤولاً عن قراراتي الشخصية.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٨.	المساهمة في المجهودات الجماعية، تعتبر من أهم سياسات هذا البنك/الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
١٩.	أن إنجازاتي الشخصية أهم من إنجازات المجموعة.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٠.	مساعدة الأخرين في العمل أمر حيوي في هذا البنك/الفرع.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢١.	أن توفر لوظيفتي فرصة للتقدم أمر هام وضروري.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٢.	أن أعمل في بنك ذو سمعه جيده وناجح أمر مهم عندي.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٣.	أن أحصل على وظيفة توفر دخلاً عالياً، أمر في غاية الأهمية لي.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٤.	أن أتفوق على زملائي في هذا البنك/ الفرع أمر مهم وضروري.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢٥.	من الأهمية أن أعمل مع مجموعة يتعاونون معا.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء السابع: كلمة البنك هنا تعني الفرع أيضاً.

في هذا الجزء نرغب في تقييم الأداء الكلي مثل النمو، المنافسة، الأرباح، .. الخ، الرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع دائرة حول الرقم والذي يعكس تقييمكم لكل عبارة.

		ضعيف	مقبول	جيد	جيد جدا	ممتاز
١.	عموما خلال العام الماضي كان مستوى أداء البنك	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٢.	عموما خلال العام الماضي مقارنة بأداء منافسكم الرئيسي كان مستوى أداء البنك.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥
٣.	عموما خلال السنة الماضية مقارنة بجميع منافسيكم كان مستوى النمو في مبيعاتكم.	١	٢	٣	٤	٥

الجزء الثامن: : معلومات إدارية عامة:

....

أرجو التفضل في الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية فيما يتعلق بشخصكم والبنك. مرة أخرى نود أو نكرر أن هذه الإجابات سوف تعامل بسرية تامة ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض هذا البحث.

١. وظيفة أو مركز المجيب:

١. .... مدير عام   ٢. .... مدير فرع   ٣. .... أخرى (الرجاء التحديد)

٢. الجنس:

١. .... أنثى   ٢. .... ذكر

٣. التعليم أو المؤهل العلمي:

١. .... ثانوية عامة   ٢. .... كلية مجتمع   ٣. .... بكالوريوس

٤. .... دراسات عليا (ماجستير دكتوراه)   ٥. أخرى (الرجاء التحديد) •

٤. التخصص العلمي:

١. .... علوم اداريه (محاسبة إدارة اقتصاد)

٢. .... أخرى (الرجاء التحديد)

٥. سنوات الخدمة في هذه الوظيفة : . ...

٦. مركز عمل البنك/ الفرع :

١. .... المدينة   ٢. ....ضواحي   ٣. .... مدينة صغيرة /قرية

٧. العمر التقديري لهذا البنك: . ...

٨ . التقدير الإجمالي لعدد الموظفين : . ...

٩. التقدير الإجمالي لعدد العملاء: . ...

١٠. عدد فروع هذا البنك في الأردن: ....

١١. طبيعة الملكية في هذا البنك:

١. .... قطاع عام   ٢. .... قطاع خاص

٣. .... شركة مشتركة   ٤. .... غير ذلك

ملاحظة: إذا كنت ترغب في تسلم نسخة من نتائج هذه الدراسة، الرجاء كتابة اسمك وعنوانك البريدي:

الإسم: .... العنوان : ....

مرة أخرى نقدر لكم مشاركتكم الإيجابية في هذا البحث

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