



An Exploration into Senior Managers' Effectiveness: The Case of the Muscat Municipality, Oman

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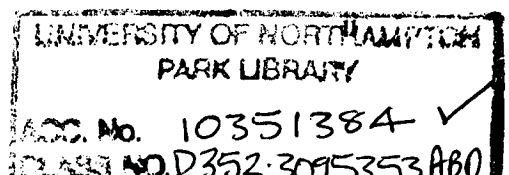
PhD Thesis

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An Exploration into Senior Managers' Effectiveness: The Case of the Muscat Municipality, Oman

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Abstract

Since the eighties there has been a concerted effort to reform the public sector in order to, amongst other things, improve their performance and service delivery to the public. Large scale and capital intensive projects are required, especially within Oman a developing country, for ensuring development and improved service for the citizen. The planning, implementation and maintenance of these initiatives rests on public sector institutions. The role and effectiveness of senior managers play a significant part in the overall success of their organisations and the development of their nations.

The main concern of this research is to explore and identifying the behavioural influences which contribute to the increased effectiveness of the senior managers of the Muscat Municipality, Oman. This research utilises a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. In addressing the leadership effectiveness in Oman, it utilises and contextualises Analoui's (2002) model of eight parameters for effectiveness as a basis to explore the awareness, perceptions, skills, organisational criteria, motivation, degree of demands and constraints, choices and opportunities, and dominant leadership philosophy for effectiveness. Based on the above, suggestions have been made to improve the content and context of senior managers' work to increase their effectiveness in Oman.

This first time study contributes to the present knowledge and understanding of the subject by contextualising the concept of 'Managerial Effectiveness' in Oman's public sector. It concludes that better understanding of the subject requires attention being paid to the identified parameters of senior managers' effectiveness. Moreover, consideration should be given to the influences and impact of the above parameters on personal, organisational and external contexts in Oman. These will lead to improved performance and organisational effectiveness as the whole.

Keywords: Managerial Effectiveness, Leadership, Perception, Public Sector, Managerial Skills, Management Development, Oman

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1. STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

The accompanying thesis submitted for the degree of PhD entitled

An Exploration into Senior Managers' Effectiveness: The case of the Muscat Municipality, Oman

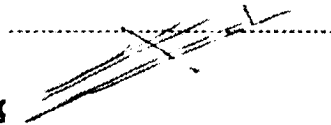
is based on work conducted by the author in the School of Business at The University of Northampton mainly during the period between

January, 2006 and December, 2008.

All the work recorded in this thesis is original unless otherwise acknowledged in the text or by references. If necessary for the deposit of this thesis in the institutional repository, permission to disseminate third party material has been sought and granted by copyright holders.

None of the work has been submitted for another degree in this or any other University.

Signed



Date 15 January 2009

2. FINANCES

NAME: Abdulla Abbas Ahmed.....

i) The above named student has paid the following fees in the current session:

Autumn Term

Spring Term

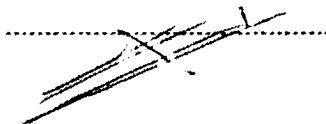
Summer Term

ii) The following fees remain outstanding from previous years:

.....

iii) I confirm that I have no outstanding debts to the University

Signed



Date 15 January 2009

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First and foremost, I would like to thank “Allah” the most gracious and merciful for providing me with strength, guidance and support to complete this important task.

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my mother who is always with me and of course also my wife and children who have been an unfailing source of encouragement and the main driving force behind my efforts to reach high levels of personal development and professional success.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview and introduction of this research. In the first section the research background will be discussed. Then the rationale for the research will be provided. Research aims, questions and research objectives will be introduced in the fourth section, and the research methodology will be overviewed in the fifth section. Finally, the chapter will end with an outline and a summary of the content of the thesis.

1.2. Research background

Although there are many important factors required for effective operation and the delivery of large-size, complex initiatives or programs in the public sector the quality of the leadership is consistently mentioned as a critical factor. Kotter (1995) argues that the role of leadership is especially important during the early phases of an initiative and he also states that half of all companies undertaking large, complex change programs fail during the first phases of the process. Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that the failure of programs during the initial stage is a failure of the program leadership. Top managers positioned to successfully initiate strategic change, are required to uncover the need for change. It is also their responsibility to convince others that an urgent need for change exists so that the people in the organization are able to align themselves to the new program or project (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003; Analoui, 2002; Quinn et al, 1996; Kotter, 1995). Without alignment, large complex programs have little chance of being successful (Hacker and Washington, 2003). Yet, despite the overall agreement that the role of the leader is a critical one for the success of the operations, the quality of leadership ability varies widely within and between organizations.

Important large-scale public sector projects, such as preparing the Athens Olympic Games, the launch of the new, large aircraft A380 Airbus and infrastructure projects such as the Channel Tunnel, are fundamentally different to smaller, routine projects. According to de Neufville and Scholtes (2006), Loch et al (2006), de Weck et al

(2004) and Miller and Lessard (2000), research has shown that large-scale projects differ on three accounts. First, in addition to size, salient political concerns at the municipal, national, regional or international level may induce idiosyncratic changes in national priorities. Sensitivity to public pressures needs to be considered. Second, uncertainty of varying sorts is likely to be encountered driven by factors such as market fluctuation, technological change, and the organizational complexity of the contractual relationship and special purpose consortia set up to run the project. And third, they are likely to impact on the sponsoring organization (in this case the Government), which often has a limited ability to spread risk over many projects and thus exposes the implementing organizations to the risk of damaged reputation.

The criticality of large-scale project leadership is driven by, amongst other things, the strategic planning of the project (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003). One of the vital tasks of a leader is the strategic plan of a project. The purpose of a strategic plan is to guide an organization or a project intelligently into the future. New presentation formats are created so that strategic plans include all relevant information captured in the project plans, which include: quality analysis, clear goals and objectives, pertinent implementation guidelines, focused tasks, detailed relevant budgets, and specific personal assignments. Inclusion of such information makes the strategic plan credible and actionable.

Research in the field of leadership has produced many schools of thought which, according to some scholars, can affect the delivery of large projects (Robinson et al, 2005). Traits theory is based on the premise that effective leaders are “born and not made” (Robinson et al, 2005). Certain identifiable traits have been associated with effective leadership, such as honesty, intelligence, confidence, emotional maturity and ambition. Additionally, developments in emotional intelligence (EI), defined as the ability to be aware and manage emotions in different circumstances, has given support to trait oriented thinking (Goldman, 1996). Further, charisma, that ‘unique and almost undefinable quality’ (Robbins et al, 2001, p. 406), has also been considered as a personality trait. Thus, one view of leadership is that the behavior adopted is consistent with a leader's personality.

An alternative perspective centres on the culture(s) within organizations, a concept that became more popular in the 1980s with the works of Peters and Waterman (1982). On the theme of organizational excellence, Peters and Waterman (1982) argued that a direct link exists between organizational culture, organizational performance and leadership. From such leads, some studies have tried to identify the relationship between specific leadership characteristics and organizational effectiveness outcomes. Several studies (Denison et al, 1995; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983) have adopted the 'competing values framework', so named because the two axes of the model are contradictory to each other. The horizontal axis is a continuum along the dimension of flexibility vs. control. The vertical axis is a continuum concerned with having an internal focus vs. an external focus. Both axes represent competing values for the organization and the leader. Recognizing the contrasts, the competing values framework has been adopted to better understand the relationship between leadership effect and organizational outcomes (Denison et al, 1995; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983).

Adopting the competing values framework, Quinn et al (1996) identify eight separate leadership roles, namely broker, coordinator, director, facilitator, innovator, mentor, monitor and producer that can be called upon in order to effectively meet the challenges of the situation. Along similar lines, Hacker and Washington (2003) found that three leadership roles, namely broker, coordinator and innovator, can alternately influence the success of a project. Each role has its associated distinct competencies and skills (Kotter, 1995). For example, brokers are "politically astute" (Quinn et al, 1996), innovators are "creative, clever dreamers who see the future, envision innovation, package that in inviting ways, and convince others that they are necessary and desirable" (Quinn et al, 1996); coordinators are skilled at ensuring that the project is managed systematically across functions. The study concluded that the strengths and weaknesses in each team role impacts on the leader's ability to successfully drive through major projects (Quinn et al, 1996; Analoui, 2002).

According to the skill set and role flexibility of the leader, Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that an inability to convince people of the need for change, or to mobilize resources, and coordinate effort is likely to lead to failing large-scale change programs. As is the case with program and project management poor

leadership is a major reason why organizational change efforts fail (Kotter, 1995; Hacker and Washington, 2003). Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that by providing leaders with the necessary high quality skills and through enhancing their understanding of their skill level requirements, the likelihood of poor project start-up and consequent failure, substantially decreases.

Other scholars (Stewart and Manz, 1999; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999; Mintzberg, 1998) have taken a different tack, focusing on the leadership contribution of teams. In high performing teams, some argue that there is a need for clarity of each team member's role. Tasks should be defined and balanced according to workload demand (Stewart and Manz, 1999). In keeping with this line of thinking, Stewart and Manz (1999) provide a typology of a leader's effect on a team in terms of Over Powering Leadership, Powerless Leadership, Power Building Leadership and Empowered Leadership. Along the same lines, Robbins et al (2001, p. 400) defines leadership as "the ability to influence and develop individuals and teams to achieve goals that contribute to a worthwhile purpose" and recommends that leaders should be able to communicate with team members and make sure they do not deviate from their goals.

Again, others take a different view (Mintzberg, 1998; Drucker, 1992) arguing that leaders can effectively run large projects through structural redesign, particularly through 'decentralization'. As a result, middle managers are freed from the stifling constraints of regulatory controls and the unproductive demands of hierarchical relationships. Individuals can manage 'their' business units in entrepreneurial ways, answerable solely for the *performance* of those units (Mintzberg, 1998). With 'empowered' employees working in self-managed teams, the broader challenges of co-ordination and leadership can now be positively exercised (Stewart and Manz, 1999; Mintzberg, 1998; Drucker, 1992). Thus, the traditional role of a 'leader' as someone who is individually responsible and accountable for the planning, co-ordination and control of the work of a bonded group of staff under their specific command, within the constraints set by policy and regulations, is considered to be disappearing. 'Managers' in the traditional sense are being replaced by a particular brand of professional knowledge worker' charged with more complex responsibility whilst being less constrained as a leader (Drucker, 1992;). Stewart and Manz (1999)

state that, the self-leadership of teams depends on the control philosophy of the organization, as well as the capability of its people. Choosing the magnitude of autonomy that should be given to the team depends on the level of technical ability of team members, the maturity for individual self-leadership and the attitudes of top management.

Studies on 'managerial effectiveness', over the last four decades have brought to light the importance of considering leadership beyond organizational arrangements and leadership maturity. It is argued that although the above qualities have profound influence on the achievement of the goals of the organization, they do not always account for the differences between effective and not so effective leadership. Various writers such as (Analoui, 1995, 1999; Drucker, 1992) attempted to identify the necessary ingredient for the effectiveness of the senior managers (leaders). Thus, it has been argued that there is not only a need to understand the processes involved (Willcocks, 1992) rather it is imperative to find practical ways of improving senior management effectiveness (Analoui, 1977, 1999). Recently, a study of the senior management in the public sector, where the senior managers have acted as the leaders of development projects, has revealed a myriad of factors which form parameters of effectiveness. These parameters centre around three influential sources (context) namely, leaders or senior managers themselves, the organization in which senior managers work and finally, the external environment which influences both the individual leader and the organization (Analoui and Labbaf, 2001; Analoui, 1999). Thus, the characteristics of the leader, in particular their perception of their own effectiveness, the level of functional skills and competencies necessary, the support, challenge and dynamics surrounding the teams, organizational criteria, constraints and opportunities, the nature of work to be undertaken and above all the dominant managerial style (leadership) in operation, are central considerations for successful project and program management.

1.3 Managerial Effectiveness

Studies on 'Managerial Effectiveness', over the last four decades have brought to light the importance of considering leadership beyond organizational arrangements

and leadership maturity. It is argued that although the above qualities have profound influence on the achievement of the goals of the organization, they do not always account for the differences between effective and not so effective leadership.

This organizational phenomenon, illusive in nature, has been known and labeled as a concept which is difficult to quantify (Bennet and Brodie, 1979), and even more difficult to measure (Analoui, 1994), yet it is often talked about and has attracted much interest from lateral and multi-lateral agencies, and has also been acknowledged by serious researchers such as Drucker (1967), Mintzberg (1973), Margerison et al (1987) and Analoui (1998; 2002).

Not surprisingly, there is not a single definition for managerial effectiveness in the literature, which could be widely used in theory and practice. Neither is there a single, clear-cut model which could be used to measure the effectiveness of managers. There have been as many definitions as there are researchers in the field, different authors each give a different definition in their works (Kassem and Moursi, 1971). Reddin (1970) defined effectiveness as the degree to which a manager achieves the output requirement of their job. Therefore, he argued that managerial effectiveness should be measured based on the output results of the managers' job. (Reddin,1970). At the same time Drucker (1967) defined effectiveness as a set of skills required to get the right things done and he considered managerial effectiveness to be a function of a manager's competence to master a complex set of practices which include: time management, result-orientation, building on strength, concentrating on a few major areas and making effective decisions (Drucker, 1967; Kassem & Moursi, 1971). Mintzberg (1973) defined an effective manager as one who recognizes the need to understand the content of the job and uses the available resources to carry out such operations.

Early writers, by and large, were concentrating on two interrelated issues to determine whether a manager is getting the job done satisfactorily or not; efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency is contended to be about the relationship between input and output. That is, to be efficient one should get more output from the given input. Or, in other words, to be able to minimize the cost of the resources needed to achieve the set goals. However, it is not enough to be efficient and often what is

more important is whether the manager is effective or not. Robbins (1997) argues that effectiveness is choosing the appropriate goals and achieving them, thus recognizing the presence of a myriad of choices available to managers. However Robbins fails to consider the parameters and contexts in which effectiveness occurs.

Based on Drucker (1967) and Reddin (1970) works, managers have to be effective as this is after all their job. Drucker (1967) highlighted the fact that when managers are hired they are expected to get the right things done, which means they are expected to be effective regardless of what business they are in. At the same time people with high intelligence, imagination and a high level of knowledge very often lack effectiveness. Thus there seems to be little correlation between intelligence, imagination, knowledge and effectiveness. Drucker (2006) pointed out that intelligence, imagination and knowledge are essential resources but it is effectiveness that converts all of these into results.

The manager's results should be looked at in terms of output. Thus the effectiveness of a manager should be defined by what the manager achieves and not by what he/she does (Reddin, 1970). According to Reddin (1977) effectiveness is not a quality that managers can bring into their job and it has nothing to do with skills and knowledge. Thus just to have knowledge and skills doesn't mean that the manager can be effective in his/her job (Reddin, 1970). According to Reddin (1970) a manager becomes effective by managing a situation appropriately and producing results from it. He stated that effectiveness is about performance and has not much to do with personality. He came up with fifteen questions which he thought are essential for a manager to answer in order to be effective. A manager is effective if other people make use of what he contributes (Drucker, 1967), therefore a manager's effectiveness is very much dependent on other people around him/her. Stewart (1991) believed that effectiveness requires the ability to look at the job strategically. According to her the effective manager has a 'helicopter' view, where one is high enough to see the whole picture but not so high as to blur the main features (Stewart, 1991). She pointed out that in order to be effective every manager needs to deal with three elements in his/her job, which are: Demands, Constraints and Choices. Demands are tasks that the manager has to deal with and he/she can neither ignore them nor delegate. Constraints are the factors that limit the manager's

actions, which also include the lack of resources and people's attitude. Choices are the opportunities which exist in the job and allow the manager to do something different from what other managers are doing. The changes in the demand and/or constraints affect the choices that are available to the managers (Stewart, 1991; Kakabadse, et al., 2004). Thus she indicated that those managers are effective who fulfill the demands and at the same time make use of the opportunities available in their job. However, Analoui (1999) believes that the constraints, choices and opportunities confronted by managers constitute only one of the eight parameters responsible for assessing the effectiveness of managers, especially the senior and executive cadre.

Writers such as Analoui (1995, 1999) and (Drucker, 1970, 2006) have attempted to identify the necessary ingredients for the effectiveness of the senior managers (leaders). Thus, it has been argued that there is not only a need to understand the processes involved (Willcocks, 1992 a, 1992 b) but it is also imperative to find practical ways of improving senior management effectiveness (Analoui, 1977, 1999).

Drucker (2006) concentrates on the managers and poses that the effective managers are all very different but what they have in common is that they all follow eight practices. They:

- Recognize what needs to be done
- Understand the nature of the enterprise
- Develop action plans.
- Take responsibility for decisions.
- Take responsibility for communicating.
- Focused on opportunities rather than problems.
- Run productive meetings.
- Think and say “we” rather than “I”.

These practices, according to Drucker (2006), provide the managers with the knowledge that they need, helps them to convert the knowledge into effective action and ensures that the organization as a whole feels responsible and accountable.

Based on Analoui's (2007), as managers are judged not just for what they do but also based on the outcomes achieved by their staff, their effectiveness should be assessed based on the level of motivation and morale of their staff, the success of the staff training and development, and the creation of an organizational climate which enables the staff to willingly produce effective results.

Managerial effectiveness can not be obtained by achieving only one single objective, no matter how broad the objective is. It is multidimensional and therefore managers who are focused on a single objective can be successful in the short run but may not be so in the long run (Reddin, 1970). One of the few things that many writers working in the field agree upon is that managerial effectiveness should be identified based on various factors (Kassem & Moursi, 1971).

Recently, a study of the senior management in the public sector, where the senior managers have acted as the leaders of development projects, has revealed a myriad of factors which form parameters of effectiveness. These parameters centre around three influential sources (context) namely, leaders or senior managers themselves, the organization in which the senior managers work and finally, the external environment which influences both the individual leader and the organization (Analoui, 1999; Labbaf et al., 2001). Thus, the characteristics of the leader, in particular their perception of their own effectiveness, their level of functional skills and necessary competencies, the support, challenges and dynamics surrounding the teams, organizational criteria, constraints and opportunities, the nature of the work to be undertaken and above all the dominant managerial style (leadership) in operation, are central considerations for successful project and program management.

1.3.1. Parameters of managerial effectiveness

Then, what it is that makes a manager effective? What are the criteria by which one can explain the effectiveness of a manager and tell the more effective from the less effective? Many authors agree that effectiveness is a product of many variables rather than one single factor and that these independent variables are interactive in their workings and varying in their impact depending on the person and the situation (Drucker, 1967; Campbell, et al. 1970; Reddin, 1970).

Analoui's (1999) research into the managerial effectiveness in the Ministry of Environment and Science and Technology in Ghana is a major contribution to the study of management and leadership effectiveness in the public sector. He identified eight managerial/leadership parameters which led to the emergence of the model 'Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness'. The study aimed to identify the causal and behavioral influences which determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the public sector. The results point to the presence of factors which constitute 'parameters' of effectiveness at work.

The eight major clusters of influences, referred to here as 'parameters' of managerial effectiveness are:

- Perception senior managers' of their own effectiveness
- Managerial skills or lack of them which attributes to their effectiveness/ineffectiveness;
- Organizational criteria for effectiveness
- .Motivation of senior managers' effectiveness
- The degree of 'demands' and 'constraints' senior managers are confronted with
- Presence of 'choices' and 'opportunities' available to senior managers
- Nature of inter-organizational relationships, and finally
- Dominant managerial (leadership) philosophy (Analoui, 1995).

The above influences are argued to have influence on the manager's ability to act effectively, as do the organization's culture and structure. It is widely accepted that the wider external influences such as socio-economic and cultural factors, as well as the internal factors such organization culture, structure and systems, influence organizational members perceptions, behavior and effectiveness (Page et al., 2003). Analoui (2007) has referred to these contextual factors as;

- Individual
- Organizational (internal), and
- External Contexts

The above model or parts of it have been tested in institutions in both the private and public sectors in countries such as Iran, Malaysia, Lebanon, Ghana, Romania, Palestine, Zimbabwe and India (Analoui, 1993, 1999, 1997, 2002, 2007; Labbaf et al., 1999; Analoui and Hosseini, 2001; Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2002) and have shown that the differences in contextual factors can have a profound influence on the behavior of the senior managers as leaders and their perception as far as their effectiveness is concerned.

The success of the development projects, an aspect of the senior manager's job within the Muscat Municipality, is highly dependent on the degree of the effectiveness and development of the human resources, and mainly the senior managers and executives who are indeed playing a crucial role (Analoui, 1999). The development of an organization is also very much dependent on the effectiveness of its senior managers, especially those who are involved in decision making and carrying out the strategic responsibilities within the organization (Analoui, 1993). When people are promoted to senior positions they are expected to immediately be as effective as those who promoted them (Drucker, 1967). Moreover, as life and situations are constantly changing effective managers now have also to be highly adaptive (Chauhan et al., 2005).

As will be explained in more detail (see chapter three), managerial effectiveness constitutes the core interest of the present first time study, however in a different contextual setting namely, the Muscat Municipality in Oman. The intention of the present study is to explore the parameters of effectiveness as they are perceived by senior managers and are related to their work.

1.4. Leadership Effectiveness and Public Sector Reform

There has been relatively little empirical research examining the relationship between effective leadership and project success. In the Sultanate of Oman, the public sector has been greatly instrumental towards the country's development. However, there is no doubt that the Omani public sector needs improvement and reform. However, it is believed that effective management will lead to improved public management processes and will serve as a mechanism to examine and control the utilization of resources for the general public. The leadership in project management, amongst other competencies, plays an essential role in the public sector in Oman. Managerial/leadership effectiveness can be further increased to accelerate the process of successful implementation of the development activities (programs and projects).

The centrality of the Muscat Municipality and its visibility and importance in terms of the development and modernisation of Oman means that clarification of the processes which lead to effectiveness of the leadership in this organization, will in turn have implications for the modernisation and reform of the public sector as the whole.

1.5. Main Aims and Objectives:

The main objectives of this research are to explore;

1. The dimensions of managerial and leadership effectiveness of senior officials (managers) and executives, who work in the Muscat Municipality and are in charge of the development projects.

2. The extent to which senior managers (officials) effectiveness can be attributed to their transformational and/or transactional managerial and leadership styles adopted when discharging their daily duties, including implementation of the municipalities large development projects.
3. The relevance of identifying the major effectiveness dimensions for the improved performance of the senior management (leadership) of the Muscat Municipality in particular and the leadership of the public sector as the whole.

The above objectives have been categorised into seven specific sub-objectives as follows:

1. Examine the role of the leadership in public sector organizations in Oman.
2. Identify the significance of the effectiveness of the leadership of the organization and its influence on the development of both the Municipality and the implementation of large projects, which ultimately benefit the Citizens of Oman.
3. Assess the extent to which one or more of the identified parameters of the senior managers' effectiveness contributes the most to their success in terms of managing people, work and stakeholders both within the government, and in national and international contexts.
4. Contributing to the theory of parameters of managerial effectiveness by contextualizing the model in order to reflect the work related realities of the public sector in Oman.
5. Identify and analyze the major human resources management concerns and challenges facing the leadership in the implementation of the projects and development within the Municipality.
6. Determine the most important issues related to the human resource development, in particular leadership development of the senior managers in the Municipality of Muscat to ensure increased effectiveness on the part of the senior managers and executives of the organization; and finally
7. To identify the policy implications of the identified need for increased managerial and leadership effectiveness for improving and strengthening the

senior officials who work in other public sector Ministries in Oman as the whole.

1.6. Research Questions

As it has been discussed in the previous section, the aim of this study is to explore how individuals' effectiveness in strategic leadership roles in the Muscat Municipality affects the delivery of large-scale projects. Thus, the research question is how applicable are Parameters of 'Managerial Effectiveness' (Analoui, 1999, 2002) to the Muscat Municipality context?

In order to answer these questions an additional seven sub-questions were pursued in an exploratory fashion.

1. What are the main development projects and programs being planned, implemented and maintained within the Muscat Municipality?
2. What are the main influential parameters (dimensions) of the management and leadership associated with the degree of effectiveness (or otherwise) of the senior managers (leadership) in pursuit of the implementation of the main public projects and programs?
3. What specific parameter(s) of the senior management effectiveness seem to be strongly associated with the success (or otherwise) of the leadership in discharging their duties?
4. What are the contextual influences including personal, organizational, socio-economic, political, cultural and environmental from which the leadership effectiveness occurs?
5. What is the link between the dominant managerial philosophies, the most important parameters of the senior managers' effectiveness, their effectiveness and their transformational and transactional leadership styles?
6. What are the implications, in terms of the human resource management and development policies and procedures, in light of the above findings?
7. To what extent are the above findings deemed to be relevant for the smooth and effective operations of the public sector (other ministries) as the whole.

1.7. Research Rationale

The business environment, in both private and public sector organizations, has changed at a very fast pace over the past few decades; the redesign of systems to reduce costs, improving effectiveness, development of new products and new alternative techniques are all parts of this new business environment. These conditions have compelled organizations to implement strategic initiatives as programs and projects. Development programs and projects in developing economies are often the cornerstone of long-term economic and social development (De Neufville and Scholtes, 2006). In recent years, the number of large, major programs designed to improve the infrastructure of developing countries has increased exponentially. Unfortunately, such programs are often fraught with questionable senior management performance leading to financial waste and marginalized results. These programs pose special challenges, risks and rewards to their leaders because they are larger tasks, have a more complex organization and offer risks and rewards both to society and those directly associated with them (De Neufville and Scholtes, 2006). This is especially true of developing countries such as Oman where a number of large, major projects have been implemented in recent years and many more are expected to follow in the future. Therefore, it is crucial that the leadership strategies used to drive through such projects be grounded in theory and supported by real-life empirical analysis.

The effectiveness of the project managers, especially the parameters of managerial leadership, is a topic which has gained more attention in past decades. Since leadership is concerned with the ability to influence the behavior of others to closely accord with the desires of the leader, it is inevitable that leadership must be concerned with interpersonal relationships in the pursuit of organizational and individual goals.

Although there are many important factors required for effective delivery of the large-size, complex initiatives or programs in the public sector, the quality of

leadership is consistently mentioned as a critical factor. Kotter (1995) argues that the role of leadership is especially important during the initial phases of an initiative stating that half of all companies undertaking large, complex change programs fail during the first phases of the process. Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that the failure of programs during the initial stage is a failure of the program leadership. Top managers positioned to successfully initiate strategic change, are required to uncover the need for change. It is also their responsibility to enthrall others in the belief that an authentic need for change exists so that the people in the organization are able to align themselves to the new program or project (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003; Quinn et al., 1996; Kotter, 1995). Without alignment, large complex programs have little chance of being successful.

According to Lewis (Loch et al, 2006) the project managers' role is critical to project success and facilitation of both the rational and emotional aspects of a project is complicated by the utilization of cross-functional teams. The project managers of today need to have business, interpersonal relationship and political skills, they must also be sensitive and responsive to project stakeholders, and be able to manage themselves.

Project management provides a vehicle with which to implement change. Therefore, to adapt, organizations require their project managers to lead strategic projects by identifying leadership styles and skills that have a direct influence on project success. This study provides organizations in Oman with development opportunities.

1.8. The need for context

Prior to the ascension of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said to the throne, Oman as a country had lived in relative isolation and obscurity. The country lacked adequate development and infrastructure. However, in the early seventies, a series of substantial changes took place. Priorities were set aside for the construction of infrastructure facilities such as roads, bridges, dams, street lights, public parks, schools, markets and social housing. Many educated Omanis who had lived abroad returned to Oman to take part in the process of nation building.

Oman, a country in the Arabian Peninsula, had to confront the reality that the dream of having a developed country and nation can only be realized by embracing progressive ideas and engaging in ever increasing regional and international relations, thus involving the world communities in its development affairs. Therefore, national and international contractors, consultants and experts were invited to take part in the construction activities as a result of the oil boom. Priorities and purposes were set, strategies evolved and changes resulting from the visionary achievements of the ruler of the country began to shape the future history of Oman.

Since 1990 the Muscat Municipality, specially the Directorate General of Technical Affairs Department, had recruited young engineers and management graduates who were mostly educated in Europe and the United States of America. This cadre of management which had already been exposed to better infrastructure facilities and technological developments began to become actively involved in the development of their country

During the last 25 years, the Muscat Municipality had embarked on many ambitious projects under the leadership of the Directorate General of Technical Affairs. These development projects and programs paved the way for the development of a modern capital– Muscat. Some of the important ongoing projects include: Construction of Southern Expressway (RO 131.681 million) (At the time of writing 1RO = US\$2.59), the design and construction of the Central Corridor from Madinat A'Sultan Qaboos to Bausher (RO 10.992 million), and the Bandar Al Jissah Yiti Road (RO 9.850 million).

In addition to the above major on-going projects, several re-construction and remedial projects have been being initiated in response to the recent cyclone Gonu (2007), which hit the coastal areas of Muscat. It is estimated that the overall cost of remedial works will be in the region of several hundred million Omani Rials. Muscat Municipality is also involved in the development of Muscat Waste Water Project and a major tourism project called 'The Wave'.

With such varied and on going major infrastructure projects, it is expected that Muscat will soon become a tourist destination and a desirable environment of the foreign investment and development. The Muscat Municipality, as an institution has received many international awards from international organizations, including the United Nations, for being a role model clean city with best infrastructure.

This brief background illustrates the importance of the Municipality and its development role for Oman as the whole and the need for the increased effectiveness of the senior officials, the very topic of this academic exploration, of its management cadre which is charged with the leadership responsibilities for modernizing Muscat, meeting the needs and requirements of its citizen and maintaining the achievements made.

1.9. Methodological overview

Several research techniques can be applied in a scientific context. There are differences in the detailed application of the technique, because work undertaken within the scientific tradition requires careful attention to the rigor with which the instrument is designed and validated, and the data is gathered and analyzed. In order to derive appropriate remedies for a problem, researchers are expected to employ suitable methodologies. Therefore, appropriate research methodology for this research was selected; the available research methodologies and outlines the characteristics, advantages and drawbacks of each are reviewed in chapter 5. The research contains an empirical analysis of the senior managers' perception of leadership effectiveness in the Muscat Municipality. In this research the senior managers of the Muscat Municipality were defined as a unit of analysis. A combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods (triangulation) has been used in this research.

Researching leadership effectiveness requires the right balance between qualitative and quantitative methods (Analoui, 1999). Yin (2003) argued that, qualitative research studies should always be followed by quantitative research to test the hypotheses. It is a principle of research in business and management studies, more especially leadership, to view qualitative and quantitative research as

complementary, rather than in competition with each other (Yin, 2003). Accordingly, a research process, which is based on the exploratory discipline, has been employed. This study required the collection of quantitative and qualitative data that would facilitate comparison and the answering of the research questions. The data examined in this research are gathered using two specially-designed instruments: a structured questionnaire which was used for the entire senior management (N= 48), and a series of face to face semi-structured interviews (N= 24). The research questionnaire and interviews follow an agenda, which investigates the managerial perception of leadership effectiveness and styles of the senior participants involved. The questionnaire is the main research instrument in this study. The survey as the data collection method was selected as it was thought to be superior when compared to the other two methods.

The nature of the data in leadership research includes both qualitative and quantitative. The collection of qualitative evidence usually involves interviews, which may be structured to a greater or lesser degree, in order to collect complex information about a particular aspect of the subject. Because research into strategic issues requires the collection of complex evidence concerning ‘why?’, ‘how?’, and ‘who?’ simple survey techniques are not appropriate and the researcher has to engage in a more sophisticated research strategy.

It has been emphasised that; qualitative and quantitative methods could be combined to reinforce each other in the same research project. The questionnaire was constructed using both open ended and closed ended questions. The close-ended questions were formatted using rating questions, matrix questions, semantic differential and ranking questions. Before distributing the questionnaire, the pilot study had been carried out. The questionnaire was revised after each round of discussion. More importantly, the questionnaire was tested on senior managers within the Muscat Municipality. In this regard, the questionnaire was pilot tested on a small number of respondents (see Chapter Five) to ensure the validity and reliability of the research instrument. Following a number of minor adjustments to the format of the questionnaire, it was ready to send to the respondents.

In order to analyse the data and consequently test the hypothesis, the collected data was summarised using statistical graphs such as bar charts and histograms. In addition, various descriptive statistics including means, medians, modes, standard deviations, coefficient of skewness and kurtosis were calculated. The main reason for such analysis was to get a clear picture of how the different variables were distributed. Regarding the reliability of the data, reliability analysis on measurements has been carried out. Generally speaking, in this research in order to analyse the data descriptive and non-parametric tests have been used.

1.10. Thesis Structure

The thesis is organised into eight separate but interlinked chapters; namely introduction, management and leadership, literature review and conceptual framework, role of Muscat Municipality, research methodology, data analysis, discussion and finally, summary and conclusions.

Chapter one introduces the research. It provides the background, rationale for the study and the deliniates the objectives of the research. Following an explanation of the research questions, an over view of the research will be presented and structure of the thesis will be provided.

Chapter two reviews the literature in leadership effectiveness and examines the evolution to the concept of leadership and management, and its major schools of thought. This chapter provides an overview of the major works in the areas of management. A number of important concepts in management and leadership will be been introduced. The chapter starts by defining the term management. It continues with reviewing the schools of thought in management including classical approaches, revolutionary approach, and new approaches to management and leadership. The chapter provides the history, nature and models of management. It continues by introducing the characteristics of management in the public sector. This chapter ends with the discussion on current emphasis on leadership in public sector research.

Chapter three reviews the existing theories of leadership. The theories differ greatly in their scope. This chapter provides a conceptual framework of the research. Two theories are used to form the development of a framework that will enable the analysis of the effectiveness of the leadership in the Oman public sector. The chapter continues to develop a conceptual framework of the research.

Chapter four provides an overview of Oman. The economic, social and cultural factors, that provide the very context in which development projects are implemented, are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter five describes how the research design was developed and in doing so draws together all of the preceding chapters. The chapter begins by outlining the research questions through the development of the framework. After considering the philosophical position that underpins the choices made in the development of the research design, the chapter then explains the research process. The selection of data collection techniques, by reviewing the pros and cons of the different data collection methods, is explained in the next section. The chapter then goes on to explain the questionnaire construction and survey process. This chapter ends with a discussion on data analysis techniques.

Chapter six provides the analysis of the data. This chapter also introduces the major findings of the research in connection with research propositions and research questions. The questions offered by the conceptual framework of the research are compared with the findings of the study providing an interesting insight into the phases of the process of project leadership and management in Oman.

Chapter seven provides discussion on the major findings and results of the study. This chapter bridges the literature review to the current study and compares and contrast the findings of this study with the previous researches.

Finally, chapter eight is the concluding chapter and as such is primarily concerned with the significance of the findings of the research. The chapter begins by revisiting the aims of the research and the research questions. The chapter then considers each of the research propositions, and explains the theoretical and

practical contribution of the research. Policy implications and implications for senior managers is the next section of the chapter. Suggestions for further investigations in the field are made and the chapter then concludes with a consideration of the limitations and difficulties encountered during the research process.

Chapter Two: Management and Leadership

2.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide the reader with an account of the historical development of the management and leadership literature. The chapter reviews the relevant literature on the issues to be discussed regarding management (including project and program), that managers (leaders) actually do and leadership definitions, schools of thoughts and models. The chapter starts with an overview of management theories. In the second section leadership theories and models are discussed in some detail, whilst in the third section the differences between management and leadership are reviewed and, as far as possible, de-mystified. The chapter continues with a discussion on management and leadership in the public sector. Throughout, the effectiveness of the managers/leaders, particularly the senior cadre, who are the focus of the present work, will be borne in mind. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary and conclusion.

2.2. Management

One of the most important human activities is defined as ‘managing’ (Vandeven, 1999; Cooke, 1999). Ever since people began forming groups to accomplish the aims that they could not achieve as individuals, managing has been essential to ensure the coordination of individual efforts (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990; Analoui, 1990). What do managers have in common? Mary Parker Follett, a management scholar described management as “the art of getting things done through people” (Stoner et al, 1995). Peter Drucker, a noted management theorist, states that managers give direction to their organizations, provide leadership, and decide how to use organizational resources to accomplish goals (1974). Getting things done through people and other resources, and providing direction and leadership is what managers do (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Analoui, 2000).

2.2.1. What is management?

Mintzberg et al (1995) argued that, if you ask managers what they do, they will most likely tell you that they plan, organize, coordinate and control. However, these four words, which have dominated management vocabulary since the French industrialist Henry Fayol first introduced them in 1916, tell us little about what management is. So let us shed light on some definitions of management. Koontz and Wehrich have defined management as,

“... the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims” (Koontz and Wehrich, 1990, p. 4).

It was suggested that, as managers, people carry out the managerial functions of planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. Moreover, managing is concerned with productivity; this implies effectiveness and efficiency. Daft (2000), contends that, management often is considered to be a universal phenomena, because it uses organizational resources to accomplish goals and attains high performance in all types of profit and non-profit organizations. He has therefore defined it as,

“management is the attainment of organizational goals, in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organizing, leading, and controlling organizational resources”(Analoui and Karami, 2003, p. 7).

Two important points are: (1) the four functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling; and (2) the attainment of organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner. Managers, as we are all aware, use a multitude of skills to perform these functions (Analoui, 2000).

Whatever the orientations of individuals to work, it is through the process of management that the efforts of the members of the organization are co-ordinated, guided and directed towards the achievement of both individual and organizational goals. Management therefore, is the cornerstone of organizational effectiveness and is concerned with the arrangements for the carrying out of organizational processes and the execution of work (Analoui, 1999; Mullins, 1995). Management enables the

organization to contribute the needed results to society, the economy and the individual (Drucker, 1974). It is the natural outcome of human association, the need for leadership, which commonly arises in every social enterprise from church to guild, municipality to empire, war to university (Dyson and O'Brien, 1998). Daft's (1998) definition of management as the art of getting things done through other people calls for attention to be paid to the need for arranging for others to perform the tasks in hand, in order to achieve organizational goals. This involves the effective management of human resources (HR), as people are being managed and should be considered in human terms (Mullins, 1995). Management therefore attempts to create the right balance between the interrelated elements within the organization and to weld these into coherent patterns that make up the total organization suited to the external environment in which the organization operates.

Nowadays, it is not easy to define management out of context due to its complex nature. For this reason management carries a number of acceptable meanings, depending on the user's purpose; hence there is no single, universally accepted, standard definition of the term 'management'. The term is applied differently in different ways, with its meaning discernible only by considering its context. There is therefore, some confusion about the nature of management (Lawrence, 1986) and this has led to the term having several different definitions. For a working definition:

"Management is usually defined as getting things done with or through other people. It involves making decisions about the objectives and means to achieve the end set and more frequently making decisions to solve lots of problems that will otherwise frustrate the achievement of these objectives. Management is about planning and organising to get things done, and especially about coordinating, about bringing together, reconciling and integrating various activities or parts that all contribute to the whole. It is also about controlling or making sure things are going according to plan,....The organization in which this is all happening is made up of people, not mechanical parts, so that relations between people, communicating and maintaining commitment are all important" (Lawrence, 1986, p. 2).

Many reasons explain why the term management has been defined or applied differently. One such reason, and the most important, is the existence of different management perspectives, which have been developed at different times. These are discussed in the next sections.

2.2.2. Management functions

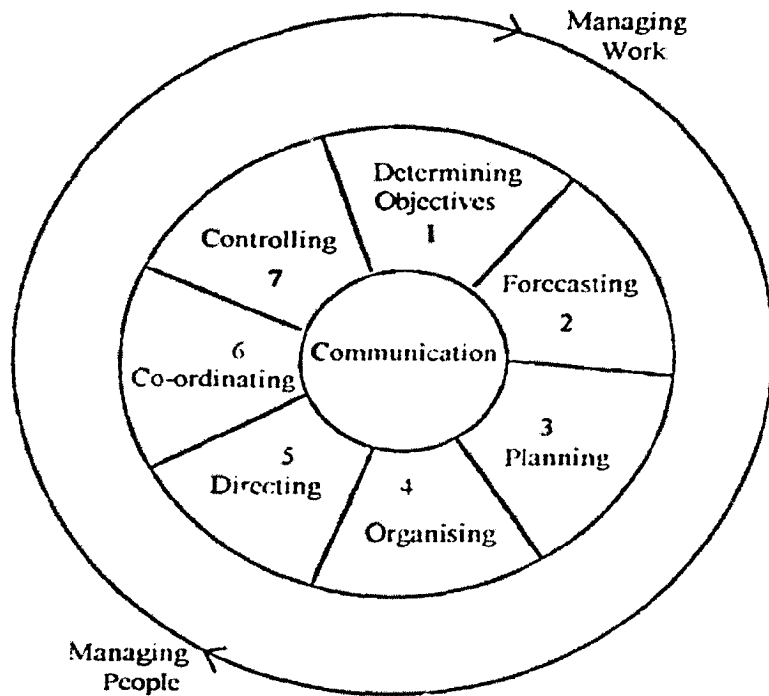
Many scholars and managers have found that, the analysis of management is facilitated by useful and clear organization of knowledge (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Mintzberg et al, 1995; Koontz and Weihrich, 1990; Kakabadse, 1988; Drucker, 1974). Gullick and Urwick (1954) introduced the acronym POSDCRB to denote the management functions; that is, planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. Other writers such as Apply (1956) also included planning, executing and controlling in their analysis of managerial work.

Prasad (1985), in his review of the writers on the functions of management, summarised that Davies (1951) thought of planning, organising and controlling as the functions of top management. Brech (1972), on the other hand, added motivating to the functions of planning, organising, co-ordinating and controlling. Breck's work can be compared with that of Koontz and O'Donnell's (1976), who in addition to planning, organising, directing and staffing also treat evaluation and representation as important managerial functions (Analoui 1997). It has also been suggested that innovation and presentation are also important managerial functions.

Drucker (1974) adds even more functions to this list namely: motivation, communication, measurement and the development of people, including the managers themselves. The latter is an interesting addition particularly in the context of the present study, since it highlights the fact that effective management not only requires the development of people, but also the development of the managers' own skills and performance.

A schematic model of managerial activities has been presented by Kakabadse, et al (1988), in which a distinction is made between the 'people' and 'task' related aspects of managerial work (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Wheel of Managerial Function



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

Planning defines where the organization wants to be in the future and how to get there (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1998). Planning means defining goals for future organizational performance and deciding on the tasks and use of resources needed to attain them.

Organizing typically follows planning and reflects how the organization tries to accomplish the plan. Organizing involves the assignment of tasks, the grouping of tasks into departments and the allocation of resources to departments (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990).

Leading is the use of influence to motivate employees to achieve organizational goals. Providing leadership is becoming an increasingly important management function. Leading means creating a shared culture and values, and communicating goals and mission to people throughout the organization. In the face of international

competition and the growing diversity of the workforce, the ability to share culture, communicate mission and goals, and motivate employees is critical to business success.

Staffing involves filling and keeping filled, the positions within the organization structure. This is done by identifying work-force requirements; inventorying the people available; and recruiting, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising, planning the careers of, compensating, and training, and otherwise developing both candidates and current job holders to accomplish their tasks effectively and efficiently.

Controlling means monitoring people's activities at work. Thus, determining whether the organization is on target towards its goals and making corrections as necessary. Controlling is the measuring and correcting of the activities of subordinates to ensure that events conform to plan. It measures performance against goals and plans, shows where negative deviations exist, and by putting in motion actions to correct deviations, helps ensure the accomplishment of plans (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990).

2.2.3. Management types

Managers use conceptual, human and technical skills to perform the management functions in all organizations (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Analoui, 1999). As Daft (2000), claims, the conceptual skills are concerned with the cognitive ability to see the organization as a whole and the relationships among its parts. It involves the manager's thinking, information processing and planning abilities. Human skills are concerned with the managers' ability to work with and through other people, and to work effectively as a group or team member (Analoui, 1998). These skills are demonstrated in the way a manager relates to other people, including the ability to motivate, facilitate, coordinate, lead, communicate and resolve conflicts. The technical skills result in the understanding of and proficiency in performing specific tasks (Analoui, 1990). All managerial jobs are not the same. Moreover, they are performed in different contexts. Managers are responsible for different departments, work at different levels in the hierarchy and meet different requirements for

achieving high performance (Analoui, 1998; Koontz and Wehrich, 1990). An important determinant of the managers' job is their level in the hierarchy in which they perform.

Senior managers and executives are naturally responsible for the entire organization. They have such titles as president, chairperson, executive director, chief executive officer (CEO), and executive vice-president (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Analoui, 1999). Top managers are responsible for setting organizational goals, defining strategies for achieving them, monitoring and interpreting the external environment, and making decisions that affect the entire organization. Middle managers are responsible for business units and major departments (Analoui and Karami, 2003). Examples of middle managers are department and division heads, and those responsible for quality control. Middle managers are responsible for implementing the overall strategies and policies defined by top team. Last but not least, line managers are directly responsible for production of goods and services and are often the link between organization and its clients (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Cooke, 1999).

In this research an attempt has been made to focus on the effectiveness of the senior managers in the context of leadership of the large scale projects in the Muscat Municipality, Oman. These organizational actors are charged with the responsibility for the planning, implementation and often maintenance of the project management. In that sense, management is arguably charged with producing and maintaining a degree of predictability and order, and management on the other hand is charged with producing change.

As with management, the success of a leadership approach is determined by comparing the results to the leadership agenda. A distinction should also be drawn between managing a project and managing technology. By applying the appropriate methodology, project managers are likely to deliver the solutions the clients (in the case of the present study, the public or citizens) want.

There are two general methodologies; project management and development methodologies. Success in project management is dependent upon where the project

management philosophy is firmly entrenched. Project management is the core competency. The organization is focused on making projects succeed by paying attention to the processes, infrastructure and the needs of the human resources. Since the target respondents of the present study are involved to a lesser or greater degree in managing large scale projects, it is prudent to discuss project and program management in some detail.

2.2.3.1. Project management

Large-scale important public sector projects, such as preparing the Athens Olympic Games, the launch of the new, large aircraft A380 Airbus and infrastructure projects such as the Channel Tunnel, are fundamentally different to smaller, routine projects. According to Miller and Lessard (2000), de Weck et al (2004), de Neufville and Scholtes (2006), Loch et al (2006), research has shown that large-scale projects differ on three accounts:

In addition to size, other important factors need to be considered;

1. Sensitivity to public pressure and political concerns at the municipal, national, regional or international level may induce idiosyncratic changes in national priorities. .
2. Uncertainty of varying sorts is likely to be encountered driven by factors such as market fluctuation, technological change, and the organizational complexity of the contractual relationship and special purpose consortia set up to run the project; and
3. Impacts on the sponsoring organization, which often has limited ability to spread risk over many projects and thus the company runs the risk of losing its good reputation or even bankruptcy.

The criticality of large-scale project leadership is driven by, amongst other things, the strategic planning of the project (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003; Analoui, 1993). One of the vital tasks of a leader is the strategic planning of projects. The purpose of a strategic plan is to guide an organization intelligently into the future.

New presentation formats are created so that strategic plans include all relevant information captured in project plans, which include: quality analysis, clear goals and objectives, pertinent implementation guidelines, focused tasks, detailed relevant budgets, and specific personal assignments. Inclusion of such information makes the strategic plan credible and actionable.

2.2.3.2. Program management

Program management involves the planning, executing and monitoring of multiple inter-dependent projects designed to achieve an overall objective. Programs are typically characterized as large-scale and complex. Program level change is most often executed in phases (Kotter, 1995; Rosenau, 1992; Beer et al, 1990;). Considering that there are many stakeholders and competing priorities, the initial phases of program management consistently requires the cooperation of many individuals (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003). A successful program launch requires that the initial phases be executed well. The leadership element is considered to be especially critical during this time (Giacchino and Kakabadse, 2003; Hacker and Washington, 2003). Further leadership responsibility is to set new direction and new priorities, help people understand, meet their expectations and motivate people to want to make 'it' happen despite sacrifices and difficulties (Drucker, 1992; Kotter, 1990). On this basis, scholars (Beer and Nohria 2000; Kotter, 1995) claim that leadership is the critical and main ingredient in launching and continuing with a successful program. Brill and Worth (1997) argue that it is essential that the leader has the capability to energize others and display commitment to any new program in order to motivate and mobilize resources to begin to move the organization towards a new way of accomplishing its work. Without this drive, the program may sputter along, but ultimately fail (Brill and Worth, 1997). In addition to energy and drive, a leader needs to wisely utilize the discretion available to them (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999) in order to adopt the style(s) deemed appropriate to the circumstances and the direction chosen.

In order to better appreciate the importance of the management, it is deemed necessary to consider management and leadership in its development and historical context. Whether the concern is with routine or projectised activities, the behaviour of the managers/leaders - in this case their effectiveness - is predominantly

influenced by the dominant managerial philosophy to which the role holder either explicitly or implicitly, and consciously and even unconsciously adheres (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999; Analoui, 1993). The discussion in the next section is intended to provide this understanding.

2.2.4. Development of management thought

Different theorists have focused attention on different aspects of management theory resulting in the evolution of a number of theoretical approaches. Koontz and Wehrich (1990) describe this proliferation of parallel theories as the ‘management theory jungle’. Systematic management theory seems to be relatively new, its history short and spanning six to seven decades, yet much has happened to highlight its evolution. Management history moved slowly prior to the nineteenth century, but has developed rapidly since then (Mullins, 1995; Stoner et al., 1995; Appleby, 1994; McFarland, 1974). The early approaches to management theory included:

- i) Scientific Management (1910–1950s);
- ii) Human Relations Movement (1940s–1950s); and
- iii) Behavioural Management Science (Systems) (1950).

In recent times approaches such as the Systems Theory, the ‘Contingency’ and the ‘Dynamic Engagement’ approaches have emerged. Each milestone in the evolution of management thought is marked by a new or different set of assumptions about the nature of work, organization, people, clients and other concepts such as motivation, rewards and the like (Analoui, 1993; 1998). Even though the various schools of thought overlap, each perspective provides a basis for the development of the next and the changing ways, which have been used to deal with people as resources in organizations (Analoui, 1998; Mullins, 1995; Stoner et al., 1995; Cole, 1993; McFarland, 1974). What follows is an attempt to illustrate the developmental aspect of management with functional roles to leadership and its effectiveness.

2.2.4.1. Traditional school of thought

The Classical or traditional school of thought in management is associated with writers like Taylor (1947), Fayol (1914-1941) and Mooney (1947). The Classical

theorists thought of the organization in terms of its purposes and formal structure (Mullins, 1995) and viewed organizations as hard, easily definable entities, which were mechanically structural and were operating based on scientific laws and general principles (Blau and Scott, 1966). The classical writers, also known variously as 'structural', 'formal' or 'scientific' management writers were concerned with increasing the organization structure as a means of increasing efficiency of labor. They emphasised planning of work, technical requirement of the organization, principles of management, and the assumption of rational and logical behaviour. The employees were considered to be components of a mechanical structure and were even described as the 'cogs' of a machine that were expected to behave in an orderly fashion in a predictable environment. (Analoui, 1998; Salaman, 1992; Lawrence, 1986). The Classical approach to management has two major sub-groupings: i) Scientific Management and ii) Classical Management (Bureaucracy) (Analoui, 1998; Mullins, 1995).

2.2.4.1.1. Scientific management

The proponents of the Scientific Management approach included Taylor, Gilbreth, and Garitt. Among these, Taylor was the most popular as his name has become synonymous with the term 'scientific management' (Analoui, 1998) and is commonly referred to as the father of scientific management. Most of the scientific management theorists were practising managers with shrewd insight and practical abilities. They have been described as men of their times, active participants in the great industrialization process, contributing to the growth of large-scale, urbanized industry accompanied by mushrooming technological development by McFarland (1974), who analyzed their experiences and wrote about them for the benefit of others. These theorists, who are also referred to as 'human engineers', sought the 'one best way' of performing a task, selecting, training, and motivating workers scientifically (Stoner et al, 1995; Bedeian, 1993).

They were particularly concerned with two issues: "i) Increasing the productivity of individuals performing work; and, ii) increasing the productivity of the organizations within which work is performed" (Daft, 1998, p. 6). Their emphasis on rational analysis and the application of scientific rigor to facts and information about productivity led to the term 'Scientific Management' to describe their

approach to management. The human engineers believed in the rational-economic needs concept of motivation and believed that if management put their ideas into action, work will be more satisfying and good for all concerned (Mullins, 1995). They provided a set of principles that would lead to improved management-labor relations, and to improved industrial efficiency and prosperity. Taylor and his followers regarded workers as rational and economic beings motivated by monetary incentives linked to the level of work output.

The Scientific Managers have been accused of reducing the role of the worker as a result of the loss of their decision making at work, and the high level of control and planning exercised by management; reducing the ability of the employees to bargain about their wages and ignoring the human element in the organization (Bedeian, 1993; Cole, 1993). For example, Taylor has been criticised for basing his diagnosis of the industrial situation on the simple theme of inefficiency (Rose, 1978). McFarland has summed up the criticisms against scientific management approach as:

“The principles that the scientific management movement set forth were not rigorously scientific, however, and they did not stand the test of time. They did not add up to a consistent, complete body of theory. They reflected the observer’s empirical observations and built upon truly scientific research and evidence” (McFarland, 1974, p. 17).

Despite the criticisms levelled against the scientific management approach, it has been a powerful and influential philosophy throughout the world, especially within the third world countries and those who believe in centralisation of planning, decision-making and power within the organization. It has left to modern management the legacy of such practices as work-study, organization and methods, payment by results, management by exception and production control (Analoui, 1998; Mullins, 1995; Cole, 1994; McFarland, 1974; Etzioni, 1964; Emerson, 1962; Fayol, 1916). The criticisms against the scientific management theorists are based on a misunderstanding of the precepts as many of their ideas are accepted by present day managers (Mullins, 1995; Wren, 1979; Drucker, 1974) . For example, Drucker writes:

“Frederick Winslow Taylor may prove a more useful prophet for our times than we yet recognised ...Taylor’s greatest impact may still be ahead ... the under-developed and developing countries are now reaching the state where they need Taylor and ‘scientific management’.... But the need to study Taylor anew and apply him may be the greatest in the developed countries” (Drucker, 1974, pp. 23-27).

One of the most influential writers of classical management perspective, after Taylor, is Fayol (1916), who was regarded as the father of administrative management (Mintzberg, 1973). His chief concern was to raise the status of management practice by supplying a framework for analysis in the form of management functions and principles of managing organizations. He believed that a number of principles of management exist and he listed 14 principles in his famous book ‘General and Industrial Management’ (Daft, 1998). To him, these principles were not absolute but capable of adaptation according to needs. Fayol (1926) also identified five basic functions of management, which still underlie much of the general approach to today’s management theory as: planning, organizing, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling (Daft, 1998; Cole, 1996; 1994).

The classical management theorists contributed a great deal to modern day management studies. For example, some of their principles of management are still relevant. Today, almost every management book refers to the five basic management functions introduced by Fayol (Mintzberg, 1973). Gulick’s acronym POSDCORB (Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting), used to describe the work of the chief executive, continues to dominate the writings on managerial work to the present day (1954).

With their belief in the planning of work, technical requirement of the organization, principles of management, and the assumption of rational and logical behaviour, and the establishment of principles and planning the work for the worker, the classical management writers placed emphasis on tasks and the task related aspects of the organization. They therefore treated people in the organization were treated like components of a mechanical structure and were even described as the ‘cogs’ of a machine that were expected to behave in an orderly fashion in a predictable environment (Analoui, 1998; Salaman, 1992; Lawrence, 1986). They were

concerned with efficiency and technical behaviours of the worker and hardly considered the development of the organization and the individual employees within the organization (Analoui, 1998). Performance appraisal at this stage was used as a tool to motivate the rational and economic workers to improve productivity. Performance appraisal was therefore purely evaluative and judgmental to determine how much an employee was to be paid to be motivated to increase production at a minimum cost.

2.2.4.2. Human relations movement

The Human Relations Movement grew out of Scientific Management with industrial psychologists attempting to fill in the gaps in knowledge about business organizations and it became popular in the 1940s and the early 1950s (Analoui, 1998; McFarland, 1974). The proponents, who included Mayo (1945) and Roethlisberger (1939), believed that the early theorists had overlooked the social factor in the workplace. They accepted the central goal of the efficiency of scientific management but focused on individuals and small-group processes rather than on the large organization. They stressed issues such as communication, leadership and interpersonal relations, particularly between employees and their bosses. The Human Relations scholars were interested in determining whether people at work were operating at their full capacity; and how far their performance was affected by factors such as temperature, lighting, humidity and noise in the workshop (Analoui, 1998). They attempted to find ways of improving the quality of life in work organizations as they believed that it could increase the job satisfaction and productivity of employees (Hackman and Suttle, 1977).

The turning point of the Human Relations Movement came with the Hawthorne studies undertaken by Mayo (1945) and his colleagues at the Western Electric Company in America. The Hawthorn studies demonstrated that “variables such as illumination and humidity cannot be treated separately from the meaning which individuals assign to them, their attitudes to them and pre-occupation with them” (Analoui, 1998, p. 8). After a series of experiments, the researchers could not agree on the factors that contributed to the increase in output over the period. They however, among other things, came to the following conclusions:

- i) Money was not the cause of the increase in output (Roethlisberger et al., 1939). However, recent studies have shown that money was a major factor for the increase in output (Parson, 1974). It has been demonstrated that becoming a part of the experiment led to an increase in the salary of the employee and this made many employees volunteer to join the experiment.
- ii) Man is a social animal - at work as well as outside it - and that membership of a group is important to individuals (Cole, 1994).
- iii) People go to work to satisfy a complexity of needs (Daft, 1998); and.
- iv) Management, supervision and attention influence productivity and effectiveness.

From these and other conclusions, the human relation theorists emphasised the importance of the wider social needs of individuals. They therefore gave recognition to the work organization as a social organization and the importance of group, and individual values and norms, in influencing individual behaviour at work. Unlike the scientific managers who were concerned with 'organization without people', the human relations theorists were concerned with 'people without organization' (Daft, 1998, 1995; Cole, 1994; McFarland, 1974).

Most of the criticisms against the human relations theorists have been about the way the Hawthorne studies have been interpreted (Cole, 1994). It is argued that Mayo's (1945) use of the studies was biased towards his own interpretations of what was happening. The researchers have also been criticised on methodological grounds in that the study was insufficiently scientific and took too narrow a view, which denied the role of the organization itself in how society operates (Mullins, 1995; Cole, 1994; Silverman, 1970). Concluding his work on the human relations theorists, McFarland said:

"Like the scientific management efforts, research in human relations focused on the lower levels of organizations rather than on the middle and upper groups, so it lacked the comprehensive scope that the development of theory demands...the human relations movement accepted many of the assumptions of the scientific management thinkers, and it did not achieve major breakthroughs in management theory" (McFarland, 1974, p. 17).

Despite these criticisms, the Human Relations Movement has made significant contributions to the development of management thought and our understanding of today's management studies. The Human Relations Movement generated new ideas concerning the importance of communications, output restrictions, motivation and job design. They recognised the importance of informal groups within the formal structure. Their emphasis on people as the most crucial factor in determining organizational effectiveness still persists today (Daft 1998; Mullins, 1995; Cole, 1994, 1993; Bedeian 1993; McFarland, 1974). The Human Relations Movements' studies, especially the Hawthorne studies, gave impetus to today's personnel management and the use of counselling interviews, and highlighted the need for management to listen to the feelings and problems of workers (Daft, 1998; Mullins, 1995).

Like the classical management writers, assessment of the performance of staff had evaluative motive. Even though the concerns of staff were considered, the objective of the assessment was not to ensure the development of the individual employees but how to improve the conditions in the organization in order to ensure increased productivity.

2.2.4.3. Behavioural science approach

The Behavioural Science Approach applied social science in an organizational context, drawing from economics, psychology, sociology and other disciplines Daft (1998). The behavioural science approach is defined as the study of observable and verifiable human behaviour in organizations, using scientific procedures. It is largely inductive and problem centred, focusing on the issues of human behaviour and drawing from the relevant literature, especially in psychology, sociology and anthropology (Daft, 1998) .

The Behaviour Scientists believed that even though a manager must plan, organise, lead, and control staff and work, management must not be understood solely in these terms as it leads only to the descriptions of what they do and not analysis and understanding of what they do. They believe that both the economic and the social man models are oversimplification.

Critics of the Behavioural Science Approach believe that managers find it difficult to implement the findings of the approach due to the complex nature of some of their findings. They argue that some of the concepts of the approach run counter to common sense thus inviting managers to reject such findings. However, the behaviour scientists have made significant contributions to improve our understanding of and practical applications for organizational processes such as motivation, communication, leadership and group processes. They have also encouraged managers to regard members of the organization as full human beings and not tools (Analoui, 1998; Lawrence, 1986).

Another contributor to the Human Relations Approach is McGregor (1960) who challenged both the classical perspective and early human relations assumptions about human behaviour. He feels that the classical perspective has wrong assumptions about human behaviour while the human relations ideas about human behaviour do not go far enough. To him, the style of management adopted is a function of the manager's attitudes towards people and his assumptions about human nature and behaviour (Daft, 1998). He therefore proposed theories X and Y as sets of assumptions made by managers about the behaviour of their employees (Daft, 1998; Cole, 1994). According to McGregor, the classical management perspective is based on assumptions of Theory X about the worker, which believes that the average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid working if that is possible. The worker lacks ambition, wishes to avoid responsibility and rather wants to be directed. To get the workers to give of their best, management must coerce, control, direct and even threaten them with punishment.

McGregor sees Theory Y as going beyond the early assumptions of the human relations approach about human behaviour and has positive attitude towards the worker. The average worker does not have an inherent dislike for work; does not need external controls and threats of punishment to work towards the achievement of organizational goals. Workers will exercise self-direction and self control to achieve the objective to which they are committed. Under proper conditions, workers will not only accept responsibilities but will seek them. Management must therefore create the enabling environment for workers to exercise their imagination,

ingenuity and creativity in achieving organizational goals or effectiveness since this is widely distributed in the population. Management must also take advantage of the intellectual potentialities of the workers as this is only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life (Mullins, 2005; Daft, 1998; Cole, 1994; McGregor, 1960).

Depending on the inclination of the manager therefore, staff assessment may be used as a diagnostic or a developmental tool to ensure the improved productivity of staff and organizational development. The manager, who believes in the assumptions of Theory X, uses staff assessment to coerce, control, direct or threaten staff to improve performance. Performance appraisal, in this way, is seen as a diagnostic tool for determining whether or not the individual employees is to be retained in the organization or to be dismissed, and if the individual workers are to be maintained, how much should their salaries be increased or decreased to enable them give their best or ensure improved productivity. Staff assessment will therefore be judgmental and evaluative in purpose. On the other hand, a manager who believes in the assumptions of Theory Y sees the individual employees as assets and a source of competitive advantage. Employees are regarded as individuals with imagination, ingenuity and creative abilities that could be used in achieving organizational goals or effectiveness. Performance appraisal is used to create suitable conditions for the organization to benefit from the intellectual potentialities of the workers. Performance appraisal therefore becomes a developmental tool for the effective development of the individual employees and the organization.

2.2.4.4. Contemporary management approaches

As stated earlier, neither of the management perspectives replaced an earlier perspective nor did any cease to exist after the introduction of a new perspective. All the various perspectives are still in use in different shapes and forms. The most prevalent is the Human Resource Perspective. This has also been undergoing some changes in recent times (Daft, 1998). There have been some extensions of the Human Resource Perspective and two such extensions are the Systems Theory and the Contingency Theory.

2.2.4.4.1. The system theory

The Systems Theory is a way of thinking about management problems. It attempts to reconcile the assumptions of the Classical and the Human Relations approaches and to unify many fields of knowledge such as physics, biology, social sciences (Analoui, 1998). It focuses on the total work organization and the interrelationships of structure and behaviour, and the range of variables within the organization (Johnson and Scholes, 2007; von Bertalanffy, 1950). The Systems approach is premised on the assumption that organizations have similar characteristics to other living organisms (Hanna, 1997) and views the organization as a complex system made up of subsystems with a single objective.

As a system, the organization functions by acquiring various inputs from its external environment, transforming them as output and discharging the output into the environment (Terry and Franklin, 1982; Terry, 1977; Miller and Rice, 1967; Trist, 1963). All the elements must receive sufficient and appropriate inputs in order to provide sufficient output (Kakabadse et.al, 1987; Stewarts, 1982). Similarly, in order to attain cost-effectiveness and survive, the system needs to be opened both internally and externally and interact with its environment by changing its structure and internal processes. The view that the organization is made up of interdependent parts and that a change in one part affects the other suggests that in solving problems within the organization, managers must view the organization as a dynamic whole and attempt to anticipate both the intended and unintended effects of their actions on other parts of the system. The managers therefore need to employ their management functions of planning, organizing and controlling effectively.

From the Systems Theory point of view the effectiveness of senior managers and the leadership of the organisation will be largely determined by the factors which may or may not be in their control. The ever changing environment will have especial relevance for their effectiveness and the way they approach their tasks strategically (Analoui, 2007; Martinez and Martineau, 2001). Research has shown that senior managers who show awareness of the open system in which they perform are likely to be more effective than those who don't (Analoui, 1999).

2.2.4.4.2. The contingency approach

Contributors to the Contingency Approach include Burns and Stalker (1961); Woodward (1965); Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) and Pugh and Hickson (1976). The term 'Contingency Approach' was suggested by two American academics, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). In using the term, the authors state that evidence suggests that variables in organizations are so volatile that only a 'Contingency Approach' can prove practicable. The Contingency Approach is not in opposition to the earlier approaches, it however adopts them as part of a 'mix' which could be applied to an organization in a particular set of situations (Cole, 1994). It does not seek to produce universal prescriptions or principles of behaviour. It, however, deals in relativities and not absolutes. It is therefore a situational approach to management (Mullins, 2005; Daft, 1998; Cole, 1994). The Contingency Approach postulates that the successful resolution of organizational problems depends on the ability of a manager to identify the key variables in the situations at hand. Researches, so far, have demonstrated that there is no 'one best way' of designing organizations to meet their current needs as suggested by the scientific managers (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Woodward, 1965; Burns and Stalkers, 1961).

The Contingency Approach was developed originally in sociology under the name Structural Functionalism (Armstrong, 1996; Gluckman, 1964). In its crude, deterministic form, it implies that the internal structure and its system are a direct function of the environment. The approach highlights possible means of differentiating between alternative forms of organization structures and systems of management. It proposes the view that there is 'no optimum state' (Mullins, 2005). For example, the structure of the organization and it's 'success' are dependent upon the nature of tasks with which it is designed to deal and the nature of the environmental influence. The most appropriate structure and system of management therefore, will depend on the contingencies of the situation for each particular organization. Even though the works of the proponents of the Contingency Approach have been criticised as being based on a very small sample, relying on rather subjective information and employing unreliable measures, "they represent a most important step forward in the search for a theory of organizations that could take account of the variables affecting the structure of successful organizations" (Cole, 1994, p. 80).

2.2.4.5 Modern approaches to management theory

There are a number of key issues facing modern organizations today and management theorists, by their work, are helping practising managers to deal with such issues. The search for better and more effective and efficient ways of providing goods and services as well as the desire to understand the external world of the organization and learning how to cope with the changes in the environment are now stronger than before (Cole, 1994). In addition, the appreciation of the importance of human skills, ingenuity and motivation has grown with the arrival of new technologies. These, in addition to the expanding economic activities throughout the globe, have raised some management issues. Cole (2000) has listed about fourteen key management issues that have been identified by modern exponents of management theory. He has however argued that these issues need not be considered in isolation as they are interrelated in a way. For example, the mission or goals of the organization will influence the kind of organizational structure it should develop.

Modern management theorists can be grouped into two:

- i) Those who study organizations and reflect on the work and insights of others with the view to producing new ways of seeing and acting on problems they might be facing (theorists), and,
- ii) Those who have to meet the real challenges of managing their organizations and therefore look up to the 'experts' for help and advice (Practitioners). Most of the theorists are academics with a strong research background while most of the practitioners are practising management consultants, some of whom hold positions in American and British universities.

2.2.4.5.1. Changing paradigm of management

The world of organizations and management is also changing (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 2000; Dimmock, 1999; Stoner et al, 1995). Rapid environmental changes are the cause of fundamental transformations with a dramatic impact on the managers' job. These transformations in turn, represent a shift from a traditional to a new paradigm of management (see Table 2.1). A

paradigm is a shared mind-set that represents a fundamental way of thinking about, perceiving and understanding the world (Analoui and Karami, 2003). Traditionally, the whole organization has been coordinated and controlled through the vertical hierarchy, with decision making authority residing with upper-level managers. Within the new paradigm, the primary responsibility of managers is not solely defined as making decisions, but rather to create learning capability throughout the organization (Jordan and Jones, 1997).

In the learning organization, top managers are leaders who play a special role in forming the organization, with their vision for the future that is widely understood and imprinted throughout the organization. It has been commented that ‘learning organizations are capable of learning, and not only learning but also disseminating and applying the learning individually and collectively’ (Analoui, 2007, p. 304). Employees are empowered to identify and solve problems because they understand the vision and long-term goals of the organization (Pfeffer, 1995). The most striking change now affecting organizations and management is globalization. Taking a global view of the world has become a necessity for virtually every company and manager (Chimerine, 1997; Kakabadse et al, 1996).

Table 2.1 The changing paradigm of management

	Old paradigm <i>(Vertical organization)</i>	New paradigm <i>(Learning organization)</i>
Forces on organizations		
• Markets	Local, Domestic	Global
• Workforce	Homogeneous	Diverse
• Technology	Mechanical	Electronic
• Values	Stability, Efficiency	Change, Chaos
Management competencies		
• Focus	Profit	Customers, Employees
• Leadership	Autocratic	Dispersed, Empowering
• Doing work	By individuals	By teams
• Relationship	Conflict, Competition	Collaboration

Global competition has also triggered a need for new management approaches that emphasize the empowerment of workers and involvement of employees. Today senior managers, whether in the private or public sectors, have to understand cross-cultural patterns and often work with team members from many different countries. Diversity of the workforce has become a fact and a necessity of life for all organizations, even those that do not operate globally (Analoui, 2007; Schluer, 1992).

Another significant shift in management paradigm is that, technology is electronic rather than mechanical. Information technology facilitates new ways of working, such as virtual teams and telecommunicating, that challenge traditional methods of management and control (Analoui and Karami, 2003). In the face of these rapid transformations, organizations are learning to value change over stability. The fundamental paradigm during much of the twentieth century was a belief that things can be stable and efficient. In contrast, the new paradigm is based on the presence of change and chaos as the natural order of things (Tetenbaum, 1998). The change to the new paradigm of management means that managers now must rethink their approach to organizing, directing and motivating workers (Analoui and Karami, 2003).

2.2.5. What do managers do?

A main difficulty in describing the managerial job is that there is no certain definition of what managers actually do. Leavy (1996) points out that, 'managers do many different things, but there are three things they must do well. They must: (1) think about the purpose of the organization and the direction in which it should be going; (2) foster, promote and manage change; and (3) conduct operations in an effective and efficient manner'. These activities are important. But how do managers accomplish these demanding tasks? Although late in coming, attempts have been made to study managers and thereby gain insights into what managers actually do and how the managerial tasks are actually achieved. One of the most comprehensive summaries of these findings is that of Hales (1986). In this review, several of the issues that seem to be avoided by other writers have been covered.

That is, to what extent does what managers do match what managers ought to do in order to maximise organizational performance? Hales' study was particularly comprehensive because an attempt was made not just to look at the activities managers perform but to "shed light on five major areas ... about managerial work" (Hales, 1986, p. 90). These areas are:

- The elements of managerial work (what managers do)
- The distribution of a manager's time between work elements (how managers work)
- The interactions of managers (with whom managers work)
- The informal elements of managerial work (what else managers do)
- The themes that pervade managerial work (the qualities or characteristics of managerial work)

After reviewing many studies on the subject, the following "body of fact" was said to exist. First, management work combines managerial elements with specialty and professional elements. Managers almost always perform some non-managerial functions in the course of doing their jobs. Second, the substantive elements of management work entail providing connections, managing human behaviour, and assuming responsibility for getting work done. Next, the nature of a manager's work varies by duration, time span and unexpectedness. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to predict the variety of a manager's work during a specified period. Managers spend a great deal of time with every-day troubleshooting and solving ad hoc problems.

Hargie, et al., (2004) pointed out that,

"Communication skills and patterns for effective management are central to organizational life, and that ineffective communication leads literally to disorganization. It is for this reason that 'Organizational communication is one of the fastest growing areas of academic study" (2004, p. 33).

The communication patterns managers employ vary according to what the communication is about and with whom it is taking place. Managers do a lot of

persuading and engaging in brief face-to-face communication encounters. As a result, there is little time to spend on any particular activity or in the formulation of systematic plans. A great deal of the manager's time is spent accounting for and explaining what they want, and engaging in informal 'politicking' and in conflict resolution. It was also noted that managers are able to exercise considerable choice in terms of what they do and how they do it. Analoui, in his study of managerial effectiveness emphasises that managers, as leaders should be placed in the centre of analysis simply because organization effectiveness is, by and large, determined by their effectiveness. He goes on to say, whatever managers do is influenced by their effectiveness at work (Analoui, 2002). These generalisations summarise much of the research on managerial behaviour and work (Duncan, 1999, p. 28). However, other writers have suggested different ways of looking at what managers do (Mintzberg, 1973).

2.2.6. Managerial roles

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

2.2.6.1. The interpersonal roles

The interpersonal roles, as the name implies, involved the manager in developing relationships with other people and groups. This category of roles directly influences the status and the authority of the manager. Frequently managers are called on to perform as figureheads and to render ceremonial and symbolic acts. On

a 5-day trip to India and South Africa, for example, Microsoft's Bill Gates spent much of his 16-hour days holding press interviews, submitting to photo sessions and making speeches. Managers, in their interpersonal relations, are also expected to function as leaders and to motivate others as well as providing for effective staffing and training activities (Schlegelmilch et al, 1987).

2.2.6.2. The informational roles of managers

The informational roles of managers involve receiving and transmitting information. Sometimes the manager is seen as the monitor or nerve centre of information flow in the organization. In this role the manager is a dispatcher, routing information to different internal and external groups. Sometimes the role is more that of the disseminator of information. Once the manager receives the information, it must be selectively shared with people in the organization, and choices must be made about who will benefit from the sharing of information most directly. Grove (1985) provides a diary of 'a day in his life' as the chief executive of Intel. One 2-hour block of time in Grove's day was spent lecturing on the employee orientation program. This program was designed to afford senior managers an opportunity to provide new professional employees with information on company objectives, history and expectations. Information is disseminated in this way to a select group of employees (Duncan, 1999, p. 29).

2.2.6.3. Decisional roles

Mintzberg's final category is that of decisional roles. These roles are diverse and far ranging. They can include everything from scheduling one's own time to negotiating with the labor union. When the manager acts as an entrepreneur, he/she searches the environment for new and challenging opportunities. The entrepreneurial role involves taking the risks necessary to succeed in a competitive industry. The role of disturbance handler is assumed as the manager attempts to correct or fine-tune the organization's progress toward goals when things knock the operations off course. Frequently managers are expected to function as resource allocator and make decisions concerning whether or not to commit organizational resources to alternative uses. In one case, Grove (1985) made a decision not to grant a manager a pay increase that would have placed him outside the normal salary range for such a job. This was a resource-allocating decision. Finally, managers

assume the role of negotiator when they bargain with employees, their bosses, or outside groups such as the labor union.

According to Leavy (1996), he argued that the work of managers is much less structured than visualized by Henry Fayol. He states that managers do many different things, but there are three things they must do well. They must: (1) think about the purpose of the organization and the direction in which it should be going; (2) promote, foster and manage change; and (3) conduct operations in an effective and efficient manner.

These activities are important. But how do managers accomplish these demanding tasks? In this respect, the main questions gain insight into what managers actually do and how the managerial tasks are actually achieved. One can come to a 'body of facts' by reviewing the literature related to managerial effectiveness (Analoui, 2007, 2002, 1999).

Analoui and Karami (2003) have pointed out that while the categories of skills, namely task and people, are essential for the increased effectiveness of the senior managers, there are also other skills which have been largely overlooked mainly because managers have been perceived and distinguished as being passive rather than capable of recognising their own need for self-development. This is partly seen as an unintended consequence of adopting a prescriptive rather than descriptive approach towards the study and explanation of managerial behaviour, and their notion of their job (Analoui, 1999, 1993).

It is generally agreed that the classical definition of a manager's job in terms of a set of functions is a suitable way of viewing managerial work. However, its main shortcoming is that it does not identify the various skills and knowledge that are required to perform these functions effectively. Several researches have therefore considered this matter and have produced empirical evidence on the subject of the complexity and diversity of the managerial job. The next part of this review will focus on these academic works.

2.2.7. Leaders as strategists

It is now appropriate to consider who has the responsibility for making strategic decisions and strategic management (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 2001). Strategic management is meant to be useful for managers and tends to see organizations from the top downward, from the manager's point of view (see Figure 2.2). Goldsmith (1995) argued that strategic management's main teachings are:

First: look to the future. Know what markets you are in and want to be in.

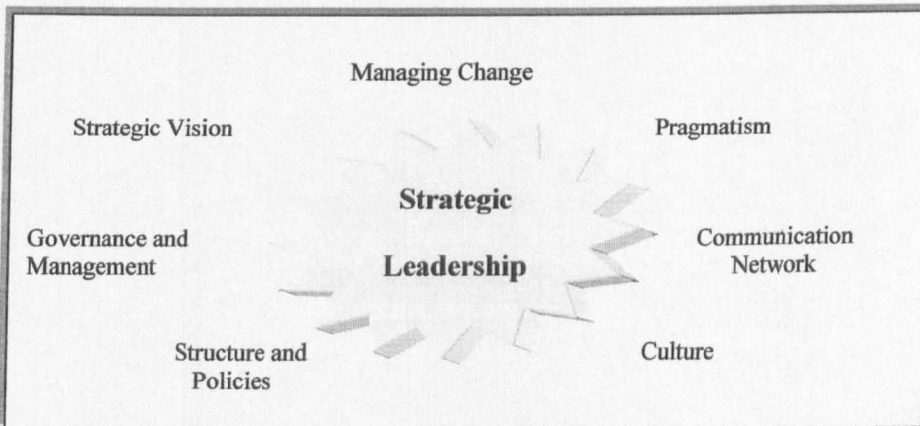
Second, pay ongoing attention to external factors - technological, economic, political and social factors.

Third, establish and keep a match among those external factors and internal organizational variables.

Fourth, strategic management is interactive (Bowman and Kakabadse, 1997).

It is not something that can be done at the front end of an operation and then dropped; it entails feedback and learning (Goldsmith, 1995). These teachings may seem like common sense, but that does not make them easier to follow. Because managing strategy is a process, not an event, it demands action and follow up. Determined strategic managers are always trying to build on the organization's strength and capitalize on favorable circumstances, minimizing weaknesses and overcoming threats to the organization (Kakabadse et al, 1996; Goldsmith, 1995).

Figure 2.2 Strategic leadership



Source: Thompson (1995, p. 93) *Strategy in Action*, London: L Chapman & Hall.

Wheelen and Hunger (1998) proposed that a corporation is a mechanism established to allow different parties to contribute capital, expertise and labor, for their mutual benefit. The investors/shareholders participate in the profit of the enterprise without taking responsibility for the operations.

Managers run the company without being responsible for personally providing the funds. To make this possible laws have been passed so that shareholders have limited liability, and correspondingly, limited involvement in a corporation's activities. That involvement does include, however, the right to elect directors who have a legal duty to represent the shareholders and protect their interests. Therefore the managing strategy is the duty of strategic managers in the organization.

The term Strategic Manager is being used to describe the chairperson, chief executive or managing director who is clearly responsible for the strategic decisions and changes. The strategic leader (manager) can be a single person or a team of executives, and he/she/they are responsible for the board of directors, and through the board, to the stakeholders of the business (Analoui, 1990; Barney, 1986).

An effective strategic leader ensures the organization has a strategic vision and a structure which allows successful implementation. Clearly, in the case of the Muscat Municipality, the respondents are just that - strategic leaders charged with the implementation of large scale projects as well as other daily functional leadership duties. It is therefore imperative to explore the degree of their effectiveness and how it can be further increased (Analoui, 2007).

Pragmatism is the ability to make things happen and bring positive results. It is possible for pragmatic leaders to be highly effective as long as they ensure the organization has a clear and appropriate purpose and direction. Corporate governance relates to the location of power and responsibility at the head of the organization. So it is vital that the strategic leader ensures that there is a strong, competent and balanced executive team at the head of the organization. Additionally, it is important that the leader ensures coordination between other

strategic leadership factors, such as structure, the communication network, culture and managing change in the organization.

2.3. Leadership

Research in the field of leadership has produced many schools of thought, one of which is the personality traits which, according to some scholars, can affect the delivery of large projects (Robinson et al, 2005). The Traits theory is based on the premise that effective leaders are ‘born and not made’ (Robinson et al, 2005). Certain identifiable traits have been associated with effective leadership, such as honesty, intelligence, confidence, emotional maturity and ambition. Additionally, developments in emotional intelligence (EI), defined as the ability to be aware and manage emotions in different circumstances, has given support to trait oriented thinking. Further, charisma, that ‘unique and almost undefinable quality’ (Robbins et al, 2001, p. 406), has also been considered as a personality trait. Thus, one view of leadership is that the behavior adopted is consistent with a leader's personality (Analoui, 1993).

An alternative perspective centers on the culture(s) within organizations, a concept that became more popular in the 1980s with the works of Peters and Waterman (1982). On the theme of organizational excellence, Peters and Waterman (1982) argued that a direct link exists between organizational culture, organizational performance and leadership. From such leads, some studies have tried to identify the relationship between specific leadership characteristics and organizational effectiveness outcomes. Several studies (Denison et al, 1995; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983) have adopted the ‘competing values framework’, so named because the two axes of the model are contradictory to each other. The horizontal axis is a continuum along the dimension of flexibility vs. control. The vertical axis is a continuum concerned with having an internal focus vs. an external focus. Both axes represent competing values for the organization and the leader. Recognizing the contrasts, the competing values framework has been adopted to better understand the relationship between leadership effect and organizational outcomes (Denison et al, 1995; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983).

Adopting the competing values framework, Quinn et al (1996) identify 8 separate leadership roles, namely broker, coordinator, director, facilitator, innovator, mentor, monitor and producer that a leader can call upon in order to effectively meet the challenges of the situation. Along similar lines, Hacker and Washington (2003) found that three leadership roles, namely broker, coordinator and innovator, can alternately influence the success of a project. Each role has its associated distinct competencies and skills (Kotter, 1995). For example, brokers are 'politically astute' (Quinn et al, 1996), innovators are 'creative, clever dreamers who see the future, envision innovation, package that in inviting ways, and convince others that they are necessary and desirable' (Quinn et al, 1996); coordinators are skilled to ensure the project is managed systematically across functions. The study concluded that the strengths and weaknesses in each role impact on the leader's ability to successfully drive through major projects (Quinn et al, 1996).

According to the skill set and role flexibility of the leader, Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that an inability to convince people of the need for change, or to mobilize resources, and coordinate effort is likely to lead to failing large-scale change programs. As with program and project management, poor leadership is a major reason why organizational change efforts fail (Hacker and Washington, 2003; Kotter, 1995). Hacker and Washington (2003) argue that by providing leaders with the necessary, high quality skills and through enhancing their understanding of their skill level requirements, the likelihood of poor project start-up and consequent failure, substantially decreases.

Other scholars (Stewart and Manz, 1999; Bass, 1990) have taken a different tack, focusing on the leadership contribution of teams. For example, in defining effective leadership Bass (1990) suggests that effective leadership is the following;

- The focus of group processes
- A matter of personality
- A matter of inducing compliance
- The exercise of influence

- Limited to discretionary influence
- An act or behavior
- A form of persuasion
- A power relationship;
- An instrument of goal achievement
- An emerging effect of interaction
- The initiation of structure
- A combination of elements

In growing high performing teams, some argue that there is the need for clarity of each team member's role. Tasks should be defined and balanced according to workload demand (Stewart and Manz, 1999). In keeping with this line of thinking, Stewart and Manz (1999) provide a typology of a leader's effect on teams in terms of Over Powering Leadership, Powerless Leadership, Power Building Leadership and Empowered Leadership. Along the same lines, Robbins et al (2001, p. 400) define leadership as "the ability to influence and develop individuals and teams to achieve goals that contribute to a worthwhile purpose" and recommends that leaders should be able to communicate with team members and make sure they do not deviate from their goals.

Again, others take a different view (Mintzberg, 1998), arguing that leaders can effectively run large projects through structural redesign, particularly through 'decentralization'. As a result, middle managers are freed from the stifling constraints of regulatory controls and the unproductive demands of hierarchical relationships. Individuals can manage 'their' business units in entrepreneurial ways, answerable solely for the performance of those units (Mintzberg, 1998). With 'empowered' employees working in self-managed teams, the broader challenges of co-ordination and leadership can now be positively exercised (Stewart and Manz, 1999; Mintzberg, 1998). Thus, the traditional role of a 'leader' as someone who is individually responsible and accountable for the planning, co-ordination and control of the work of a bounded group of staff under their specific command, within the constraints set by policy and regulations, is considered to be disappearing. 'Managers' in the traditional sense are being replaced by a particular brand of

professional knowledge worker' charged with more complex responsibility whilst being less constrained as a leader (Mintzberg, 1998; Drucker, 1992). Stewart and Manz (1999) state that the self-leadership of teams depends on the control philosophy of the organization as well as the capability of its people. Choosing the magnitude of autonomy that should be given to the team depends on the level of technical ability of team members, the maturity for individual self-leadership and the attitudes of top management.

Thus, the characteristics of the leader, the type of work to be undertaken, the level of functional expertise necessary and the support, challenge and dynamics surrounding teams, are central considerations for successful project and program management.

2.3.1. Defining leadership

The concept of leadership has been defined from different perspectives. For example, according to Goleman (2000) leadership is the influence process, working with and through others to accomplish the goals of the organization. Goleman stated that leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, a matter of personality, a matter of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, particular behaviours, a form of persuasion, as a power relation, an instrument to achieve goals, an effect of interaction, a differentiated role, initiation of structure, and as a combination of these functions. Leadership is one of the most studied and least understood topics in all the social sciences. Many people have struggled to define leadership and there are a plethora of definitions and clichés, none of which are universally accepted. For example it has been argued that 'Leaders articulate and define what has previously remained implicit or unsaid: they invent images, metaphors and models that provide a focus for new attention. By doing so, they consolidate a challenge, provoking wisdom. In short, an essential factor in leadership is the capacity to influence and organize meaning for the members of the organization' (Bennet and Brodie, 1979).

However, after a century of theory and research, there is little agreement on a definition. A traditional view of leaders' centers around the strong individual

providing vision and inspiration to organizations, and sees leadership as a process often motivating other people to act in particular ways in order to achieve specific goals. Brown and Eisenhardt (1997) sees leadership as essentially about moving people in unison and with consensus towards a commonly defined goal. For this reason, leadership and managing change are seen as being often synonymous and bound up in a cyclical process.

Brown and Eisenhardt (1997) concludes that effective leadership involves change management (and managing change requires good leadership). Being a successful leader entails encouraging innovation in others by skills of active listening and empowering. In this sense of the word, researcher's observation shows that strategic leaders are involved in projects and programs which bring about change. These programs of change, as will be explained in chapter four, bring about consequent changes which benefit the public as recipients of the programs. Senior managers in the Muscat Municipality do not operate in a vacuum or individually, rather they operate in teams and cohesive groups which increases their effectiveness. Only when the power of the leader is 'given away' to the team (so individuals' contributions carry equal weight) will suggestions for improvement and change be forthcoming. Empowerment, change and leadership are seen as inextricably linked. Leadership is currently seen by some to be also about drawing people together, coordinating the component parts of an organization and integrating its outputs. It has been argued that generally the managers interviewed had outgrown the notion of the individualistic leader. Instead, they regarded leadership as a question of drawing people and disparate parts of the organization together in a way that made individuals and organizations more effective (Dess and Miller, 1995)

Daniel Goleman (2000), author of the influential book 'Emotional Intelligence', however, sees leadership as essentially an emotional process of creating a 'reservoir of positivity' in people (called 'resonance') which releases the best in people and allows them to flourish. The prime task of leadership is seen as being to 'drive the collective emotions in a positive direction and clear the smog created by toxic emotions.'

2.3.2. Leadership theories

Leadership theories can be categorized into four main groups of theories including trait spotting, style counselling, context fitting and new leadership perspectives. Trait spotting: attempts to identify the personality traits and other related attributes of the effective leader. Style counselling: attempts to characterize different leadership behaviour patterns to identify effective leadership style. Context fitting: contingency theory which argue that the effectiveness of particular leadership behaviour is dependent on the organizational and cultural setting. New leadership: perspective approaches which identify 'new leaders', 'super-leaders', and 'transformational leaders' as visionaries. In this section each of these theories will be discussed in some detail.

2.3.2.1. Trait-spotting theory

This theory is also known as the 'great man' or 'implicit' theory of leadership and is rooted in psychological assessments of personality. It assumes that certain people are born with a set of key personality characteristics which make them 'natural' leaders. Supporters quote examples of great men like Napoleon, Gandhi and Churchill. This theory sees leadership as a natural attribute of the individual. Exponents emphasize the value of assessing people for the necessary traits and using the results in recruitment and selection processes (rather than developing effective leaders). A myriad of personality tests (of which the Myers- Briggs Type Indicator remains the most significant) exist to support assessment. The search for associations between the personal attributes of leaders and their effectiveness has been a major objective of leadership research. Studies have looked for correlations (rather than attributes that all effective leaders possess). There is some agreement about the traits which correlate with effectiveness in leaders. The meta-analysis by Barrick and Mount (see Huzynski and Buchanan, 2007) lists the following eight:-

1. conscientiousness – reliable, hard working, dependable, achievement oriented,
1. concerned with quality and standards
2. extroversion – lively, socially confident, affinitive
3. openness to experience – willing to accept fresh evidence and see

4. beyond the immediate and obvious
5. agreeableness – not antagonistic, empathetic, able to connect with
6. others emotionally and to perceive, respond to and meet the emotional
7. needs of sub-ordinates
8. 5. low on neuroticism – stable, copes with pressure, good 'reality testing'

Hogan (2002) who studied many senior managers and chief executives particularly emphasized the agreeableness trait as crucial for building the network of allegiances and alliances required to be successful in middle/senior management. Hogan (2002) argues that cognitive power (the maximum scale and complexity of the world an individual is able to cope with) is central to differences in leadership ability because it determines the time horizons that leaders can comprehend and work with. Many other researchers have added to the list, including Stogdill (one of the founding fathers of leadership research) and Kirkpatrick and Locke (see Huzynski and Buchanan, 2007). The central traits appearing in most lists are:

- intelligence
- self confidence
- sociability
- determination
- integrity

Interestingly, Kahai et al, (2000) list masculinity and dominance as important traits of effective leaders. Trait theory is recognized as being inadequate in providing a full explanation of why some people are more successful as leaders. Concerns revolve around:

1. there being little consistency between the lists of required traits.
2. the traits considered essential having no generally accepted meaning and being likely to represent a multitude of concepts and qualities.
3. having the required combination of qualities does not necessarily determine success.

4. the assumption that personality is stable and that tests discover (rather than construct) traits.
5. the implication that leaders need to be selected rather than trained.

Concepts of leadership have therefore largely moved away from the mysterious 'something' that some leaders have which inspires subordinates to achieve beyond their capabilities and can inspire unquestioning compliance.

2.3.2.2. Style-counselling theory

The style theory about leadership asserts that successful leadership is not dependent on the possession of a single universal pattern of inborn traits and abilities, but on behavior. This theory focuses not on what sort of person effective leaders are, but on what they actually do. Fairbairn (2005) explained the shift in emphasis as being 'from thinking about leadership in terms of traits someone 'has' to conceptualizing leadership as a form of activity.'

In studying the relationship between the behavior of leaders and their effectiveness, researchers have identified as many as 12 behaviors. Huzynski and Buchanan, (2007) crystallized these down and proposed that leadership is essentially comprised of 2 independent kinds of behaviors:-

Task behaviors; (also known as 'initiation of structure' or 'concern for results') – e.g. maintaining standards, meeting deadlines and defining objectives, roles and methods of work in detail in order to facilitate goal accomplishment.

Relationship behaviors; (also known as 'consideration' or 'concern for people') – e.g. exhibiting concern for the welfare of group members, encouraging mutual trust, appreciating good work, being easy to approach, responding to suggestions, promoting two-way communication and obtaining approval for actions to help subordinates to feel comfortable with themselves, others and the situation.

Table 2.2 Likert's leadership systems

<p>Exploitative autocratic The leader has no confidence and trust in subordinates Imposes decisions, never delegates Motivates by threat Has little communication and teamwork</p>	<p>Benevolent authoritative The leader has condescending trust in subordinates Impose decisions, never delegates Motivates by rewards Sometimes involves subordinates in solving problems</p>
<p>Participative The leader has incomplete confidence in subordinates Listens to subordinates but controls decision-making Motivates by reward and some involvement Uses ideas and opinions of subordinates constructively</p>	<p>Democratic The leader has complete confidence in subordinates Allows subordinates to make decisions for themselves Motivates by reward for achieving goals set by participation Shares ideas and opinions</p>

The influential work of a Michigan researcher, Rensis Likert (1961) reinforced the benefits of considerate, performance oriented leadership. Likert and his team identified four systems of leadership (see Table 2.2), finding that effective supervisors adopted either system 3 or system 4, which he called an 'alternative organizational life style.

Finally, the most widely known model arising from this theory first appeared in the 1960s but has been revised several times since by its originators Blake and McCaense (see Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007). This leadership grid does not provide a neatly organized set of prescriptions for effective leadership (like trait theory) but offers a framework for assessing leadership behavior and describing its major components. Whilst style theory provides ideas about the main dimensions of leadership behavior, it implies that one style of leadership can consistently produce a high level of effectiveness. However, it is clear that good leaders in one situation may not be good leaders in another.

2.3.2.3. Context-fitting theory

Many researchers have queried the notion that variations in leaders' effectiveness are due solely to individual differences (either in traits or behaviors). An alternative theory of leadership, originally propounded by Fred Fiedler (1967) states that key features of a situation interact with the leader's style to determine the level of effectiveness. Contingent theory suggests that a leader's style is relatively fixed (reflecting deep-seated, motivational and temperamental factors), but that some styles are more effective in some situations than others. This is because some situations satisfy the leader's deep-seated needs (e.g. for recognition by others, success in achieving tasks) better than others do. Fiedler distinguished the following sorts of variations which determine how 'favorable' a situation is, and which might account for different levels of leadership effectiveness:-

task structure – the complexity of the job in terms of goal clarity, the degree to which correct solutions are obvious and the number of possible routes/solutions

position power – the extent to which the organization legitimizes the leader's authority and confers formal/informal power

leader-group relations – this is the most important of the factors - the extent to which the leader has the acceptance, confidence, support and loyalty of subordinates.

Other researchers (Gardener and Stough, 2002; Gerstner and Day, 1997) also found that staff's professional orientation, ability and experience, and the cohesiveness of the work group were contextual variables which moderated a leader's effectiveness. This theory would suggest that to maximize effectiveness, either:

leaders need to change the situation to best suit their style (e.g. by developing the abilities of subordinates), or

leaders should be specifically selected for a particular situation (i.e. "horses for courses") – for example, in situations of particularly low or high 'favorability' a group might best be served by directive leadership, which is most likely to come from a leader with a bias towards task-oriented behavior).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) combined these factors into a 'leadership continuum' of styles appropriate to certain situations. This continuum is still widely

reproduced today, and ranges from an 'autocratic' style (high use of authority) at one end to a 'democratic' style (high freedom for staff) at the other end.

The idea that the effectiveness of a particular leadership style is contingent on the situation is still a view held today by most psychologists and leadership trainers because many studies appear to provide evidence for this link. However, the empirical rigor of this theory is increasingly being doubted. The notion of someone's leadership style being 'natural' or 'fixed' has also been questioned, as has the tendency of this model to relegate or marginalize the value of people-oriented behaviors (a bias for which is only demanded when things are going neither well nor badly).

2.3.2.4. Situational theory

The logical extension of contingent theory is a view that leaders can shift their style relatively easily to fit the situation. That is, leaders have choice and control over what leadership behaviors they display in certain situations.

This theory is most closely associated with Hersey and Blanchard (1998) who drew heavily on the work of Stogdill and Fiedler a generation earlier. Hersey and Blanchard felt that the key situational factors which influenced leadership style were the competence of followers and the motivation of followers. By combining these two variables, they distinguished four leadership situations reflecting the 'readiness' of followers to perform a specific task:-

R1 followers unable and unwilling/insecure

R2 followers unable and willing/confident

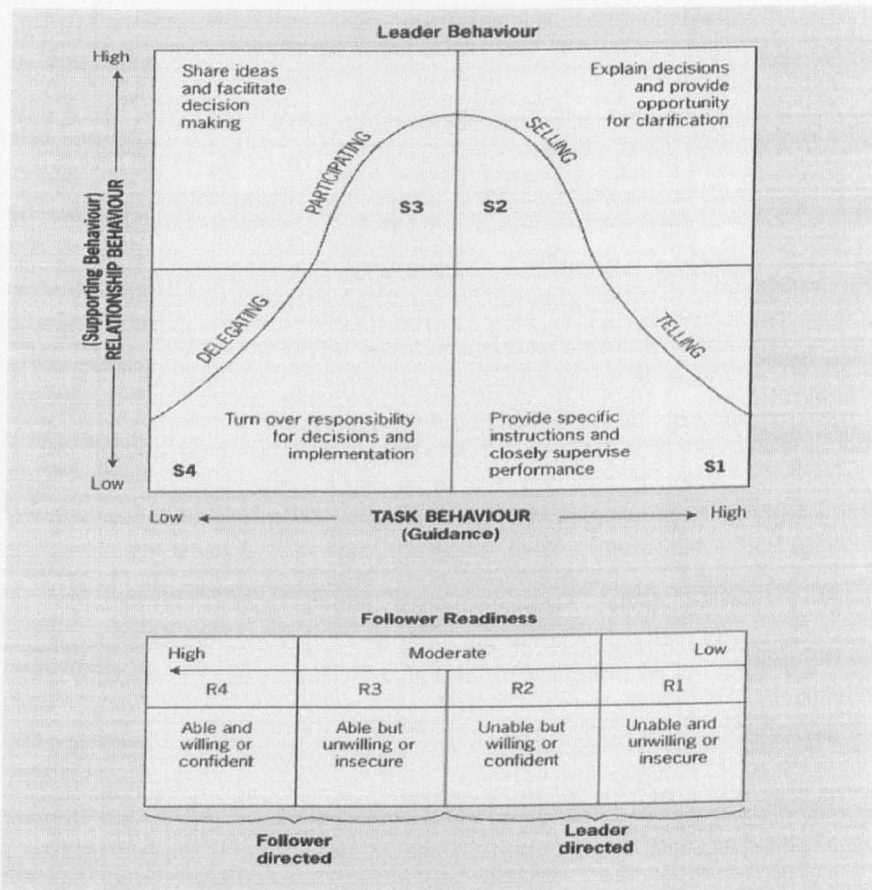
R3 followers able and unwilling/insecure

R4 followers able and willing/confident

Whilst leaders are believed to have a dominant style, the most successful are those who are flexible and able to adapt their leadership style to meet the demands of the environment. For example, as subordinates 'mature', the leader needs to vary their style in pace with this change. Figure 2.3 illustrates the situational leadership model. Hersey and Blanchard's model has proved robust and is seen by some as the 'state

of the art'. It forms the basis of a significant proportion of leadership training which suggests that leaders should first diagnose the readiness level of their followers for a particular task and then adjust their leadership style to suit.

Figure 2.3 Situational leadership model



Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1998)

Goleman (2000) also distinguishes different styles that effective leaders adopt, but defines these not in terms of behaviors, but in terms of their emotional impact on people. He states that effective leaders scan people and groups, reading cues to determine the right style to adopt:-

- visionary** moves people towards shared dreams
- coaching** connects what a person wants with the organization's goals
- affinitive** creates harmony by connecting people to each other
- democratic** values people's input and gets commitment through

participation**pace-setting** meets challenging and exciting goals**commanding** soothes fears by giving clear direction in an emergency

Situational theory assumes that leaders are rational, well-intentioned, flexible and willing and able to alter their leadership style to suit changing circumstances. This may not be the case even for effective leaders.

2.3.2.5 New leadership theories

John Adair (see Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) was the originator of the view of leadership as a set of functions that a person fulfills for their followers. This theory analyzed leadership from the perspective of the needs of followers rather than from the perspective of the way the leader operated. Adair perceived 'action centered leadership' as a process of meeting 3 inter-related needs:

1. task (the needs relating to achieving the goal)
2. individual (the needs of each follower)
3. team (the needs relating to building and maintaining the group)

An effective leader must fulfill a range of functions in order to meet all 3 of these needs. Adair listed the functions of leadership as: defining task, planning, briefing, controlling, evaluating, motivating, organizing and setting example.

Each of these functions are required to achieve the task, maintain the team and meet the needs of individual team members.. According to this functional theory, leadership can be a shared team role - leadership can be evoked from the group itself. The formal leader then becomes a 'safety net', picking up the functions the group members fail to provide themselves.

Adair believes that all of these leadership functions could be taught. Much leadership training today is derived from the theory that there is a clear specification of behavioral outcomes involved in leadership. A number of typologies specify the skills needed. A useful 'mid range' typology (not too specific or too broad) was

developed by Yukl et al (1993). It covers skills involved in negotiating a social order as well as face-to-face skills:

- building relationships networking
- supporting
- managing conflict and team building
- influencing people motivating
- recognizing and rewarding
- making decisions planning and organization
- problem solving
- consulting and delegating
- giving/seeking information monitoring operations/the environment
- informing
- clarifying roles/objectives allocating job responsibilities

Other studies (Huzynski and Buchanan, 2007) set out 4 leadership functions that are important for steering any transformational change in public services:

Navigate: set direction, develop a manageable program, prioritize, co-ordinate and set targets

Inspire: develop a shared vision, role model values and behaviors, develop individuals through coaching, counseling and sponsoring

Mobilize: sell the vision, listen and respond, proactively manage stakeholders

Enable: create space and find resources, allocate adequate skills, invest in infrastructure, make speedy decisions and delegate authority.

The key challenges for leaders in achieving transformational change are given as:

- building support for change – so most stakeholders and staff accept the need for change and support the leadership’s direction of travel
- involving stakeholders and staff in determining how the change should happen – in order to build real commitment to it.

2.4. Distinguishing leadership from management

The traditional view of a leader is heavily influenced by military models and sees the leader as a figurehead with vision and charisma. Leaders are portrayed not as team players, but as 'generals' inspiring the organization's 'troops'. However, these traditional notions of who is seen as a leader are increasingly being challenged:

'Our prevailing leadership myths are still captured by the image of the captain of the cavalry leading the charge to rescue the settlers from the attacking Indians. So long as such myths prevail, they reinforce a focus on short-term events and charismatic heroes, rather than on systematic forces and collective learning.' Senge (1990, p. 87)

The literature is littered with long debates about the relationship between leadership and management. In line with the view of leaders as relatively rare, charismatic individuals, leadership has in the past been portrayed as entirely separate from management. However, increasingly leadership and management are seen as separate, though inextricably linked. Brown (2000) quotes Bennis and Nanus who suggest that the distinction between leaders and managers is the degree of inquisitiveness. A manager may never question whether procedures are meeting desired objectives or whether there are better ways of meeting the same objective. Leaders, on the other hand, always do this and constantly ask the four basic questions:

- why are we doing this?
- why does it have to be done this way?
- does it work?
- is there a better way of doing this?

Brown (2000) says that Peter Drucker recommends asking a 5th question: should we be doing this at all? Leadership is seen as an important attribute of all managers

faced with managing in a constantly changing social, economic and technological environment. Conversely, management skill is seen as crucial for leaders to achieve real results. John Kotter (1990) says that 'leadership complements management: it doesn't replace it.' and he distinguished leadership and management (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Leadership vs. Management

	Leadership	Management
Creating agendas	Establishes direction Develops a vision of the future	Plans / budgets Establishes detailed steps Timetables
Creating agendas	Develops change strategies	Allocates resources
Building Networks	Aligns people Inculcates vision in people	Establishes structures Staffs the structures Develops delegating and monitoring policies/procedures
Execution	Inspires Energizes others to overcome barriers	Controls Organizes to solve problems
Outcomes	Potentially revolutionary change	Consistent key results

Source: Adapted from Kotter (1990)

This view of leadership as a subset of management is important as it means junior managers and supervisors need to be seen as having an important role to play as leaders of their teams. The increasing emphasis in the 1990's has been on leaders as people at all levels in an organization who are managing in a consensus-seeking manner. Bass (1985) is representative of this new thinking when he said that leadership affects managers at all levels, not just those at higher echelons 'Managers who are not leaders can only be failures.' Moreover, Blunt (1992) considered

leadership as a part of management, and it was defined as synonymous with good management. Boehnke et al (2003) argued that there is a difference between the concept of leadership and that of management. They concluded that leadership and management are two correlated concepts, but they do not have the same meaning. The two concepts can be distinguished in several ways with regard to the relationship with subordinates. The leader's relationship with his or her subordinates is one of the oldest human relationships characterized by its primitiveness and efficiency. In this relationship, psychological qualities are mainly apparent as the leader stimulates sympathy and emotions, and motivates subordinates in the pertinent direction to be able to act accordingly.

Practices of psychological qualities indicate a certain type of talent and capability to impress subordinates and attract them. Therefore, leadership and management differ on the basis of the fields of concentration. Leadership focuses on the human relations whereas management focuses on the technical aspects of organizing (Boehnke et al, 2003). The manager affects the organizational environment so as to enable employees to perform their duties more efficiently in order to achieve the organization's set goals. A manager performs a number of tasks such as planning, organizing, communicating, budgeting and controlling, while a leader performs only some of these duties, asserting the morale of the subordinates and stimulating their motivation to coordinate efforts towards a specific direction for the overall achievement of organizational objectives.

It is argued that (Analoui and Karami, 2003) leadership differs from authority, which is considered a legal right in managing and giving orders. An authorized individual usually derives his/her authority, the right to manage and give orders, from the job or position that he or she occupies in the organization. The concept of leadership also differs from the concept of power, which can be examined from several perspectives. In this respect, Boehnke et al (2003) stated that those in power might possess five types of interpersonal power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert. However, the concept of power differs from the concept of leadership as the former flows only in one direction, whereas the latter flows in dual connected directions, where continuous communications directed from up to down and vice-versa are encouraged. The power concept is also connected to imposing

penalties and punishments on subordinates when they fail to meet organizational objectives, under perform and/or do not follow organizational policies and procedures, while leadership is making sure that the subordinates understand their rights and duties.

It can be concluded from the above that leadership is a behavioural process which takes place within a group context and is aimed at achieving organizational objectives. Managers may or may not be leaders and leaders may or may not be managers but in most cases managers are supposed to be leaders who influence others, by using the power they have from their positions of authority, to perform specific tasks in order to achieve organizational objectives but they are generally held responsible for the outcomes of their subordinates. Leadership has a number of characteristics and approaches, as explained next.

2.5. Management in the public sector

This aspect of the literature review is devoted to understanding the concept of management in the public sector. The meaning, origin and context as well as the factors that have influenced its evolution, as a global strategy of development management in both developed and developing countries alike are examined. This section concludes with a constructive exploration of relevant issues that should engage the attention of transitional and developing countries, in the context of how the new public management reforms would transform their respective public service in the 21st century.

2.5.1. What is the new public management?

Over the past two decades, many countries of the world have implemented a range of reforms collectively referred to as the new public management, constituting a new model of state management (Farnham et al, 2005). Within the academic and professional literature, definitional matters are a critical point of entry into the contested concepts (Farnham et al, 2005). Consequently, it is important to examine how the various scholars in the literature have also described new public

management. It has been defined it abstractly 'as a field of professional and policy discussion conducted internationally about subjects concerning public management, including public management policy, executive leadership, design of programmatic organizations, and government operations' (Klages, and Loeffler, 1996). They went further to argue that public management policy seeks to guide, motivate and control the core public sector as a whole, and its instruments include institutional rules and organizational routines in the areas of expenditure planning and financial management, civil service and labor relations, procurement, organization and methods, and audit evaluation. On the other hand, the design of the organization deals with public service delivery that refers to the performance of governmental functions. The concept of delivery includes the performance of administrative functions, including operations, management and oversight (Klages, and Loeffler, 1996).

Lane (2000) conceptualizes public management as a single, coherent 'theory' or 'model' for discussing the public sector that differs from the forerunners which he styled 'traditional public administration', 'the management approach', and 'the policy framework' and calls them collectively 'traditional public governance'. Consequently, he proposes a fourth model: 'the new public management', that represents 'modern public governance', and asserts that this new approach is essentially about contracting – especially short term contracting under private law. However, Lane's argument that new public management as a coherent theory is not shared by many writers who in a recent review of Lane's book submitted that 'public management covers a range of new ways of thinking about getting public things done, drawing from commerce, management, new institutional economics, accounting, and modern democratic philosophy'. Incidentally, Lane (2000) tends to agree with this observation, when in the very introductory part of his book, he recognized that different theories from all the social sciences can help to discuss, describe and explain the various features of the public sector.

The concepts of 'Public Sector Reform' (PSR) and 'Public Management Reform' (PMR) are used interchangeably and in an encompassing sense to cover the range of structural changes governments around the world have recently implemented to improve the administration of their public sector (Ayeni, 2002, p. 2). Some writers

claim that public management tends to deal with broad general managerial change processes and strategies in the public sector. However, it represents the introduction of private sector management mechanisms and practices. Hence, public sector organizations are generally expected to emulate their private sector counterparts in managing resources, including people, in an efficient, goal oriented and flexible way.

Meyer and Hammerschmid (2006) support the argument that public management conjures different meanings, but ultimately convey a number of common elements of which they identify seven:

- Deliberate planned change;
- Innovation and improvement;
- Need to cope with uncertainties and rapid change;
- Heavy technical content but also inherent political process;
- Target specific institutional issues or system-wide change;
- Means to an end, not the end in itself; and
- Involving a combination of strategies and approaches.

The public management paradigm have been conceptualized (Meyer and Hammerschmid, 2006; Ayeni, 2002), as basically having five components, including:

1. Providing high-quality services that citizens value;
2. Increasing managerial autonomy, particularly by reducing central agency controls;
3. Demanding, measuring and rewarding both organizational and individual performance;
4. Providing the human and technological resources that managers need to meet their performance targets; and
5. Maintaining receptiveness to competition and open-mindedness about which public purposes should be performed by public servants as opposed to the private sector.

Contributing to resolve the definitional debate, Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) argue that public management is a new development paradigm through which governments are modernised and the public sector re-engineered. Simply, this is a new management concept that tends to challenge public managers and politicians to act as entrepreneurs for new, leaner, and increasingly privatized governments that place value on the use of public money. Additionally, the public management concept is based on the proposition that a five distinct key activity-management can be applied to the public sector, including:

- The adoption of management practices in the public sector;
- An emphasis on efficiency;
- A movement away from inputs controls, rules, and procedures toward output measurement and performance targets;
- A preference for private ownership, contestable provision, and contracting out of public services; and
- The devolution of management control with improved reporting and monitoring mechanisms.

2.5.2. Public sector management and leadership philosophy

The re-engineering and conceptualization of public management is based on a management philosophy that seeks to revamp the process of administration through which public organizations operate in order to increase efficiency, effectiveness and competitive ability. This demands structural changes in public organizations, their culture and management systems, including being client-oriented, mission driven, quality-minded, and the exercise of participatory principles in the use of public resources to heighten efficiency and effectiveness, and above all there is the quest for personal growth and job satisfaction by public sector employees (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004).

Other writers like Vandenabeelen et al (2006) have argued that public management has become a convenient shorthand terminology for a set of broadly similar

administrative doctrines that dominated the public administration reform agenda in most of the Overseas Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, and basically captures the 'structural, organizational and managerial' changes in their public services. According to Vandenabeelen et al (2006) it has been variously defined 'as a vision, an ideology or a bundle of particular management approaches and techniques borrowed from the private sector. Consequently, it has shifted emphasis from 'traditional public administration' – with its principles of bureaucratic hierarchy, planning, centralization, control and self-sufficiency to 'public management' or 'market based' public service management.

Politt and Bouckaert (2004) concluded that public management reform consists of deliberate changes to the structures and processes of public sector organizations with the objective of getting them to run better.

Structured change may include merging or splitting public sector organizations (creating a smaller number of departments to sharpen focus and encourage specialization);

Process change may include the redesign of the systems by which applications for licenses or grants or passports are handled, the setting of quality standards for health care or educational services to citizens or the introduction of new budgeting procedures which encourage public servants to be more cost conscious and/or to monitor more closely the results their expenditure generates.

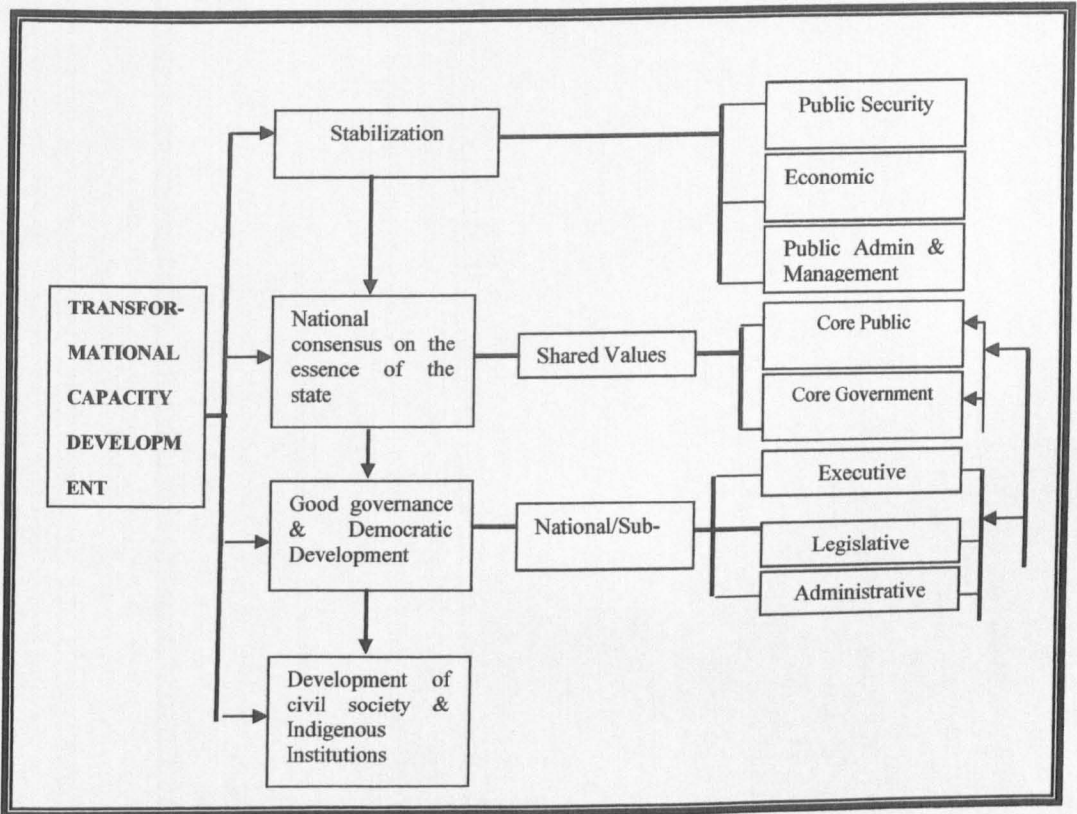
Management reform frequently also embraces changes to the systems by which public servants themselves are recruited, trained, appraised, promoted, disciplined and declared redundant...

Here public management consists, in effect, of a benign merger between generic (overwhelmingly commercial, private sector) management and the more traditional concerns of public administration. The concern for democratic values is fully retained but the enterprise is given a sharper cutting edge in terms of risk-taking, flexibility, performance measurement and goal achievements...

Reform is only one among a congeries of alternative and goal competitive terms (including, significantly several from the business world, such as ‘transformation’ and ‘reinvention’, as well as others with a longer public sector history, such as ‘modernization’ and ‘improvement’).

Like all these other words ‘reform’ is a ‘loaded’ term, in the sense that it strongly implies not just change but beneficial change – a deliberate move from a less desirable (past) state to a more desirable (future) state.... However, the outcomes of many management reforms have very much depended upon the nature of the administrative-political systems in which they have taken place.

Figure 2.4: Framework for re-thinking public sector management



Source: Kiggundu (1998, p. 165)

In the context of the above concerns, therefore, it has been argued that public sector management in the 21st Century must be strategic in focus, integrative, experimental, knowledge-based, transformational, service-and-results-oriented, and particularly citizen driven (Klages, and Loeffler, 1996; Kiggundu, 1998). Kiggundu

(1998) has submitted that there is the need to move from 'reform' to 'transformation' (see Figure 2.4). In his view, it is more appropriate to draw on the lessons and experiences of reforms to date, to re-think, re-conceptualize and re-strategize all aspects of public management. However, this must be done collaboratively, and through consultation and consensus building. Kiggundu (1998) built on other researchers call for 'de-projectizing public management reforms,' and Farnham et al, (2005) suggests a 'more strategic use of incentives and partnership with the private sector to combat corruption,' by proposing a framework for re-thinking civil service reform (CSR) in the 21st Century. His argument is that: 'Transformation, as opposed to transaction, is strategic, system-wide, long-term, interactive, processed-oriented, and aims at bringing about fundamental changes in values, principles, beliefs, attitudes, systems, structures, behaviours and performance of the entire public sector.

Kiggundu's (1998) framework has four interrelated transformational components including:

- Stabilization;
- Developing a national consensus on the essence of the state;
- Promoting good governance and democratic development; and
- Developing civil society and indigenous institutions.

Transformational capacity development according to this framework, relates to the overall capacity to create, communicate and implement a new vision for the public service and its relationship with other branches of government, the private sector, civil society and individual citizens. As shown in figure 2.4 'public security' must be taken seriously if 'economic and financial management' can be achieved, especially in countries emerging out of war or conflict, as well as those with a history of prolonged institutional decay and poor human rights records.

2.6 Chapter summary

Management can be viewed differently depending on the perspective and stand from which it is viewed. The propounders of the classical management placed unproportional emphasis on the importance of task and control, thus regarding the managers as those who control task and others who require primarily technical skills and expertise. The followers of the human relations placed emphasis on the importance of the people skills as a prerequisite for the effectiveness of the managers and leadership of the organisation.

The complexity of the environment and need to operate in an open system and globalised environment demands that the managers act strategically to lead their people and organisations in a competitive world. As shown, effectiveness is no longer determined by just by occupation of a high position in the organizational hierarchy, rather it is influenced by a variety of factors including the competencies that are required to perform diverse roles.

The debate on management vs leadership also sheds light on the difficulty in establishing where the managerial boundaries finish and the leadership begins. Surely the managers, especially those in senior and executive positions are leaders of their organisation too and as such they often play a dual role.

There are a multitude of theories and ideas about what makes effective leadership, each of which have their proponents and critics. There is, however, no irrefutable evidence that answers this question adequately.

Senior managers in the public sector are not immune from the managerial and leadership responsibilities of their counterparts in the private sector. They too are expected to lead the teams, and organization as a whole, towards strategically determined objectives. Within the developing world, in countries such as Oman, the responsibilities of the leadership of the organizations such as the Muscat Municipality, is arguably greater than their counter parts in a corporate structure simply because they are held accountable to the public who are the direct

beneficiaries of their performance. Thus their effectiveness directly, by and large, translates to the quality of the life of their fellow citizens.

The next chapter will focus on the exploratory framework of analysis, which will guide this study towards a better understanding of the parameters of the effectiveness of the senior managers/leaders that work in the Muscat Municipality and are responsible for large-scale development projects and programs.

Chapter 3: Synthesis of the Literature and Developing Conceptual Framework

3.1. Introduction

A fundamental quality of management or people which is appreciated by organizations is the ability to lead others (Robbins, 2005). The importance of this quality for business success is stressed both in academic and also in the more popular business literature (Den Hartog et al, 2007). Without the presence of this ability, an organization would be only a confusion of people and machines just as an orchestra without a conductor would be only musicians and instruments. Some researchers (Newstorm and Davis, 1993; Bass, 1990) describe leadership quality as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members. Other writers (Huczynski and Buchana, 2007; Robbins, 2001; Newstorm and Davis, 1993) define leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. Also, getting people to act without coercion can be identified as leadership as well (Popper and Zakkai, 1994).

In this study, the important issue of ‘managerial effectiveness’ will be examined more closely and the patterns of leadership styles in the Muscat Municipality will be explored from a different perspective: leadership as a parameter of managerial effectiveness.

In this chapter the application of leadership theory and the conceptual framework of the research will be discussed. Accordingly, a conceptual framework of senior managers’ perceptions of leadership effectiveness in Oman’s Muscat Municipality will be provided. Here, the literature, which was reviewed in chapter two, will be synthesized in order to develop the conceptual framework of the research. Then the research objectives and research questions will be revisited. Third, the literature on transformational leadership and managerial effectiveness will be synthesized and the model of ‘parameters of managerial/leadership effectiveness’ will be introduced. Finally, the research propositions will be discussed in some detail.

3.2. Research objectives and the research questions

As discussed in chapter one, the main objectives of this research are to explore the dimensions of the managerial and leadership effectiveness of senior managers in the context of the Muscat Municipality, Oman. The thesis aims to explore the extent to which senior managers' effectiveness can be attributed to the managerial and leadership styles adopted when discharging their daily duties, including implementation of the Municipality's large development projects. This research also aims to explore the relevance of identifying the major dimensions of the senior managers' effectiveness for the improved performance of the senior management (leadership) of the Muscat Municipality in particular and the leadership of the public sector as the whole. In respect of the above objectives, the following 'research questions' will be pursued in an exploratory fashion:

1. What are the main development projects and programs being planned, implemented and maintained within the Muscat Municipality?
2. What are the main influential parameters (dimensions) of the managerial and leadership associated with the effectiveness (or otherwise) of the leadership in pursuit of the implementation of the main public projects and programs?
3. What specific parameter(s) of the senior management effectiveness seem to be strongly associated with the success (or otherwise) of the leadership in discharging their duties?
4. What are the contextual influences including personal, organization, socio-economic, political, cultural and environmental in which the leadership/managerial effectiveness occurs?
5. What is the link between the dominant managerial philosophies, the most important parameters of the senior manager's effectiveness; their effectiveness and their transformational and transactional leadership styles?
6. What are the implications, in terms of the human resource management and development policies and procedures, in light of the above findings?
7. To what extent are the above findings deemed to be relevant for the smooth and effective operations of the public sector organizations (other ministries) as a whole?

3.3. Leadership effectiveness research

Leadership has been extensively studied over the past 50+ years. During this time the researchers have attacked the issues from many different angles. Lawler (2007, p.2) states: "The focus of the interest in leadership itself has shifted over time, from a concern with leaders as the 'Great Man' (sic.), the traits of leaders and leadership behaviors, to more current concern with dimensions of leadership." Following these studies, consequently many approaches and theories were developed.

One approach that has received a great deal of attention and has been agreed upon from many viewpoints is the theory that leadership is both transformational and transactional depending on the needs of the situation (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 2000; Bass, 1990). This construct has become a popular topic in leadership literature during the last decade and has formed the basis for the recent research in this field (Berson and Linton, 2005; Brain and Lewis, 2004; Pounder, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 1998).

It is argued that transformational leadership occurs when leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of values and motivations (Krishnan, 2004; Burns, 1978). According to Burns, "the result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents", thus resulting in a transforming effect on both leaders and followers. Accordingly, Bass (1985) defined a transformational leader as one who motivates followers to do more than they originally expected to do. Transformational leaders broaden and change the interests of their followers, and generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group. They stir their followers to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group. Transformational leadership consists of four factors - charisma or idealized influence, inspirational leadership or motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Though Bass (1990) considered charisma to be a factor of transformational leadership, authors have generally used the terms transformational leadership and charismatic leadership interchangeably.

Krishnan (2004) argued that superior performance is possible only by transforming followers' values, attitudes and motives from a lower to a higher plane of arousal and maturity. Accordingly, Boehnke et al, (2003) even found support for the claim that the main dimensions of leadership for extraordinary performance are universal. Studies have found significant and positive relationships between transformational leadership and the amount of effort followers are willing to exert, satisfaction with the leader, ratings of job performance, and the perceived effectiveness of a leader (Bass, 1985). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) believe that a leader's vision and vision implementation, through task cues, affects both the performance and attitudes of subordinates. Shamir et al, (1999) found that a leader's emphasis on a collective identity was related to the subordinate's level of identification with the leader. Cremer and Knippenberg (2002) showed that the interactive effect of leader charisma and procedural fairness on co-operation was mediated by their interactive effect on the sense of group belongingness. Transformational leadership could be potentially effective across a variety of situations, though certain contextual factors like structure of the organization could facilitate the emergence and impact of transformational leadership (Krishnan, 2004; Shamir and Howell, 1999).

3.4. Leadership styles

Leadership has unique characteristics that have to be defined in order to understand the different types of leadership style and behavior. For instance, Sims and Manz (1996) argued that true leadership comes from within, and in the end, achievement flows from the followers of a self-leadership style. In this respect, Owen (2000) developed a model based on the "seven essences" of leadership. According to the model, the following seven essences or principles denote leadership characteristics:

- Leadership is distinctly different from management and is not just something to be added to the job of a manager.
- Everyone is born with some gift of leadership. It is part of the human spirit and should be expressed to the world.
- Leadership is not the latest 'fad' but a timeless concept that has been investigated in an attempt to understand this human phenomenon.

- Leadership starts with the individual and requires a journey of becoming your true self. In other words, leadership begins with being.
- Leadership requires us to understand and to listen to what is emerging in the world, share these experiences with others by connecting and then acting accordingly. This is the transforming part of leadership.
- Leadership is expressed by everyone when people are connected and part of the whole rather than in the separate components of a machine organization.
- Leadership is about being followers as well as leaders. Position or privilege is not what makes a leader (Owen, 2000, pp. 221-237).

The above seven essences provide for a wider interpretation of the concept of leadership and confirm the definitions of leadership stated earlier but one has to look deeper into the concept in order to determine the characteristics of a leader or leadership. Such characteristics could be classified in terms of leadership approaches because a leadership approach demonstrates the significance of leadership behavior to a group or an organization. There are at least eight types of leadership approach; The trait approach, situational approach, emergent approach, imposed approach, charismatic approach, Machiavellianism approach, influence approach, and role position/group structure approach (Fairbairn, 2005; Analoui, 2002). Some of these approaches have been discussed in detail in chapter two.

While the leadership approaches demonstrate the significance of leadership behavior to the group or organization, the leadership styles are the pattern of behaviors that the leaders use with the subordinates. A study by Goleman (2000) analyzing the criteria of organizational behavior effectiveness suggested six types of leadership style, as follows:

- Coercive
- Authoritative
- Facilitative
- Democratic
- Pacesetting, and
- Coaching

These six styles of leadership have been supported by the findings of recent studies (Northouse, 2001). As has been discussed earlier, transformational and transactional leaderships are considered as style. Therefore the main focus of this chapter is to explore these leadership styles and their effectiveness.

3.4.1. Leadership styles and organizational effectiveness

Previous studies on leadership styles and management patterns differentiated between the kinds of leadership styles such as autocratic and democratic leadership, participative and directive leadership, and relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership (Bass, 1981). Leadership was then conceptualized as a process of superior-subordinate relationships. Kakabadse (1991) took a different approach and emphasized management styles as the key determinants of the quality of executive relationships. He found two categories of styles and philosophies of management: the thinker and the reactor. Overseas managers often adopted different leadership styles which were largely adapted from their home cultures. For instance, a kind of 'one-man' leadership style was popular in many joint ventures, i.e. making decisions alone and implementing the decisions mainly through the line-managers. Those differences in leadership styles reflected, to a large extent, different management philosophies and values, and would largely influence the patterns of human resource management in international companies (Wang and Satow, 1994a; Satow, 1992). In a recent study (Wang and Satow, 1994b) leadership styles are measured according to a scale developed on the basis of the concepts of a Japanese leadership survey instrument. The scale has 40 items in four functional leadership dimensions:

- expectancy
- sentiment
- informational
- trustworthiness

The expectancy dimension refers to the leaders' expectation that subordinates will fully utilize their competence through direct instructions and responsibility. The

sentiment function emphasizes subordinates feelings and standpoints, shows concern for the subordinates, cultivates healthy and warm interpersonal relationships, gives support to subordinates, and identifies with them. The informational focuses on providing subordinates with the necessary information and knowledge at work, and telling them the significance and status of their tasks. Finally, the trustworthiness function relates to a leaders' own ability or competence at the job. Generally speaking, a good leadership function is based on the trust from subordinates as well as the self-confidence of the leader. It is also dependent on the leaders' capability to cope with changed situations within and outside work groups, and to solve the problems that arise.

Wang and Satow, (1994b) in their research on the relationship between leadership styles and organizational effectiveness, conducted a correlation analysis on the relationship between the four functional dimensions of leadership style and organizational effectiveness in Japanese joint venture management. The results showed an interesting pattern of relationships. The analysis shows that of the leadership functions the expectancy, sentiment and informational styles have a close relationship with organizational effectiveness, whereas trustworthiness has a weak correlation with performance. With regard to organizational effectiveness, market share, competitiveness and job satisfaction have a close relationship with leadership style, while profitability, task accomplishment and turnover are closely related to only the informational function of leadership style. The investment increase prediction component of performance has little connection with the leadership function of joint ventures.

3.5. Transformational and transactional leadership

This section will discuss the transactional and transformational leadership styles. Is transformational leadership old wine in a new bottle or is it actually different from transactional leadership.

3.5.1. Transformational leaders

Transformational and transactional leadership terms can be defined as styles. A type of style that a leader establishes is determined by the way in which a leader uses their power (Newstrom and Davis, 1993). It is claimed that transformational leadership occurs when leaders use their power by:

- Stimulating others to see what they are doing from new perspectives;
- Articulating the mission or vision of the organization;
- Developing others to higher levels of ability; and
- Motivating others to put organizational interests before self-interest

(Bass and Avolio, 1994).

As such transformational leaders are leaders who provide individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, and who possess charisma (Robbins, 2001). Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) state that transformational leaders are charismatic individuals who inspire and motivate others to go 'beyond contract', to perform at unexpected levels. Hendel (cited in Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) identifies from previous studies the 5 transformational leadership components as:

- Charisma – the leader is admired;
- Idealized influence – followers emulate their leader;
- Inspirational – motivation – 'provides meaning and challenge' to the work;
- Intellectual stimulation – 'questions assumptions';
- Individual consideration – individually mentors staff based on their needs;

Furthermore, transformational leaders have three main roles:

- Recognizing the need for revitalization;
- Creating a new vision;
- Institutionalizing change.

According to Robbins (2005) these kinds of leaders inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization and are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on his or her followers. Recent research highlights transformational leadership as a highly effective style shown to predict performance in organizations (Berson and Linton, 2005; Kakabadse, 1998). However, a common criticism and misconception is that it is all smoke and mirrors – a feel-good type of leadership that leads to happy followers but does not affect group performance (Bass and Riggio, 2006). So far, it is evident that most writers agree on the central issue that transformational leaders are charismatic and have some kind of distinctive effect on their followers.

3.5.2. Transactional leaders

As stated earlier the type of style that a leader establishes is determined by the way in which a leader uses its power. Transactional leaders use their power by clarifying role and task requirements, which subsequently guides or motivates their followers in the direction of established goals (Robbins, 2001). They see their relationships with followers in terms of trade, swaps or bargains (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007). In other words, transactional models see this relationship as a series of (implicit) exchanges between leaders and followers (Den Hartog, et al, 2007). They clarify performance criteria, i.e. what is expected from subordinates and what they receive in return.

Hendel, (cited in Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) states that transactional leadership has three components:

- *Contingent reward* – rewards staff for desired work;
- *Active management by exception* – monitors work performance and corrects it as needed;
- *Passive management by exception* – waits until problems occur and then deals with the issue.

Transactional leaders have a preference for risk avoidance and are able to build confidence in subordinates to allow them to achieve goals (Lawler, 2007).

Finally, Sarros and Santora (2001) define transactional leadership as the traditional management function of leading subordinates. They state that these types of leaders excel at management functions and take pride in running things smoothly and efficiently. Overall it can be noticed that transactional leaders like to know how high they aim to take their followers and in their world everything is done for a reason. The criticism here could be that the environment they require should be stable and their vision for business is narrow. Moreover they are manipulative.

3.5.3. Transformational versus transactional leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership theories are part of the neo-charismatic theories, which emphasize symbolism, emotional appeal and extraordinary follower commitment (Robbins, 2001). Transformational leadership is usually contrasted with transactional leadership. Bass's (1985) observation is that a leader will exhibit both styles, generally with one being more predominant. Table 3.1 illustrates the characteristics of the two approaches, contrasting the four I's of the transformational leadership with the four descriptions of leadership.

So far it appears that, on the one hand, transactional leadership is responsive and its basic orientations deal with the present issues. A transactional leader always makes motivational transactions with his/her people. On the other hand transformational leadership is proactive. This kind of leader views the present as a springboard for achieving future aims. Furthermore he/she relates mainly to his/her people's developmental needs (Popper and Zakkai, 1994). Therefore, the question so far appears to be, which approach is the key to organizational success? Arguably there are several sides to this story.

The first view is concerned with transformational leadership being more effective than transactional leadership. Bass and Avolio (1994) explored the idea of what makes leadership effective by relating respondents 'ideal' views of leadership to ratings of transformational and transactional leadership. Their results showed that

the attributes of the respondents associated with their prototypical or 'ideal' leader were much more highly correlated with transformational than with transactional leadership scales.

Table 3.1 Characteristics of transactional and transformational leaders

Transactional Leader	Transformational Leader
1. Contingent Reward: Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments.	1. Charisma: Provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust.
2. Management by Exception (active): Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.	2. Inspiration: Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways.
3. Management by Exception (passive): Intervenes only if standards are not met.	3. Intellectual Stimulation: Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.
4. Laissez-Faire: Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.	4. Individualized Consideration: Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.

Source: Robbins, 2001, p. 330.

Robbins (2001) has also found that the overall evidence indicates that transformational leadership is more strongly correlated than transactional leadership with lower turnover rates, higher productivity, and higher employee satisfaction. Moreover, he states that a number of studies with U.S., Canadian and German military officers found, at every level, that transformational leaders were evaluated as being more effective than their transactional counterparts.

Pounder states that: “Transformational leadership is commonly contrasted with the more traditional transactional leadership that is viewed primarily as a cost benefit exchange process and an inferior form of leadership” (2003, p. 7). A transactional leader’s manipulation of followers’ valued outcomes (e.g. wages, promotion) in exchange for followers’ compliance with leadership wishes (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is considerably less exciting as a description of effective leadership than the dimensions associated with transformational leadership. Although transactional leaders also motivate their subordinates in order to perform as expected, the transformational leaders have the capacity to steer subordinates to levels of performance exceeding expectation (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

The second side of the story is concerned with augmentation. Sarros et al (2006) argued that transformational leadership has been found to augment the success of transactional leadership” and, “transactional leadership is an essential managerial behavior, but the more successful leaders are also transformational. Bass argues a one-way augmentation effect exists between transactional and transformational leadership, stating that “measures of transformational leadership add to measures of transactional leadership in predicting outcomes, but not vice versa” (Brain and Lewis, 2004, P. 137).

And finally, the last view suggests that any given leader may be both transformational and transactional (Gardner and Stough, 2002). This view suggests that transformational and transactional leadership shouldn’t be viewed as opposing approaches to getting things done. The transformational leadership is built on top of transactional leadership – it produces levels of follower effort and performance that go beyond what would occur with a transactional approach alone (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007; Robbins, 2005). The researchers own observation also concurs with this view that senior managers in charge of the development projects have been observed to exercise both styles of leadership in the effective implementation of their tasks. What however, seems to determine their choice of style, amongst other things, appeared to be the context and the nature of the task in hand.

Bass (1990) integrated transformational and transactional leadership and suggested that both styles may be linked to the achievement of desired goals and objectives.

The components of both styles should predict:

- Organizational outcomes
- Followers satisfaction
- Leader performance

For example, when working with multi-cultural work forces, neither transactional nor transformational leadership behavior alone is required, but rather a mix of certain attributes of both styles of leadership behaviors. Bass and Avolio (1994) indicate that even leader-member-exchange theory researchers have found that while leader-member-exchange begins with simple transactional relationships, to be effective the leader-member relationship must progress to a transformational level. Thus, the mix of transactional and transformational leadership styles would seem to be of some organizational importance. Great things could be achieved when leaders use specific leadership behaviors consistent with their deeply ingrained values (Sarro et al, 2006).

To conclude, organizations appreciate a certain skill, such as the ability to lead others. Academics and business people emphasize how important this quality is in their literature. This ability has been studied for the past fifty years and there is still a growing interest in the subject. So far the leadership literature is voluminous, confusing and contradictory. Within those fifty years, leadership has been explored from many different perspectives and angles. Questions and answers have been raised, and approaches and theories developed. One central theme that many writers agree on is that leadership can be both transformational and transactional, depending on the situation. Transformational leaders can be seen as highly effective leaders, comprising of charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. They also have a great vision for the future and motivate others to put organizational interests before their own interests. Transactional leaders can be seen as efficient managers that focus on the 'now' task. They achieve established goals by clarifying performance criteria and by forecasting follower's desires.

In terms of answering which style is more effective for organizations objectives, the literature is quite contradictory. A major part of leadership literature sees transformational leadership as more effective than its transactional friend. The other part views both styles as twins, both of whom are essential to the organizations achievements. Pulling all the points together, different contributions have been made to both transactional and transformational leadership literature. This literature is still growing as leadership is seen as the 'X' factor for business success in both academic and business literature. Therefore, since this topic is still at its peak in the world of literatures, and in organizations it is an ability which is much sought, the solution would be to make further contributions to this literature by looking at ways in which to develop both transformational and transactional leaders.

3.6. Leader-member exchange theory and transformational leadership

Gerstner and Day (1997) argued that transformational leadership seems conceptually similar to the process of developing a unique exchange relationship that is central to leader-member exchange. According to leader-member exchange theory, leaders and followers develop dyadic relationships and leaders treat individual followers differently, resulting in two groups of followers - an in-group and an out-group. The in-group consists of a small number of trusted followers with whom the leader usually establishes a special higher quality exchange relationship. The out-group includes the remaining followers with whom the relationship of the leader remains more formal. These varying social exchange relationships are relatively enduring and they develop owing to the leader's limited time and energy, and inability to give equal attention to all followers.

The quality of a leader-member exchange has been found to be positively related to the follower's satisfaction, organizational commitment, role clarity, performance ratings given by leaders and objective performance, and negatively related to role conflict and turnover intentions (Schriesheim et al, 1999; Gerstner and Day, 1997). Overall, the results of studies suggest that having a high-quality relationship with one's leader can affect the entire work experience in a positive manner, including performance and effective outcomes. The development of relationships in a leader-

follower dyad can also be looked at in terms of a life-cycle model with three possible stages (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991). The relationship begins with an initial testing phase and remains at the out-group level if it does not proceed to the next stage. If the relationship proceeds to the second stage, mutual trust, loyalty and respect are developed. Some relationships proceed to a third stage, wherein self-interest gives way to mutual commitment to the mission. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991) this final stage corresponds to transformational leadership.

Leader-member exchange is conceptually described as an exchange process, making it appear to be a transactional leadership model, but it is not usually measured this way. Members of the in-group are not told what is expected in return for the rewards they are given as part of a high-quality exchange. Since leaders do not make explicit demands on in-group members in the form of harder work for these rewards, the relationship might be better characterized as transformational. Palmer et al, (2001) found that transformational leadership was positively related to the ability to monitor and manage ones own emotions and those of others. To the extent that leader-member exchange measures tap mutual respect, trust and the overall quality of the working relationship, leader-member exchange theory is oriented toward transformational leadership. There is emerging support for the claim that leader-member exchange theory may be transformational, at least at certain times and under certain conditions (Gerstner and Day, 1997). Therefore, leader-member exchange is likely to be positively related to transformational leadership.

3.7. Links between transformational leadership and change management

It is argued (Eisenbach et al, 1999) that there is a need to integrate leadership and change management to gain a greater understanding of how to effectively enact change. The leadership and change literatures both show that certain transformational leadership qualities are uniquely appropriate for leading certain types of change. For example, research in the leadership area supports the idea that transformational leadership is better for non-routine situations (Bass, 1985). Furthermore, Pawar and Eastman (1997) propose that organizations will be more receptive to transformational leadership when adaptation (as opposed to efficiency) is the goal. In the change literature, the definition of event-based pacing (i.e.

centered on maintaining status quo and achieving specific goals (Gersick, 1994)) may be a better fit with transactional leadership that emphasizes clarification of goals, follower compliance through incentives and rewards, with a focus on task completion (Bass, 1995).

Transformational, charismatic and visionary leaders can successfully change the status quo in their organizations by displaying the appropriate behaviors at the appropriate stage in the transformation process (Eisenbach et al, 1999). When there is a realization that the old ways no longer work, such leaders may undertake the task of developing an appealing vision of the future. A good vision provides both a strategic and a motivational focus. It provides a clear statement of the purpose of the organization and is, at the same time, a source of inspiration and commitment. Eisenbach et al, (1999) argued that, consistent with Ford and Ford (1994), this view holds that leaders create change by providing a vision that is attractive to followers rather than creating dissatisfaction with the status quo. There is yet no consensus in the transformational leadership literature concerning whether a crisis or dissatisfaction with the status quo is necessary for transformational leadership to occur. Leaders may not need to create dissatisfaction with the present, but instead may provide a vision of a possible future that is attractive and engaging (Kouzes and Posner, 1988).

Even without dissatisfaction or crisis, both sets of literature suggest it is critical that the leader be a change champion who can assemble and motivate a group with enough power to lead the change effort (Kotter, 1995). The change literature also suggests that a leader's ability to effectively use inducements and interventions that get people to change is only effective if people have an active need that the change can satisfy (Eisenbach et al, 1999).

As described in the change literature, in order to pull or attract followers to different change possibilities, the leader must craft an appealing vision that takes into consideration the underlying needs and values of the key stakeholders (Eisenbach et al, 1999). Once this vision is developed, the leader must implement the change. This could be done through intellectual stimulation, whereby the leader sets challenging goals for the employees and motivates them to rethink old ways of doing business.

The leader frames the change by appealing to follower needs for achievement and growth that induces the follower to find the change attractive (Eisenbach et al, 1999). The process may also be facilitated if the leader shows individualized consideration where he or she provides support, coaching and guidance to the employees. Coaching and guiding behaviors are particularly important in large-scale transformation and in the development of self-managing work teams. A number of modern corporations are adopting the team approach to structuring the organization, which in itself is a major transformation of the culture.

Eisenbach et al, (1999) argued that a transformational leader would be a good facilitator of this process by promoting the creation of a culture that encourages team-decision making and behavioral control. Individualized consideration would also play a role in neutralizing the inevitable resistance that is bound to accompany the transformational process. The leader must work at getting large numbers of people in the organization involved in the transformation process. Otherwise, it is likely to be greeted with cynicism and strong resistance from key constituents, which is a sure-fire route to failure. This idea that the transformational leader creates a culture which embraces change is consistent with the change literature research by Brown and Eisenhardt (1997). Their description of the three key characteristics of successful managers in continuously changing organizations proposes that the successful leader creates a system that is neither too rigid nor too chaotic.

Eisenbach et al, (1999) conclude that throughout the transformation process, the leader should set high performance expectations and reward behaviors that are directed toward fulfillment of the vision. It is also important that the leader models the behaviors that are required to institutionalize the change and sets the standards for the rest of the organization to emulate. As Kotter (1995) argues, change sticks only when it becomes “the way we do things around here”, when it seeps into the bloodstream of the corporate body. This is similar to Sastry’s (1997) conclusion that enforcing a waiting period after every significant change in strategic orientation is necessary to maintain competence. The transformational leader can play a critical role in communicating how the changes have led to better performance and ensuring

that the next generation of top management personifies the new approach (Kotter, 1995).

The implication of the above for the present research is that the Muscat Municipality is responsible for bringing about changes in order to modernize the environment for the public. The development programs and projects are being implemented in a dynamic environment. The notion of change has been integrated into the ethos of the organization. The Municipality can therefore be characterized as a change organization whose senior management are the change agents. In this dynamic and ever fluctuating situation, they are expected to remain both competent and effective in bring about, managing and maintaining change and change situations.

3.8. Links between transformational leadership and team management

It is argued (Dionne et al, 2004) that largely, an adaptation of the successful Japanese model of management, pioneered by Edward Deming (Dess and Miller, 1993), in the 1980s produced new corporate cultures that valued flexibility, quality, customer service and motivated employees. The total quality management (TQM) movement emphasized by Deming focused on continuous process improvement achieved via quality management and quality circles, and empowered employees. Teams are an outgrowth of the quality management process, and go beyond the quality circles and empowerment trends that achieved popularity in the 1980s (Dess and Miller, 1993). When used effectively and provided with proper training (Stout et al, 1997), teams could lead to increased production, morale, creativity and innovation (Dionne et al, 2004).

Team performance has been addressed in the team literature as a generalized framework that includes inputs (i.e. resources), processes (i.e. collective effort) and outcomes (i.e. specific performance indicators) (Guzzo and Shea, 1992). This is because specific performance indicators and availability of certain resources may vary from team to team (Dionne et al, 2004).

Characterizing team performance as a process-oriented construct is not a new phenomena in the team performance literature (Glickman et al, 1987). Team process-based performance may include, among others, levels of collective effort expended or the quality of interpersonal relationships, which is similar to what (Glickman et al, 1987) refer to as a 'teamwork' focus on performance as opposed to a 'task work' focus. Dionne et al, (2004) argued that representing team performance as a teamwork process construct enables theoretical linkages related to interpersonally based processes that are likely to be present in all teams, such as communication, conflict management and cohesion. As such, it is reported that team performance is the product of the quality of the interpersonal relationships, or in other words, the result of a team-work process-based construct.

Although previous research has established a direct transformational leadership and team performance linkage (Balthazard et al, 2002; Kahai et al, 2000), sparse research exists that examines inside the leadership/team performance relationship 'black box'. Prior research has found evidence of teamwork processes such as cohesion and conflict management improving team performance and functioning (Evans and Dion, 1991; Sundstrum et al, 1990). Transformational leadership-team performance model expanded previous direct linkages and examined the role that various teamwork processes may play in impacting a leadership and team performance relationship (Dionne et al, 2004).

Dionne et al, (2004) discussed how transformational leadership can impact teamwork processes through a variety of intermediate outcomes. Although there is evidence of direct and mediated effects of general transformational leadership on group performance (Bass, 1990), Dionne et al, (2004) showed an understanding of team performance by examining alternative explanations regarding how specific transformational behaviors may impact underlying teamwork processes such as communication, conflict management and cohesion. Previous empirical studies demonstrate the effectiveness of transformational leadership training on outcomes such as subordinate commitment (Dionne et al, 2004; Barling et al, 1996), ratings of transformational leadership (Kelloway et al, 2000) and directly on followers' development performance (Dvir et al, 2002). However, these studies do not specifically focus on the implications of transformational leadership training

designed for leading teams effectively. Dionne et al, (2004) developed a model that gives specific guidance as to how particular transformational leader behaviors may affect specific teamwork processes and performance, and in turn, provide a more specific, relevant focus for team leader training. They reported that the timing of a transformational leadership training program may also be crucial. Several team training and team performance scholars highlighted the importance of teamwork processes being developed early in the team's life cycle. Therefore, transformational leadership training may be indicated early in a team's tenure, since this type of leader behavior may serve to promote improved teamwork process and further cement team goals and strategies.

3.9. Researching leadership/managerial effectiveness

Leaders may have all the capabilities and competencies that they need, and their followers have all the attributes necessary, but if the effectiveness of the leader is missing then, little progress is likely. Some researchers believe that the difference between individuals who are effective leaders and those who are ineffective relates not to their personal traits, style or skills (Analoui, 1995) but to a host of parameters including their professional needs, motivation, and constraints and choices they experience in dealing with work related issues. Drucker (1999) stated that heredity and early childhood experience were the most important factors in leadership. Maslow (1970) shared this view of leaders as inherently different: leaders - have goals embedded in their natures so they can put energy into projecting their goals in the form of visions for organizations which excite others to work towards turning these into reality; managers – have goals derived from external sources that do not come from their own psychological make-up.

One of the early studies in managerial and leadership effectiveness is McGregor's study. McGregor (1960) believed that leaders' styles derived not from concern for people and concern for results but from the psychological assumptions that managers have about their staff. Theory X managers tend to believe people have an inherent dislike of work and avoid it, where possible, prefer to be directed, want to avoid responsibility and need to be coerced and controlled to meet goals. This view leads to a directive style of leadership with goals established and disseminated

down. Theory Y managers, on the other hand, believe people seek responsibility, derive satisfaction from work and will work hard towards organizational goals if they understand them and are rewarded for their efforts. This view leads to a participative/co-operative style of leadership which encourages self managed teams and delegation.

Leadership may be seen, therefore, as being about establishing what followers want and satisfying that through some process of exchange in which both sides can win. Researchers looking at the relationship between leaders and teams have found that leaders may use the psychological phenomena of 'transference' and 'projection' first described by Freud. Researchers believe that some leaders may be more aware of these psychological processes and indeed actively encourage them as part of their leadership approach.

Human relations theory redefines leadership effectiveness in interpersonal terms rather than as a formal role with functions or procedures to be followed. Proponents emphasize the importance of awareness of self and of group dynamics in effective leaders. They state that the relationship-oriented behaviors are more important and effective than task oriented behaviors. Analoui and Karami (2003) see leadership as by and large an emotional rather than intellectual process. They state that what really makes organizations successful is how people feel about their work. Therefore, leadership is about creating positive feelings on the part of followers in order to deliver better results for service users. Feeling confident, trusting, safe, motivated and committed is seen as the means of generating innovation. It has been argued that the task of leaders to unleash the innate pleasure and human potential to be derived from personal development and personal recognition in the pursuit of team objectives (Analoui, 2000).

The major proponent of this view, however, is Daniel Goleman et al. (2000), who contends that, the best leaders do not see emotions as 'noise cluttering the rational operation of organizations' but instead understand their powerful role and potency in the workplace. Goleman et al (2002) state that the leader sets the emotional standard - their emotional reaction and mood plays a significant part in delivering both tangible results and intangibles (like morale, motivation and commitment) by

influencing the emotional response and mood of others. It is in this area of dealing with feelings and conflict that Analoui (2000) suggests social work trained staff may be expected have a head start! This is because, he believes, the skills of listening, dealing with feelings, concern for the individual, problem solving, advocacy and challenging the misuse of power are also those needed to perform competently in a leadership role. Zaccaro et al (2001) argues that views which focus on the quality of leaders only tell half the story. He sees leadership as being 'authorized' by followers: leadership is not the behavior of a person at all, but rather a property of a social system. Leadership is seen as something that arises from a process of invitation and acceptance.

It is suggested that (Zaccaro et al, 2001; Kakabadse, 2000; Analoui, 1999) leadership effectiveness also includes the ability to encourage reflexivity which they defined as 'the extent to which group members overtly reflect upon the group's objectives, strategies and processes, and adapt them to current or anticipated circumstances. Kouzes and Posner (2007) also found that spontaneity and task competence were deemed important by followers. This was further defined as the leader's ability to:

- initiate a wide range of activities
- develop wider opportunities for individuals to participate
- contribute to problem solving effectiveness
- co-ordinate and initiate contributions
- evaluate
- give information
- give/seek opinions
- motivate

The influence of followers on the effectiveness of their leader has received much recent attention. Some researchers have found that maintaining the correct 'personal front of competence' is important in enabling the leadership role to be maintained. Zaccaro et al, (2001) studied how the competence of leaders was perceived and found that subjects became less willing to comply with leaders perceived as being

relatively incompetent and rated them as less effective. They explained this by saying that displaying competence on group tasks/norms 'earns' the leader 'credits' which allow the leader to initiate activity that deviates from group norms. However, the work of Karami et al (2006) suggests that leadership is about negotiating these deviations from group norms (e.g. hours of work) with followers who see these deviations as trade-offs against close conformity to other norms which meet their needs (e.g. promoting group cohesion and task performance).

The importance of leaders creating effective followers, and reflecting problem-solving back to those followers, has received much attention recently. Karami et al (2006) for example sees effective leaders as encouraging and supporting workers to solve their own problems, so promoting the development of a problem-solving team. This will not work if there is an emphasis on status and control. Leaders in this situation are seen instead as facilitators of change rather than as the 'square jawed decision makers' of the past. This view of leadership means giving up any notion of 'always knowing best' and acknowledges that uncertainty, doubt and bewilderment are as important as energy and direction.

3.10. Analoui's Model of Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness

With the recent concern for reform and adoption of new leadership and management within the public sector, much attention has been given to the effectiveness of the senior managers, as leaders and their performance by theorists, management researchers, developers and practitioners in developed, developing countries (DCs) and traditional economies (TEs) (Margerison et al, 1987; Kakabadse, 1983; Kotter, 1982). This organizational phenomenon, illusive in nature, has been known and labeled as a concept which is difficult to quantify (Bennet and Brodie, 1979), and even more difficult to measure (Analoui, 1994), yet it is often talked about and has attracted much interest from lateral and multi-lateral agencies, and has also been acknowledged by serious researchers such as and Mintzberg (1973), Margerison et al (1987) and Analoui (1998),

Managerial effectiveness within DCs and TEs, however, has hitherto evolved mainly around, not the managers, but the organizational setting (Mullins, 2005),

social, cultural and political contexts (Analoui 1995; 1997), and has been debated within the boundaries of an open system theory (Willcocks, 1992). The recent surge of interest from academia points to the managers' own choices, and the contentious issue that managers' performance is inevitably contingent upon and affected by the casual and behavioral influences within their immediate and wider socio-economic and cultural setting (Mullins, 2005). This includes their perception and understanding of what constitutes effectiveness in a particular context (Analoui and Karami, 2003).

Senior managers and officials are believed to make a major contribution towards the well-being and development of their nations in a particular economy (Blunt, 1992). The questions and issues which have not been adequately addressed, especially within DCs' and TCs' contexts, concern the causes and sources of influences, including managers' own perception, which influence the degree of effectiveness of the individual senior managers and executives, and arguably their organizations and nations as a whole.

Analoui (1999) argues that despite the considerable attention given to managers and their effectiveness in the last few decades, a great deal of confusion, misunderstanding and concern still surrounds the subject. He continued that recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the public sector to the realization of the growth and development of the developing world. Analoui's (1999) research in managerial effectiveness is a major contribution to the study of management and leadership effectiveness in the public sector. He identified eight managerial/leadership parameters. These parameters are based on the findings of a research project carried out by Analoui (1999) in the Ministry of Environment and Science and Technology in Ghana and which led to the emergence of the model 'Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness'. The study aimed to identify the casual and behavioral influences which determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the public sector. The results point to the presence of factors which constitute 'parameters' of effectiveness at work.

The eight major clusters of influences, referred to here as 'parameters', of managerial effectiveness, namely: the senior managers' perception; skills and

knowledge; organizational criteria; motivation for effectiveness; constraints and difficulties; choices and opportunities; inter-organizational relationships, and finally dominant managerial philosophy are discussed briefly (Analoui, 1995).

Evidently there is a need further research and the adoption of a holistic approach to public sector reform as a means of achieving increased managerial effectiveness.. In this respect, the researcher intends to explore the relevance of eight parameters of managerial effectiveness in the Muscat Municipality, a public sector organization in Oman. These parameters will be discussed below.

3.10.1. Managerial perception (first parameter)

The senior managers and officials are asked to consider the question, “How would you describe an effective manager?” This query is aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager should possess. The responses provided ranged from ‘ability to supervise’, ‘being a good leader’, to being concerned with ‘deadlines’, ‘honest’, ‘experienced’ and ‘able to deliver goods on time’.

The description provided also varied according the type of organization the managers belonged to. Such perceptions also represent the characteristics of a manager whom they often refer to as ‘ideal’. In this respect the question is; do managers say something about themselves or do they describe an ideal manager? The analysis indicates that on the whole, managers have in mind an image of the effective manager they aspire to be or, more importantly, that they wish their superior to be. It is particularly interesting to discover that in situations where the managerial control is complete and which leaves little room for expression of discontent, the managers will use such occasions (of using questionnaires or interviews) to describe how they feel about their organizations and their immediate superiors. In terms of perceived status, it suggested that the more senior the managers, the easier they will find it to provide a description of who and what they think an effective manager should be. Analoui in exploring this phase (first parameter) of the study concludes that, ‘the impression given is that it is not enough

to be able to get the job done, simply because managerial positions also require the ability to work with people. The fact that most managers were critical of the way they were being managed or the way things are in their organization is indicative of their frustration and dismay with the present system within the public sector.

3.10.2. The need for managerial skills (second parameter)

Senior managers and executives are asked to suggest between three and five managerial skills in order of priority to them, which in their view are essential for ensuring increase of effectiveness. Analoui points out that, “the responses collected were weighted according to their corresponding order of priority and a total 32 levels of skills and competencies were identified” (Analoui, 1999, p. 369). Analoui’s work reveals the different descriptions of skills, these skills depending on the priority assigned to them by the senior participants, are then divided into five major skill categories for each organization. Further analysis shows that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities which were reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important ones are associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones. Other skills such as delegation, being a good planner, organizing ability, good human relations and leadership skills indicate that, as expected, senior managers are more in need of ‘interpersonal’ and ‘analytical skills’ rather than ‘informational’ and ‘decisional’ as has previously been described in the available literature.

Analoui (1999) discovered that, ‘three important issues emerged from his data.’ These are:

- There seems to be a similarity between the characteristics attributed to an effective manager and the skills which are required to remain effective. This consistency in the responses given has important implications for the way managers perceive themselves and others, and in particular their superiors.
- People-related and analytical skills seem to be the most important skills required by managers for their effectiveness at work. While most skills tend to equip the managers to become more successful in their interaction with

others, the self-related skills seem to be needed in order to compensate for the lack of attention and supervision expected by them.

- Again the responses were partly expressing the senior managers' expectation of others, in particular the leadership of the organization, and partly providing what they thought were the main ingredients for being effective. Data generated through interviews indicated that in most cases respondents felt that possession of these skills would 'hopefully' lead to more effectiveness at work but in reality they felt that the situation may never change. In many cases the list of skills provided seems to be projection rather than accurate self-assessment.

Analoui (1999) in his discussion of second parameter for effectiveness, came to the conclusion that, 'the responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in developed and developing countries. Senior managers become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because the awareness is gained that one cannot be effective unless one can work with or through people, namely colleagues, peers and subordinates. It is probably not surprising to report that senior managers require as much if not more 'management development' than 'management'.

3.10.3. Organizational criteria (third parameter)

This parameter refers to criteria for effectiveness by the organization. It is concerned with the way the organization determines whether or not senior managers are effective - this changes from one organization to another. In the case of senior managers in the Ministry of Environment in Ghana, senior managers were specifically asked to comment on what they felt to be the criteria for their effectiveness (Analoui, 2002). Since the Ministry is comprised of a number organizations, as expected, different lists of factors were reported. Evidently, each organization because of its unshared cultural specifications, which is derived from the nature of the work, its history, size and the like, tends to implicitly and explicitly

support a particular way of working and standard (Handy, 1985) with which the effectiveness of the members will be measured.

Analoui's (1999) analysis shows that, 'from a list of 38 criteria used to determine effectiveness, the ten most widely used criteria throughout the Ministry, ranged from 'meeting targets', the most important one, to 'increased productivity' the least in the list of the priorities. In organizations such as the EPA, (Environment Protection Agency), research institutes such as the CSIR (Council for Scientific and Industrial Research) and GAEC (Ghana Atomic Energy Commission), periodically projects were discussed and targets were set. Most senior and executive managers expressed the opinion that the most important indicator to them for their effectiveness was that their staff were achieving targets. However, it became clear that targets were often 'set' for the subordinates, with little degree of involvement in the setting of those targets on the part of the employees concerned (Analoui, 1999, p. 371).

As shown in the review of the literature, there is usually a tendency on the part of the senior managers and executives to identify with the core values of the organization (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Kakabadse, 1985; Handy, 1985).

3.10.4. Motivation (fourth parameter)

As suggested earlier, in order to understand effectiveness, attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, particularly the motives behind the actions undertaken by managers (Analoui, 2000). The analysis of the quantitative data revealed, not surprisingly, that the motivators were those factors which were not already present at work. According to Analoui 'all managers reported that their effectiveness is adversely affected by the low level of remuneration since they had to 'think about' how to compensate for the lack of it, and/or spend time outside of the organization, often on 'projects of some sort to feed their family' (Analoui, 1999, p. 374). This is in line with Herzberg et al's notion of hygiene factors and their influence on people's attitudes to work (1959). Both Analoui (1999) and Herzberg et al (1959) confirmed the importance and the role of intrinsic factors as an significant motivation for senior managers. This reveals that top management

show deep dissatisfaction with the 'worsening situation'. "How can we [senior managers] motivate our employees? We have no control over it at all" It is therefore understood that employees from time to time need to 'earn some money'; therefore, their absence from the organization is not complained about seriously (Analoui, 1999, p. 374). This however is not unique to Ghana but common across the public sector organizations across the developing countries.

On average, it will be reported that the monthly salary of a managers will only "take care of a third of their monthly expenses". Almost all managers will have to supplement their monthly remuneration with some sort of second earning, which in many cases will take them away from their workplace and even periodically their country (Analoui, 1999, p. 374).

The most interesting point, however, is one which goes beyond 'remuneration' or in this case the lack of it. Motivators, such as 'recognition from superiors', 'job satisfaction' and 'training and self-development' were reported as the main motivating factors towards senior managers' effectiveness. Thus, these and other factors such as 'promotion' and 'good teamwork' seemed to be symptomatic of the following issues.

- The reward system within the public sector acts as a de-motivator and adversely affects their effectiveness at work.
- Managers feel that they do not receive recognition for work well done.
- The managerial style adopted by the top management is responsible for this.
- Job satisfaction, especially among scientists, seems to be the most important motivator for remaining in their posts.
- Achievement of targets set also adds to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acts as a motivator in their work. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work found the challenge to be motivating and the main reason for their effectiveness at work.
- Provision of resources and teamwork are suggested to work as motivators.

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

3.10.5. The degree of 'demands' and 'constraints' (fifth parameter)

Analoui (1999,) states that, it is difficult if not impossible to deal with the issue of effectiveness at work without considering the 'constraints and demands' with which managers are faced. Realistically, managers are not free floating agents, allowed to do what they desire. In almost all organizations, there are inhibiting forces which slow down the progress and need to be managed, removed or negotiated. In line with an open system approach towards understanding managers, their works and effectiveness, the managers are asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work. In this respect, Analoui points out that, "analysis of the data provided a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse effect on the effectiveness of the managers, though managers in each organization naturally experienced different sets of difficulties" (Analoui, 1999, p. 376).

These difficulties are: inappropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/or inappropriate training, poor remuneration, lack of motivation, lack of teamwork. The constraints and demands, whether those identified and briefly introduced or those which will be never mentioned, such clusters of demands at an individual, organizational or wider social level, leave the managers with very little chance to determine their own level of effectiveness.

3.10.6. Presence of 'choices' and 'opportunities' for effectiveness (sixth parameter)

Stewart (1991; 1982) suggests that the choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. According to Analoui (1999, p. 380), 'a total of 35

factors related to the choices available have been identified, from which the ten most important ones are listed: (1) training (self), (2) on-the-job training, (3) part-time study, (4) necessary resources/equipment, (5) teamwork/co-operation, (6) better remuneration, (7) funding, (8) more appropriate staff, (9) visit other units/establishments, and (10) effective/regular communication.

The responses of the senior managers point to solutions and ways of dealing with their individual situation in order to become more effective. The opportunities will be in a sense related to demands and constraints. It appears that the presence of the constraints and demands force senior managers to think of a 'way out'. Unfortunately, in most cases and only in interviews, senior managers revealed that training, part-time study and full-time secondment, visits abroad including attending seminars, conferences and other scientific venues are seen as ultimately enabling the senior managers to move up or move away.

3.10.7. Nature of inter-organizational relationships (seventh parameter)

Implicit and explicit remarks are frequently made where the overall subject of managerial effectiveness is being discussed. In this respect, Analoui states that 'all respondents saw their effectiveness as being affected, if not determined, by the overall effectiveness of the organization' (Analoui, 1999, p. 382). Furthermore he adds 'it was evident that the respondents were aware that there is a two-way relationship between their effectiveness and the organization that was determined partly by their organization's relationship with other organizations and agencies, both nationally and internationally' (Analoui, 1999, p. 383).

3.10.8. Dominant managerial philosophy (eighth parameter)

It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organization does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed, and generally it influences the flow of information, and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organization. The leadership of the organization provides the standard for the patterns of behavior and therefore has

proven to be a decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the organization.

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

Ultimately, the degree to which the executives and senior managers adhere to traditional management, or to correct administration principles varies from one organization to another. In this respect, Analoui reports that, 'apart from a few top senior managers and executives who did feel that there is a need for change of attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training and the adoption of participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work' (Analoui, 1999, p. 386).

3.10.9. Contextual influences on managerial/leadership effectiveness

Analoui (1999, 2007) contends that senior managers/leadership effectiveness does not occur in a vacuum. It should be considered in context. According to him, while the effectiveness of the senior managers (leaders) is being influenced by the presence of the eight parameters, it is important to bear in mind that effectiveness as the whole, in some ways, to a greater or lesser extent, is being determined by the contextual factors. He goes on to suggest three main contexts in which effectiveness occurs. These are;

- Personal,
- Organizational (internal), and
- External (environmental) contexts

Personal Context: as shown the emerging literature proposes that effective leaders are differentiated from other leaders through the exercise of a relatively small range of skill or competence areas (Goffee and Jones, 2000; Kakabadse, 2000; Analoui, 1999). The way in which leadership skills and competencies are exercised is not prescribed, but is the function of the underlying personality of the leader (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005; Hogan, 2002). As Collingwood, (2001) and Dulewicz and Higgs (2005) argued, it is becoming evident that leadership is personal. This important issue relates very much to their perception of their own and others effectiveness.

The literature, as illustrated, supports the above propositions. The personality of the leader, his or her attributes, plays an important part in the exercise of leadership (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005; Collingwood, 2001). The eight mentioned parameters for effectiveness need to be considered in a way which is congruent with the underlying personality of the leader. From a 'sense making' paradigm, it can be argued that competences such as envisioning, engaging, enabling, enquiring and developing (Kakabadse, 2000), and categories of managerial skills such as task, people, and self and analytical ones (Analoui, 1993) reflect the reality of leadership, that a leader's personal and cognitive state do matter and indeed are determinants of the success the leadership. Indeed, the literature on leadership has consistently ignored cognitive elements for the last few decades. These findings may suggest that a leadership framework based on combining cognitive, behavioral, personality and learning factors may be a useful one within which to study leadership.

Organization Context: As stated earlier it is clear that there is a dynamic relationship between the leaders and the organizational context. Analoui proposes (1999, 2007) that in order to appreciate the effectiveness of senior managers', their efforts and styles ought to be considered in context of the organization in which they work. He goes on to contend that the organization and the nature of work production, public or private, do have an affect on the degree of the effectiveness of the leadership (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Analoui, 2002).

Within the developing world, organizations such as the Muscat Municipality are confronted with different needs, expectations and priorities. Such an organization is one of the front-runners of development and as such their leadership effectiveness is

a crucial consideration. Therefore, as suggested in the present research, it may be reasonable to include organizational factors such as strategy, culture, policies and practices, and its ability to learn as an organization (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005; Senge et al, 2000; Analoui, 1999) in the analysis of the leadership effectiveness. Thus, it is important to bear in mind that the relationship between leader and organization is potentially a dynamic one.

External Context: There is an abundance of support for the view that the overall external context in which both the actors and organization operate has an important influence on the effectiveness of the organization as a whole and the degree of the effectiveness of its senior management (Karami et al, 2006; Analoui, 2002; Kakabadse, 2000). The contemporary literature on leadership and strategic management points to the various methods senior managers and policy makers use to analyze the environment. It is argued that differences in culture, politics, education and even regional characteristics do impact on the effectiveness of the organizations (Analoui, and Karami, 2003). Studies of the managerial effectiveness in Ghana, Iran and Romania (Analoui, 1997), illustrate the need for inclusion of the external forces in the analysis of the organizational and senior management effectiveness. Analoui (2007) in his analysis of the effectiveness of the board of directors suggests that external factors such as geographical position, cultural, technology, politics, legislation and international stakeholders, to name a few, all influence the formulation and consequently the nature of the organizational policies.

The impact of globalization is no longer limited to the private sector in the developed world, third world countries and transitional economies too are affected. This simply means that the geographical separation of countries and individuals has become unimportant. Globalization means that ‘the fate of a Third World village, dependent on the export sales revenues from a single cash crop, is decided by price movement exchange in New York or Frankfurt’ (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007). Loans and grants from the World Bank have enabled the Muscat Municipality to implement several large-scale projects. It is argued that senior managers do scan the environment and are aware of the changes in all aspects of their environment (Analoui and Karami, 2003). What probably makes the difference between the degree of effectiveness of senior managers and leaders is not therefore solely their

perception but also their awareness of the opportunities present within the environment (Storey, 2004; Analoui, 2002).

3.11: Exploration of managerial/leadership effectiveness in Muscat Municipality, Oman.

As stated in chapter One, the main aim and objectives of the present study are to explore the dimensions of managerial and leadership effectiveness of senior managers in context of the Muscat Municipality, Oman. To achieve the ambitious objectives of this first time study in Oman, it is proposed that Analoui's model for analysis of managerial effectiveness will be adopted in order to explore and identify the relevance of the eight identified parameters for the senior managers and leadership of the Muscat Municipality. The intention is to better understand how these parameters influence senior managers, who are, as mentioned earlier, charged with the leadership of large development projects, and their degree of effectiveness at work.

As explained, the inclusion of the contextual factors by Analoui (1999, 2002, 2007) is found to be particularly potent and relevant for the present analysis. Oman is a developing country and the Municipality, a public sector organization, draws similarities with contemporary research carried out in this field. It is believed that, notwithstanding the importance of the other parameters of the nature and degree of the effectiveness of senior managers, the effectiveness of the leadership style adopted can be attributed to the style adopted by the senior managers and leadership of the organization. In the case of the present research, the researcher intends to extend Analoui's model to include the proposition that senior managers' effectiveness can be attributed to the transformational and/or transactional managerial and leadership styles adopted when discharging their daily duties, including implementation of the municipality's large development projects. It is believed that this first time exploration will further add to our existing knowledge of leadership behavior, cognitive abilities and the choices that they make when deploying their effectiveness in work organizations. Identifying the major effectiveness dimensions for the improved performance of the senior management

(leadership) of the Muscat Municipality will have relevance and implications for the improved performance of the leadership of the public sector in Oman as a whole.

3.12. Summary Conclusion

This chapter discusses the application of the leadership theories in the context of effectiveness in order to develop the conceptual framework for the present research. To achieve this, the literature reviewed has been synthesized. It has been argued that the present concern for leadership effectiveness is derived from some fifty years of research on various aspects of leadership, especially the leadership style adopted by senior managers. Whilst some prominent writers emphasized on the importance of the needs of the situation (context) for understanding the transformational or transactional leadership styles adopted, others focused on the importance of including the personal and cognitive attributes of the leaders in determining their style and performance at work.

Contemporary writers on leadership have concluded that leadership style could come from 'within' and that in the end achievements flow from followers of a self-leadership style. The notion of the 'seven essences' of leadership and the importance attached to their traits and personal attributes define and interpret the concept of leadership and those who possess leadership attributes.

The approaches adopted by leaders demonstrate the significance of including the leadership behaviors, and that leadership styles are patterns of behaviors that leaders use in their interactions with their subordinates. In identifying the criteria for organization effectiveness, leadership styles including coercive, authoritative, affinitive, democratic, pacesetting and coaching were discussed.

In describing transformational and transactional leaders, the writers on leadership show a great deal of interest in characteristics such as visioning, intellectual stimulation and the like. The debate on transactional as oppose to transformational leaders states that these types of leaders excel at management functions and take

pride in running things smoothly and show a great deal of interest in efficiency. However, their vision is narrow and they tend to resort to manipulation to achieve the objectives of the organization. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, tend to possess charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Although, having said that, it is also recognized, that depending on the circumstances, the leadership may adopt a combination of both styles in pursuit of their objectives.

In the debate on leader-member relationships and the nature of influence of its followers on the leader, there is emerging support for the claim that leader-member exchange theory may be transformational, at least at certain times and under certain conditions. Transformational leaders set high performance expectations and set reward behaviors that are directed towards fulfillment of the vision. Transformational leaders can explain how performance can be achieved in team formation and can be used as a basis for realization of the change.

A detailed review of the managerial/leadership effectiveness demonstrated the importance of adopting the appropriate leadership style, to amongst other things; bring about the desired performance on the part of the followers or employees. Effective leaders motivate, inspire and facilitate rather than act as the 'squared jaw decision makers' of the past.

In delineating the aims and objectives of the present research, it was concluded that exploration into managerial/leadership effectiveness requires paying attention to a myriad issues which influence the effectiveness of the senior managers in the Muscat Municipality - the very actors in charge of the large scale projects who are the focal point of the present research. After evaluating various approaches, it is concluded that Analoui's model of parameters of effectiveness forms a suitable starting point from which to explore the nature and extent of the leadership effectiveness in the Muscat Municipality. It was demonstrated that the comprehensive nature of this model allows for further exploration into assessing the extent to which senior managers and the leadership of the Muscat Municipality adopt transformational and/or transactional leadership styles. The experiences accumulated from research into managerial effectiveness of the public sector within

developing countries, makes Analoui's model suitable for application in this study. Indeed, consideration of the contextual (personal, organizational and external factors), as well as behavioral influences (the eight parameters) enable the researcher to explore and assess the leadership effectiveness of senior managers in charge of the large scale projects from a multi-faceted dimension.

The next chapter will focus on the context in which effective leadership occurs. Thus attention will be paid to Oman; its geographical attributes, history, cultural influences, the Municipality as a part of the Oman public sector, the case study and its role in managing development in Oman. This discussion will pave the way for exploring the methodological issues and construct pertinent to this research.

Chapter Four: Oman and the Role of the Muscat Municipality

4.1. Introduction

As explained in chapter one, the main aim of this research is to explore the factors and influences which have given rise to the effectiveness of the senior managers in the Municipality of Muscat. Writers on management support the view that in order to understand the parameters of leadership behavior (Analoui, 2002; Willcocks, 1992), it is essential to pay attention to the context in which such behaviors occur (Analoui, 2007; Karami and Analoui, 2003; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 2000). Thus, in order to gain a better understanding of the wider geographical, socio-economic and political environment of Oman as well as understanding the position and the role of the Muscat Municipality in the development of Oman as the whole, pertinent information, from the authors own observation and secondary sources (Lewis 2001) have been compiled and will be presented in following sections.

Following a short historical account attention will be paid to the Economic Development Plan. This will be followed with a discussion on the crucial role and responsibility of the Muscat Municipality in the modernization of Oman. The Municipality, its structure and responsibilities, particularly the large-scale projects, will be discussed in some detail. Also, the priorities, strategy, recent achievements, sources of income including the m-Rail and e-government will be discussed accordingly and relevant conclusions will be reached.

4.2. Historical background

The Sultanate of Oman is located on the southeast coast of the Arabian Peninsula. It has borders with United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia and Yemen. The history of Oman is replete with many exploits by locals and invaders. From 1508 to 1648, the Portuguese occupied the country. The Portuguese occupation lasted 140 years. Europeans also controlled the land as a strategic outpost to protect their sea routes.

The Portuguese were driven out by the Ottomans. However, a century later in 1741 they too were driven away by a Yemeni tribe. The lineage of the ruling Sultans can

be traced to this Yemeni tribe. As early as the 1800s, the Omanis became an economic power because of their knowledge as a seafaring nation. They controlled many coastal areas of Iran, Pakistan and Zanzibar. However, the British through their imperialistic plan and scheme brought about the collapse of Oman's empire by the end of the nineteenth century. Slowly but steadily Oman became a British protectorate. The British used their army to quell the rebellion of tribesmen who ran away to Yemen. In 1970, with the support of 'Britishers', the present ruler, Qaboos bin Said Al Said, took over the reign and established a modern state, which is now the envy of the entire Gulf region.

A vast desert plain covers most of the central Oman, with mountain ranges along the north (Jebel Akhdar) and southeast coast, where the country's main cities are located. The capital is Muscat. In the south, the area is known as Salalah. It has a warm climate with regular rains. However, the rest of the areas in Oman are hot and dry.

4.3. Economic development and the Development Plan

Oman's economy has gone through massive transformations. The first Five-Year Plan was between 1975 and 1980. Since then a lot of development projects have been carried out in the fields of oil exploration, infrastructure development, and modernization of the health care system, schools, universities, souks and hospitality industries. At the instruction of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said, the vision of 2020 was established. The Vision 2020 outlines the economic goal of the country for the next 20 years.

The oil exploration began in 1967. However, with the ascension of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos, the Petroleum Development of Oman (PDO) discovered new oil fields and significant production boosted the economy. The Omani renaissance depended on scientific planning as a methodology to accelerate development, harmonize its steps and maintain its sustainability. It adopted the directive planning for the public sector, in terms of Government units and public establishments, and indicative planning for positive effectiveness of the private sector path. The planning operation was formulated on long term plans explaining the main strategic

directives for upgrading and development of the country, and the long-term objectives. Further it included a medium term Five-Year successive, harmonious and integrated plan, which came within the framework of the long-term strategy.

The development council approved, in February 1975, the Omani development strategy. Within its framework, the first four five-year plans were prepared covering two decades (1975-1995). The long-term objectives for the strategy are:

- Working towards the development of new resources for the national income, to be able to replace the oil resources in the future.
- To increase investments directed towards income generating projects, especially in the areas of industry, mining, agriculture and fisheries.
- To emphasize the development of domestic human resources capable of assuming roles in the Omani economy.
- To allocate investments among different regions, so that its benefits are shared equally by all the regions and citizens of the country. This will lead to the elimination of the variables in the standards of living among the regions. Special priority should be given to the less developed regions at present.
- Support for and development of the present housing centers and their maintenance against the mass of migration of densely populated centers.
- *Completion of the infrastructure*
- Attention shall be given to water resources, as it is a vital element for the continuation of the economic activity, and the development and maintenance of the environment.
- Supporting domestic trading activity through removal of difficulties of transport, storage and different obstacles, which hinder the completion of the commercial markets.
- Completion of the constituents for establishing a free national economy based on private sector activity on the basis of free competition and through provision of loans to the vital projects in accordance with the available resources of the state.
- Promotion of efficiency of the state administrative apparatus.

The Royal Decree 1996 clearly states that the goal of the nation is to establish economic prosperity and a society based on equitable distribution of resources through sustained efforts on all fronts. The Royal Decree states that:

- Development of human resources and upgrading the skills of Omani nationals to keep abreast of the technological process required to manage the dynamics of this progress in a highly efficient way, and face the ever-changing domestic and global conditions.
- Creating the conditions for a stable macro-economic climate with the aim of developing a private sector capable of the optimal use of the human and natural resources of the Sultanate, using methods characterized by efficiency and conservation of environment.
- Encouraging the establishment of an effective and competitive private sector, and consolidation of the mechanism and institutions that will enhance joint government and private sector visions, strategies and policies.
- Providing appropriate conditions for the realization of economic diversification and work towards the optimum utilization of natural resources and the geographically distinct location of the Sultanate.
- By enhancing the standard of living of Omani citizens and working towards the reduction of inequality between regions and different income categories the government will also ensure that the citizens reap the fruits of the development process.
- Preserving the gains achieved in the past twenty-five years by safeguarding and developing the country by ensuring the completion of the necessary basic services.

The General Directions of the Sixth Five-Year Plan are:

- Building the financial reserves of the government
- Highest priority shall be awarded to training and qualification
- Development and upgrading of production sectors
- Special attention shall be given to culture and youth sectors

- Promotion and activation of the private sector role in the national economy
- Special attention shall be awarded to technology and scientific research

The Government of the Sultanate of Oman lays particular focus on new projects and all efforts are made to ensure that infrastructure projects are given priority. The Sixth Five-Year Plan was focused on the following:

- Projects in ministries have been considered as having urgent priority. It has been agreed to adopt such projects in the Fifth Five-Year Plan provided that their implementation shall start in the sixth Five-Year Plan.
- Projects that aim at maintenance of the governments existing assets
- The projects that contribute to the creation of new employment opportunities for Omanis through increasing the percentage of investments directed to such projects.
- The projects that contribute to furthering economic diversification policies.
- The Projects that meet the basic needs of the citizens in the health, education and water sectors as well as the projects related to the culture and youth sectors.
- New proposed projects that will achieve the objectives and policies stated in the Sectoral plans.

The distribution of new investments in the Sixth Five-Year Plan gives priority to Civil Ministries and National projects. These also include the development projects undertaken to ensure the growth and development of Muscat, the capital, as a source of tourism. (see Table 4.1).

The Government of Oman is keen on putting focus on the development of human resources. The country is currently largely dependent on foreign workers. However, with proper planning and new training methods, in many areas, nationals are replacing the expatriate work force. His Majesty's Government is making every effort to ensure that nationals receive priority in employment in all sectors (see Table 4.2). With a view to achieving this goal, a comprehensive human resource development plan has been initiated.

Table 4.1 Distribution of the investment in the Sixth Plan

Items	Amount (RO M)
Civil Ministries Projects	976.2
National Projects	124.9
Tourism Development Program	49.9
Privatization Projects Reserve	32.4
Fisheries Training Institute	2.5
Total New Investments	1185.9

Source: Self

As a visionary ruler, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos has clearly set his priorities for ameliorating the conditions of his people. His goal is clearly stated in one of his famous quotes:

Table 4.2 Distribution of Investment in the Human Resources Development Program

Ministry	On-Going Projects (RO*)	New Projects (RO)	Total (RO)
Ministry of Health	0.5	15.2	15.7
Ministry of Education	0.2	91.5	91.7
Ministry of Social Affairs, Labor and Vocational Training	12.0	34.8	46.8
Ministry of Higher Education	1.2	97.4	98.6
Sultan Qaboos University	0.8	14.7	15.5
TOTAL	14.7	253.6	268.3

Source: Self

RO*: Rials Omani Million

“Oman today is different from what it was yesterday. Its pale face has changed; it has wiped off the dust of isolation and stagnation. It has set about opening its doors and windows to new light.”

4.4. Muscat Municipality – An institution dedicated to national building

Prior to the ascension of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said to the throne, Oman as a country had lived in isolation and obscurantism. There was not much development and the infrastructures were limited. However, in the early Seventies, a variety of changes took place. Priorities were set aside for the construction of infrastructure facilities like roads, bridges, dams, street lights, public parks, schools, markets and social housing. Opportunities flourished for new contractors, consultants and experts to take part in the construction activities as a result of the oil boom. Priorities and purposes were set, strategies evolved and changes resulting from the achievements of the great Renaissance initiated by the ruler of the country, have left indelible marks in the history of Oman.

The total land area of the Muscat governorate is 35,000 square kms. Of this the mountains cover 4,800 square kms, the densely populated coastal plain covers 9,500 square kilometers. The Governorate of Muscat lies in the northeast of the Sultanate of Oman between 23.30° and 23.45° latitude and 57° and 59° longitudes astride the Tropic of Cancer. Its coastline runs for 200 km along the Gulf of Oman. The Governorate comprises of the municipalities of Seeb in the West, Bausher in the middle, Greater Muttrah in the East, Al Amerat in the South and Quriyat in the South East.

Archeological evidence suggests that Man from the dawn of history settled the Muscat area. A site excavated in the Wattayah district of Muscat in 1981 was estimated to be 9615 years old indicating that man had lived in this region since the first Stone Age. The history of Muscat actually goes back to several centuries before the rise of Islam. The Omani historical figure and author Nur Al Din Al Salimi records how Muscat was settled by Omani Arabs of Yemeni descent who planted palms and other trees which were watered by wells. From this, one can infer that Muscat was one of the ancient cities founded by migrating Arabs, either before or after the destruction of the Maarib dam.

Muscat has many traditional mansions. Some of them have now been turned into museums and forts, which attract thousands of tourists every year. A large number

of the dwellings in Muscat could, until the beginning of the 20th century, be considered an extension of its fortifications since their architecture resembled that of castles and forts, and were defensive in nature. Moving from the west to the east of the city, the most important of these are:

- Bait Jariza
- Bait Al Sayyid Shihab bin Faisal
- Bait Al Sayyid Nadir bin Faisal
- Bait Faransa (Omani-French Museum)
- Bait Al Sayyid Abbas bin Faisal
- Bait Ratmoso
- BaitAl Bir
- Old Indian Embassy Building
- Bait Maghib
- Old American Embassy Building
- Old British Embassy Building
- Bait Al Zawawi

The origin of Muscat Municipality dates back to 1920s. In this year, the Arabian Gulf Regional Organizations were set up in the various commercial centers. These organizations controlled markets and public buildings, improved trade and also pooled cultural and civic information. The exact date when a municipality came into existence in Muscat is not certain – some sources say 1924 while others say 1927.

However, what is pertinent is that since then a municipality has existed which has carried out many different functions. It is very likely that initially the jurisdiction of the Municipality extended originally over Muscat and then later over Muscat and Muttrah. There is evidence that this occurred because in 1938 a department, which regulated the streets and houses in Muscat and Muttrah, was financed by the levy of one “Anna” for every load that entered Muscat and Muttrah. In 1939 Sayyid Hilal bin Badr became Head of the Muscat Municipality. During this period the first Municipality Branch was set up in Muttrah. Also during his time the Municipality

as an organization was firmly set up with powers to levy taxes and the law of Municipalities in the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman was promulgated.

The law clearly stated the hierarchy, and the powers and functions of each of the constituents in the Municipality. Brief details are given below:

- The High Authority acted on behalf of the Sultan. It supervised the Municipality with powers to appoint and dissolve the Municipality Committee, appoint and dismiss the President, the Administration (Director of Municipality) and the employees. It also had the power to enact local laws and regulations and revoke or amend the decisions of the Municipality Committee.
- The Municipal Committee: This body functioned as Municipal Council and supervised the running of the Municipality to include budget, accounts and annual report to the High Authority.
- The Executive Agency: This comprised of the Administrator and the employees of the Municipality. This agency was responsible for implementing the approved decisions of the Committee.

4.4.1. The Municipality's structure, powers and responsibilities

In accordance with the provisions of this Law, the Municipality's responsibilities included duties within the traditional competence of town councils such as construction, repair and cleansing of public streets, passages, bridges, drains and water channels, street-lighting, erection of markets, planting and maintenance of trees. However, they also included responsibilities (at that period at least) outside the normal jurisdiction of municipalities such as expenditure on schools and hospitals, public security, recording of births and deaths, police duties, control of firearms, rationing the supply of electricity, and granting permits for various activities. The Municipality exercised all these powers, albeit on a limited scale, in the restricted area of its jurisdiction. It also willingly assumed a variety of responsibilities given to its charge from time to time. For example, it dealt with

registering vehicles, and issuing car and driving licenses in accordance with Road Traffic Act of 1967.

The municipality continued to play the above roles, although only in Muscat and Muttrah, until the year 1970 when the accession of Sultan Qaboos ushered in an era of change for all the Sultanate's institutions. Indeed, the two decades between 1970 and 1990 marked a glorious period in the Municipality's history, the signs of which are apparent all over the Muscat region today.

In 1984, the Capital Area as Muscat was then called became a Governorate consisting of five wilayats. At this time, Muscat Municipality was placed under Diwan of Royal Court. By doing so the status of the municipality was elevated and the jurisdiction, resources and responsibilities were considerably increased. All municipal functions in the governorate of Muscat became the responsibility of the Muscat Municipality, which comprised of a Head Office and four Municipal Area Directorate General to administer the areas of Greater Muttrah, Bausher, Seeb and Al Amerat. Later, in April 1991, Quriyat was added and became the fifth Area Directorate General.

The Municipality became responsible for undertaking and monitoring its own development projects and its jurisdiction was extended to construction, improvement and lighting of roads, addressing and numeration; and regulation of markets and public establishments; as well as all aspects of sanitation such as public cleanliness, refuse collection and disposal, insect and rodent control, supervision of food and drink establishments and their employees, and construction of health facilities and slaughter houses. In addition to supervising building permits, the Municipality played a leading role in the beautifying and landscaping of the Muscat region, and establishing parks and public gardens.

The Directorate General of Technical Affairs (the author) is responsible for executing all infrastructure projects in Muscat. Even private sector work, which involves technical,

Table 4.3 Major On-going Infrastructural Projects in Muscat

	PROJECTS	COST
1	Construction of Southern Expressway	RO 131.681 million
2	Design & Construction of Central Corridor from Madinat A'Sultan Qaboos to Bausher	RO 10.992
3	Bandar Al Jissah Yiti Road	RO 9.850 million
4	Dualization & Realignment of Al Amerat-Qurityat Road RO	60.039 million
5	Construction of Seeb Airport Inter-change	RO 10.555 million
6	Dualization of 18th November Street	RO 6.429
7	Design & Construction of Seih Al Maleh Street	RO 1.127 million
8	Construction of Roundabouts & Road Improvement at Darsait	RO 2.986 million
Total		RO 223.81

Source: Compiled by author

route and excavation approvals are all given by the Directorate General of Technical Affairs. During the last 25 years, the Muscat Municipality has embarked on many ambitious projects, which paved the way for the development of a world-class city – Muscat. The senior managers including directors, assistant directors and even heads of departments form the teams which ensure the smooth and timely implementations of these projects, some of which are on going (see Table 4.3).

In addition to the above major on-going projects, there are several re-construction and remedial projects being initiated as a result of the recent cyclone, Gonu, which hit the coastal areas of Muscat. The projected cost of remedial works will amount to several hundred million Omani Rials. Muscat Municipality is also involved in the development of Muscat Waste Water Project and also a major tourism project called

The Wave. Muscat Municipality as an institution has won several international awards from many international organizations including the United Nations, for being the role model of a clean city with the best infrastructure.

Muscat Municipality as an institution initiated the concept of e-government for the first time in the Sultanate of Oman. This is an important milestone in the service of its people and it is worth mentioning the salient features of e-government here.

4.4.1.1. Priorities and purposes:

Priorities and purposes were set to ensure planned development with the support of technology. The goals were set to ensure that all residents of Muscat, numbering more than half a million, regardless of their level of education, should be able to use the electronic services of Muscat Municipality from anywhere and at any time by having technologies that suits them.

Priorities were to set in the following areas to improve the relationship with the citizens by

- Providing round the clock services
- Cutting departmental hierarchies
- Reducing queuing in Muscat Municipality Offices
- Establishing single point contact to speed up services

In order to improve the services to the people, the need for internal development was first conceived and achieved. Muscat Municipality's IT team did all the updates and enhancement to the Human Resource Management System. It improved the speed of hiring, pay roll, and communication between the different departments and directorates scattered throughout the various districts of Muscat.

4.4.1.2. Strategies:

To begin any technological development without first identifying strategies is dooming it to fail. Financial resources alone do not guarantee success in the IT sector. Thus, attempts have been made to ensure that strategies are well defined

and that they provide clear direction for the organization. The idea is to ensure that the services of e-government are available to the common man, who may or may not be well versed in the application of the latest technologies. Therefore the following strategies were laid out:

- Create a mechanism to provide information outside the Municipality premises and working hours.
- Provide e-services using different types of technologies
- The public should be able to pay electronically (e-payment)
- Create awareness programs for Municipality employees and the general public
- Create new rules and regulations to suit and support e-services
- Motivate the public to use e-services.

4.4.1.3. Changes resulting from the achievements:

In the past, Personal Computers (PCs) in Muscat Municipality were scattered with no connection between them. Now Muscat Municipality has connected all of its PCs into one large network. All users have to log in to be able to use the PCs. This was established using MS Active Directory. Currently there are about 600 PCs in the Network. Email was introduced later to enable the employees of Muscat Municipality to communicate with each other. An Exchange Server was hosted in the Muscat Municipality premises. Every employee with a PC is entitled to have his/her own email. Muscat Municipality consists of a large headquarters building and 8 Directorate Generals employing nearly 4,500 people separated by physical distances that can reach up to 50 kms or more. Thus, the email system today is heavily used by the employees to communicate and mostly share documents. Email is now considered to be a formally accepted. Muscat Municipality stores all of its data in one Unified Database (Oracle 9i). As a result, access to data became easier, especially for Developers. Data can be presented using a client/server approach or even accessed through the web.

Muscat Municipality has got a clearly defined goal in terms of both internal and external services. Internal services are fully computerized in order to facilitate the

employee's ability to use their time and resources fully for the public service. The external services are also fully computerized to enable citizens to reap the maximum benefit without having to waste their time and energy on bureaucratic hurdles. All insurmountable hurdles have been removed, and with the application of information and communication technology in e-government, people find interacting with Muscat Municipality a simple and efficient task. To give a few examples of how we achieved our success we must start with our internal developments. An Intranet website was introduced to serve employees. Share Point Portal Server was used for this task. It enabled documents sharing and management. Many Services were connected; For example,

Salary Inquiry System: A web based system that enables employees to check their salary reports for the current month. Details about bonuses and loan detection are shown to the logged in user. The results of the query will be sent to him by email. The user is automatically identified by the system using the Windows Authentication and then Oracle is queried for his Data. This system freed up our accounting and payroll department for other work.

Leave System: This program is designed to know the employees leave entitlement. A user will have to enter a projection date of when his leave will start and the system will display how many days leave he is entitled to.

Employees Private Discussion Boards: This provides a means for employees to share their ideas, thoughts and problems with each other. It also keeps them informed of current events in their work place.

Employee Promotions Records: Employees can view reports on their past promotions. Promotions type as well as date will be shown in the report.

It was important to ensure that internal services were improved and that the employees' workload was reduced in order to give them more time for institutional services. Being an institution established primarily to service the public, the institution itself had to be internally well serviced to lend credence to the age-old saying: "charity begins at home".

The application of Information and Communication Technology in e-Government resulted in major changes to the services being provided by Muscat Municipality to the public. A few examples of the departments which had a major thrust in the e-Government services are cited below:

Purchasing System: The purchasing system was developed in-house. This system serves all Muscat Municipality Departments and Directorates. It has been recently integrated with an Exchange Provider that links our purchasing system with the Corporations and Companies. This exchange provides Muscat Municipality with a communication format to exchange purchasing orders and quotations. Currently Muscat Municipality is linked with more than 100 Companies

After the integration with the Exchange, the departments started issuing purchase requests electronically. The quotation requests are now passed to many Companies (grouped in categories depending on what they offer) through this Exchange. The quotations can be submitted through the exchange also. There are plans to integrate our purchasing system and the exchange with a payment system.

Tender Services: Tender bidding is a normal procedure in the government sector to award the contracts to companies. In the Muscat Municipality the entire system is computerized. It covers all aspects of the tender from written specifications to issuing the tender, finalization and awarding. However, Muscat Municipality provides more facilities which help the bidder prepare a better tender in a simpler way. Muscat Municipality publishes the tender details on the web site and has an OPEN-DISCUSSION-FORUM for the tender. All the participants can view the site and put their tender queries and see the answers. The beauty of this method is that all the participants take an active part in the discussion, thus ensuring more openness and better participation by competitive bidders.

The application of information and communication technology has made tendering one of the best procedures of Muscat Municipality and since the Muscat Municipality awards millions of dollars worth of contracts for development of infrastructure facilities every year including roads, bridges, street lights, landscaped

gardens and parks, all the major players in the construction field get a fair to chance to participate in the tender.

Rent Contract: The Rent contract is one of Muscat Municipality's main sources of income. It is mandatory for all the rent contracts to be registered with Muscat Municipality upon payment of a 3% tax and it goes up to 9% if the tax is not paid within 30 days of the expiry of the tenancy agreement. In the past each Directorate was working individually using Local Area Network (LAN), under DOS operating system. If a landlord had his properties in Muttrah and he lived in Qurum area, he could not renew it in Bausher, the nearest directorate to his place of residence but had to go all the way to Directorate General of Municipality in Muttrah. However, now rent renewal tax can be paid in any directorate. Gradually the system was transferred to Oracle 7 and now the system is done by Oracle 9i, under Windows operating system, which is more convenient as the data are sharable in all the Directorates using (WAN) Wide Area Network.

The application is now available online where the rent contract summary of Muscat Municipality can be obtained through an online query, as well as downloadable renew contracts forms. As an instant service to the landlords, Muscat Municipality sends SMS notifications before the expiry of every rental contract.

Building Permits: Muscat Municipality has clearly defined building regulations. No construction can be carried in Muscat without receiving approval for architectural plans, structural details and set backs as defined in the land deeds. Consultants submit the drawing to the Building Department. However, in the past they had to personally come to the Department to follow up on the status of their applications. However, now they can monitor each application on Muscat Municipality's web site. This saves enough time for the consultants to engage in their business activities. With the computer generated application number, even the owner of the building can now monitor the progress of his application. It is indeed a great achievement considering the fact that on an average nearly 2000 building permits are processed every year.

The Muscat Municipality plays an important role in the management of the many different municipal functions of the city. These functions cover a wide range of activities that exceeds traditional municipal roles played in other GCC countries.

Parking Violations: Muscat Municipality realizes the fact that parking is one of the major issues when it comes to business, daily work, emergencies and general movement. Over a period of 30 years the parking needs have changed a lot and the importance of regulated parking was foreseen to ensure that demands for parking are met with the growth of city. A decade ago few areas were designated as parking areas. This created chaos and the business community lost many potential customers as they would drive away when they could not get a parking space. Now Muscat Municipality has embarked on a most ambitious project of a Pay and Display Parking System. The most sophisticated parking system was set up, and a parking fee and penalty for violation were adopted.

The Pay and Parking system enhanced the services and provided ample parking space for the visitors. Parking violation fines can now be accessed through Muscat Municipality's web site. Soon Muscat Municipality will inform the violators through SMS using their mobile phone system to communicate parking violations.

Municipal License: Every business establishment in Muscat needs to register itself with the Muscat Municipality. The Municipality provides various licenses and interacts with the citizens for various purposes. These licenses are renewed periodically. To be issued with a Municipal License, one has to be registered as a company first with the Ministry of Commerce and Industries, then the customer has to have a Commercial Registration (CR) number to register for their license and rent contract. The license fees will depend upon the kind of activities, nature of business, branches and locations.

A license fee of between RO 25 and RO 75 is charged for each activity. On average 500 - 800 licenses are issued per day by Muscat Municipality. Previously there were licenses which were operated individually for various purposes. These licenses were Commercial License, Vehicle License, Display Boards and Health License. All these were later combined into one system and called Muscat Municipality

Licenses. Each Directorate was working individually using (LAN) Local Area Network, which was under DOS operating system, and the customer had to interact individually with each of these Directorates or Areas, because the data was not sharable with the other Directorates. However, all the directorates have been brought under one network for ease of communication and the sharing of database to speed all legal processes. The existing system is also using SMS to inform users or customers of companies and business establishments if their license is over due for renewal or has expired. The status of all licenses can now be viewed through the official website - www.mctmnet.gov.om - and renewed. Indeed, a milestone in the history of e-government!

Discussion Forum: A discussion forum has been set up on the official web site. This gives a window of opportunity for every citizen to express his views. In order to strengthen the services of the e-government, a two-way communication needed to be set up. Otherwise, citizens' grievances cannot be gauged and remedial measures adopted to ensure that in future services are extended as per the wishes of the general public. Basically, the forum allows communication between people to people and between people and Muscat Municipality. Here the people can be interactive, share data, activities or services and see any question posed up by people to the Municipality and its reply, and make suggestions or comments. The official clarification and replies also appear at the site. The discussion forum is an open forum. The idea is to gather input from citizens and residents in Oman to ensure improvement in the services of Muscat Municipality. Criticisms are as welcome as the praise. Muscat Municipality believes that constructive criticism can lead to improvement.

mRial: When Muscat Municipality decided, a few years ago, to establish a presence on the Internet, a website was put in place to offer some information about the Municipality. Most of the pages were static. However, with the passing of time, the need was felt to offer more services to the public. A few pages were designed to offer dynamic data. These pages offered a read only access to some information that exists in the Muscat Municipality database. These services facilitated the publics access to the Muscat Municipality's data base through the web site and gave them the ability to learn about the status of their application for building permits, date of

expiry of their rent contract, due date of renewal of municipal licenses, and parking violations against vehicle registration numbers.

The old system lacked organization and did not offer good protection for user privacy. Thus, there was a need for a better system that provided the above and offered more features. The mRial system was put in place.

The mRial application enables residents of Muscat to open prepaid online accounts from which to pay for various government services they may need from time to time. A subscriber to the service pays to top up his account at any of the authorized Bureaus all over Muscat. This amount is instantly credited to the subscriber's mRial prepaid account, which gets debited for a fixed fee every time the subscriber makes an online mRial payment for say his rent contract or a parking violation.

Muscat Municipality has authorized a network of Internal Bureaus (based at various Muscat Municipality Directorates and managed by its personnel) and External Bureaus (select authorized internet cafes and centers). Individuals wishing to open an mRial account may approach any of these Internal Bureaus for prompt, efficient service. While they can register for the service and open an online account from www.mctmnet.gov.om/mrial/, individual subscribers will need to top up their account in person at an internal bureau. Both subscribers and non-subscribers have the option of approaching Internal or External Bureaus for their online payments, for which they can instantly obtain a receipt.

In the new mRial system, upon registration the system requires the user to enter his ID number. Using this ID number the system searches for related municipal licenses, rent contracts, parking violations or building permits.

Furthermore, Muscat Municipality has an integrated mRial with a local bank to provide online payments. Users will soon be able to pay Online. Credit Cards payments will be enabled once a payment gateway exists in Oman. The non-existence of a payment gateway is the main reason for delay of online payment in Oman.

Muscat Commercial Directory: The Muscat Commercial Directory is a newly introduced system that serves every establishment as well as the general public. The idea sprang from the fact that Muscat Municipality holds information about all the private establishments in Muscat. This information is publicly available to the citizens. Muscat Municipality (Muscat Commercial Directory) is a system which enables citizens to search our database using an address or company name to find more details about the establishments. Information like address, telephone number, fax number and even email are displayed to user. One can now visit our website and inquire about any organization or even a local store. Within few minutes the address and phone number can be obtained. Every organization that registers with the mRial system will be able to enter half a page of text and images describing their business activities. The organization concerned can now use Muscat Municipality's portal to advertise their goods and services.

Geographical Information System: With the progress achieved in different spheres of life to improve the standard of living for the general public, it was planned to have a separate department exclusively engaged in the development of Geographical Information System (GPS). With the help of a GPS system, road maps are used now. More than 95% of the Muscat region roads and streets are now on the system. Data available through this system includes road classes, plots, addresses, contours. Soon there will be a tourist map launched by Muscat Municipality which will provide all information regarding schools, hospitals and hotels for most of the Muscat regions.

Thus it is clear that Muscat Municipality has made great achievements in e-government services with the user-friendly in-house developed software. Our constant efforts to develop and improve our technologies will certainly bear fruit for our citizens for generations to come.

Muscat Municipality has received wide coverage not only in the national media but also in many other countries. Institutions from many Arab countries have visited Muscat Municipality to see for themselves and to learn how such improvements have been made in the e-government service. Other Ministries in the Sultanate of Oman are embarking on the ideas of Muscat Municipality to improve their services

to the people. Muscat Municipality was the first to introduce SMS services among the Government Sectors. Today, this idea is being adopted and implemented by many ministries.

Muscat Municipality has set up a trend for e-government services in the whole of the Gulf Countries. Giants like Microsoft have acknowledged Muscat Municipality's achievements and their officials were invited to their Global Conferences in recognition of the services extended to citizens and expatriates.

As Chairman of Muscat Municipality, the role to be played as a leader is a challenging one. In recognition of the efforts made by the Chairman, he has won many awards and received much recognition both internally and internationally. The most recent one being the Merit Award from His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said for the relentless efforts carried out by Muscat Municipality under the auspices of the Chairman immediately after the devastating natural havoc created by the recent cyclone – Gonu.

4.5. Conclusion

The historical account provided shows the importance of the Muscat Municipality, where this study is being carried, which forms the front line development for modernizing and ensuring sustained development. The development plans show the intention of Oman to achieve its goals by implementing major large scale projects and simultaneously implementing a major human resource development initiative. As shown most large scale projects, which are on going, at present are being managed by senior managers who lead both the projects and human resources to achieve results.

To sum up, in order to understand the senior management perceptions of their own and others effectiveness, there is a need to become familiar with the contextual factors which if not determine, will influence their perception and behaviors at work.

Chapter Five: Methodology of the Research

5.1. Introduction

This chapter sets out the various steps that are necessary for carrying out this study and thereby satisfying its objectives. It aims to explain in detail all aspects of the research methodology, with particular reference to the key theoretical and practical issues involved.

This chapter will provide a review of the methodology research, which consists of four activity stages. First, in order to present the research approach within the literature, the chapter starts with a theoretical discussion on methodology and research. Second, the adopted research design and process will be discussed. In the third section the data collection techniques, questionnaire construction and interview process will be described. Finally, in the last section data analysis methods and the data analysis plan will be discussed.

5.2. Theoretical background to methodology

Prior to discussing the methodology of management research in general and the current research in particular, it would be advantageous to consider the theoretical background to the concept of methodology itself. Let us start with the definition of methodology.

5.2.1. What is methodology?

Remenyi et al (1998) argued that research methodology refers to the procedural framework within which the research is conducted. It describes an approach to a problem that can be put into practice in a research program or process. Accordingly, it has been argued (Burns, 2000; Malhotra, 1999; Robson, 1997) that methodology is understood to be the general principles informing research, whereas methods are the practical techniques used to undertake research. From this point of view, methodology provides the link between technique and theory.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) defined a scientific methodology as a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. This system is neither unchangeable nor infallible. Rather the rules and procedures are constantly being improved; scientists look for new means of observations, analysis, logical inference and generalization. The methodology of social science has evolved slowly. Within this evolution, the continuous interchange of ideas, information and criticism made it possible to firmly establish or institutionalize commonly accepted rules and procedures, and to develop corresponding methods and techniques. Methodology provides rules for communication. In addition methodology provides rules for reasoning (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

5.2.2. Positivistic approach to research methodology

In general it has been argued (May, 1997) that, the 'aim of positivism is to collect and assemble data on the social world from which we can generalize and explain human behavior through the set of our theories' (May, 1997, p. 10). In order to consider the importance of positivistic approach to management studies, it is useful to consider what the nature of social science is.

All theories of organizations are based upon a philosophy of science and a theory of society (Root, 1996; Burrell and Morgan, 1993). Sociological scientists approach their subject via explicit or implicit assumptions about the nature of the social world and the way in which it may be investigated (Sayer, 1992). Smith argues that the purpose of science is to develop laws. To develop a scientific law you start from the observation of a particular set of objects and look for regularities. A scientific law, which is one of general assumptions of positivism, is a general statement which describes empirical regularities, which occur in different places and at different times (Smith, 1998).

There are different assumptions about the nature of social science. Burrell and Morgan (1993) developed a scheme for analyzing assumptions about the nature of

social science. First, there are assumptions of an ontological nature - assumptions, which are concerned with the very essence of the phenomena under investigation. Social scientists are faced with a basic ontological question: whether 'reality' is of an objective nature or the product of socially constructed reality (Silverman, 1970). Ontology involves the study of theories of being, the questions we ask about what can really exist (Smith, 1998). Associated with this ontological issue, is a second set of assumptions of an epistemological nature. These are assumptions about the ground of knowledge - about how one might begin to understand the world and communicate this as knowledge to fellow human beings. Epistemology involves the study of theories of knowledge, the questions we ask about how we know (Smith, 1998). The epistemological assumptions in these instances determine extreme positions on the issue of whether knowledge is something which can be acquired on the one hand, or is something which has to be personally experienced on the other.

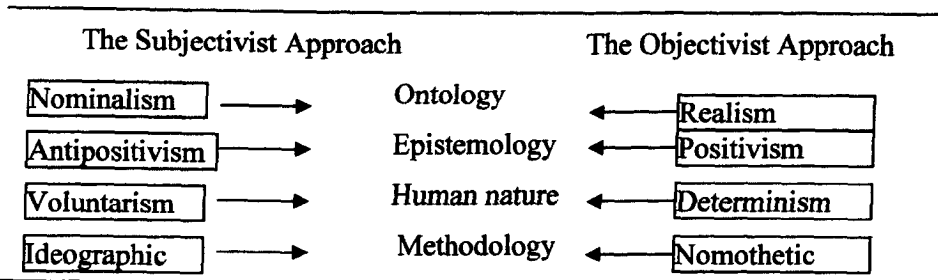
Burrell and Morgan (1993) argued that there is a third set of assumptions concerning human nature and in particular the relationship between human beings and their environment. This view tends to be one in which human beings and their experiences are regarded as products of the environment: one in which humans are conditioned by their external circumstances.

The three sets of assumptions outlined above have direct implications of a methodological nature. Each one has important consequences for the way in which one attempts to investigate and obtain 'knowledge' about the social world. Different ontology, epistemologies and models of human nature are likely to incline social scientists toward different methodologies. Figure 5.1 shows various ontology, epistemologies, and models of human nature and methodological stand points, which characterize approaches to social science.

Positivism is a term with many uses in social sciences and philosophy. In particular, positivist science has a preference for empirical data, which can be observed and measured so that the various component parts can be compared for their relative frequency (Smith, 1998). It embraces such an approach which applies scientific

method to human affairs and is conceived as belonging to a natural order open to objective enquiry (Hollis, 1994).

Figure 5.1: A scheme for analyzing assumptions about the nature of social science



Source: Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1993, p. 3)

The driving idea of logical positivism was that, because claims to knowledge of the world can be justified only by experience, we are never entitled to assert the existence of anything beyond all possible experience (Hollis, 1994). Positivism in social science may be broadly represented as depending upon the assertion that the concepts and methods employed in natural science can be applied to form a 'science of Man' or a natural science of society (Giddens, 1978). It has been maintained that the word positivist has become more of a derogatory epithet than a useful descriptive concept (Giddens, 1978). Burrell and Morgan (1993) argued that, most of the descriptions of positivism in current usage refer to one or more of the ontological, epistemological and methodological dimensions of their scheme for analyzing assumptions with regard to social science. They indicated that, we use 'positivist' here to characterize epistemologies, which seek to explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements (Burrell and Morgan, 1993).

Positivist epistemology is in essence based upon the traditional approaches, which dominate the natural sciences. Positivism may differ in terms of detailed approach. Some would claim, for example, that hypothesized regularities can be verified by an adequate experimental research program. Others would maintain that, hypotheses can only be falsified and never demonstrated to be true. It is argued that, both

'verifications' and 'falsifications' would accept that the growth of knowledge is essentially a cumulative process in which new insights are added to the existing stock of knowledge and false hypotheses eliminated (Burrell and Morgan, 1993). Positivist is opposed by anti-positivist theory. The epistemology of anti-positivism may take various forms but is firmly set against the utility of a search for laws or underlying regularities in the world of social affairs (Douglas, 1970). For the anti-positivist, the social world is essentially relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied (Donaldson, 1996). Anti-positivists reject the validity of the 'observer', which characterizes positivist epistemology as a valid vantage point for understanding human activities (Burrell and Morgan, 1993). From this point of view social science is seen as being essentially a subjective rather than an objective enterprise. To illustrate this point it is essential to consider the premises from which the above issues were derived. The following section will highlight this debate.

5.2.3 Phenomenology, interpretive paradigm, actions and social meanings

It is not surprising to see that the *positivist paradigm* in social sciences has been based on the approaches used in the realm of natural sciences. The organisational phenomenon such as perceptions, interactions, daily relationships and actions have been studied in the same way as inanimate subjects in the fields such as biology, chemistry and physics. One reason for doing so is because this positivist approach and methodology has been highly successful in natural sciences yielding reliable and replicable results, thus it was simply assumed that the application of what worked in the hard sciences would yield the same results if applied to the social science. Thus, it was argued that social scientists should remain 'disinterested' (Merton, 1968) and act only as independent observers (Gill and Johnson, 1991) so that their presence does not allow personal values and bias to distort their work (Khan, 1962).

As explained earlier, the emphasis on objectivity, cause and effect, facts and relationships between variables became the hall mark of positivism (Silverman, 1970). Indeed, it was not long before the social scientist realised that unlike natural

scientists who are interested in the 'outer world' which is readily observable and measurable, the phenomena which are being investigated by social scientists are often generated from within, and influenced and even determined by the values, opinions and interests of the individuals. As such they had to deal with the resultant actions and behaviours which were often attributed meaning by the actors and not the observer (Silverman, 1970; Analoui, 1999). For example, Husserl (1929) attempted a new way analysing the consciousness. Rather than bothering with factual realities or the formulation of hypothesis, 'he addressed himself to the central question of meanings' (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 241).

Moreover, it was argued that it would be almost impossible to separate the interrelationship between the social scientist and what is being investigated- the social and human world (Smith, 1983). Thus, phenomenology was argued to be the science of phenomena and the phenomenological studies are concerned with understanding the behaviours and actions, and the meanings attributed to them by the actors based on their own frames of references (Goffman, 1959; Barber, 1976). As Thevenaz (1962) contends; "Phenomenology is never an investigation of external or internal facts. On the contrary, it silences experience provisionally, leaves the question of objective reality or the real content aside in order to turn its attention solely and simply on the reality of consciousness, on the objects in so far as they are intended by and in consciousness, in short on what Husserl calls ideal essences". He goes on to suggest that the phenomenon here is that which manifests itself immediately in consciousness; it is grasped in an invitation that precedes any reflexion or any judgement." (pp. 43-5). Since the world is the phenomena, the fundamental, original and essential purpose of the reductionists 'to bring to light the essential intentional contact between consciousness and the world' (Thevenaz, 1962, p. 47).

In line with the above philosophy writers such as Weber (1949), Schutz (1967) and Silverman (1970) argued that the essential function of social sciences is to interpret and therefore try to understand the subjective meanings of the social action. Social reality in that sense of the word, as Silverman (1970) argues, is subjectively constructed and socially maintained, and only understood through the social

meaning which has been attributed by the participants to the phenomenon, the actions and behaviours (Silverman, 1970). Schultz (1967) contended that the stock of knowledge we use to typify the actions of others and understand the world around us varies from context to context (Schultz, 1967, pp. 3-47). This point is particularly relevant to the present study in that in agreement with Analoui (1999) the actions and behaviours of the senior managers can be understood by considering the meanings which the participants attribute to their actions. Since the meanings vary from one context to another, the senior managers' perception and understanding of their own effectiveness will vary from those who were studied in Ghana, Zimbabwe and Egypt.

The methodological implications of the above are immense (see debate below on qualitative and quantitative methods). Since according to the phenomenologist the social reality is dependent on the mind (subjectivity), therefore in order to access the meaning that participants attribute to the actions, the investigator ought to seek their explanation of the social world in which they operate. Analoui (1999) explains that the information (data) generated through qualitative methodology of course does not constitute the knowledge but one can understand it by considering the meanings and the context in which it has occurred, then the phenomenon begins to make sense. As Van Maanen (1983) explains, the research methods used under this approach will be an 'array of techniques which seek to describe, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not [solely relying on] frequency of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world' (p. 9).

In this study, despite the fact that the investigator himself shares the 'context' and the experience of the 'social reality', the actions of senior managers are not taken for granted. The sample interviews carried out were deliberately designed to reach the participants consciousness and their interpretation of the reality of being effective in the Muscat Municipality. As will be demonstrated, whilst the participants share the context, they tend to interpret the reality of managing their work and development projects differently. Taking into consideration this variation is not a cosmetic attempt to glorify the methods used rather it is seen as a necessity

by the investigator to support and supplement the other 'set' of data, albeit of the qualitative nature, collected through conducting survey questionnaires.

As Hussy and Hussy (1997) contend 'You will find that some authors use the word 'models' as an alternative for theories or more often, to refer to theories with a narrow focus' (p.55). Either way as Silverman (1994) explains, often the investigators attempt to construct a theory to explain a phenomenon. Moreover, the phenomenologists as opposed to positivists are not concerned with testing hypothesis, large sample and generalisations rather they are concerned with generating theories, collecting rich subjective data and generalisation from one setting to another. Whilst Analoui's (1999) model of 'Parameters of Effectiveness' provided the basis for understanding the effectiveness of the senior managers of their own effectiveness, the present study too, in line with those principles attempts to explore and understand the effectiveness of the senior managers in context of the Muscat Municipality and Oman.

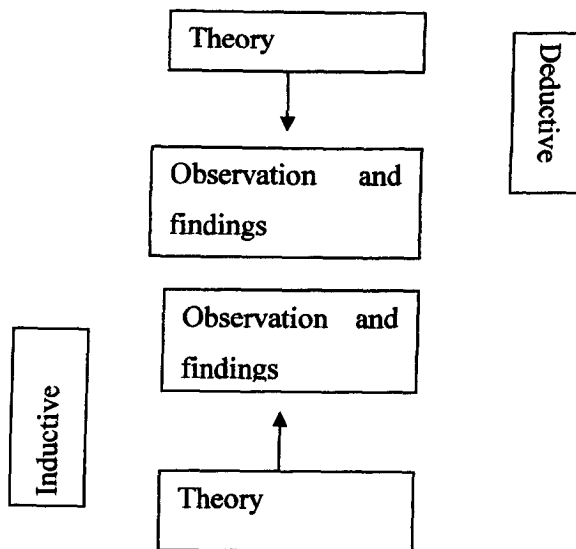
Although in this research both qualitative and quantitative methods have been used to generate the relevant and meaningful data, the intention of the researcher has been to understand the social reality of senior managers' work in an organisational context. In order to ensure the soundness of the research, managerial effectiveness has been treated as an organisational phenomenon which requires explanation and understanding. Moreover, as explained in chapter three, the intention is not to construct a new theory, since this has already been attempted, rather to use the model constructed by Analoui (1999, 2007) to gain a better understanding of the managerial effectiveness. The result, as will be demonstrated, is expected to lead to not only better understanding of the phenomenon but also contextualisation of the phenomenon under investigation as a result.

5.2.4 Deductive and inductive theories

Bryman (1988, 2004) exemplified the nature of the relationship between theory and research, and illustrated how the deductive approach deduces a hypothesis that must

be subjected to empirical scrutiny. The researcher must then translate and deduce the hypothesis into operational terms. This will require the researcher to specify how the data for this hypothesis will be collected. The deductive process starts with a theory and is followed by a hypothesis or set of hypotheses, and then the

Figure 5.2: Inductive and deductive approaches



Source: Adopted from Bryman (2004)

requirement for data collection and findings, followed by confirmation or rejection of the hypothesis and revision of the theory.

The inductive approach involves movement in the opposite direction where the researcher assumes and infers the implication of their findings that introduced and promoted the theory. The findings are fed back to the theory. With the inductive approach, theory is the outcome of research (Bryman, 2004). Figure 5.2 illustrates the differences between the deductive and the inductive approaches.

5.3. Research approach: quantitative or qualitative

Qualitative research is aimed at discovering meaning and involves both interpretation and a critical approach to social work. Research questions are posed, rather than hypotheses and theory is often grounded in data. Concepts are in the

form of themes, rather than relationships. Data is often in the form of language from observation, documents, interviews and participation. For qualitative researchers the fundamental question is not whether the data proves or disproves a given theory but how to go about theorizing and generalizing from data (Robson, 1997).

In contrast, 'the quantitative research method relies mainly on a hypothesis which is derived from theory deductively. The objective is to test the theory by way of observation and data collection, the findings of which following analysis, would either confirm or reject the theory' (Robson, 1997, p. 11). In quantitative research the causal relationship between variables is investigated. The primary data is collected mainly using questionnaires and structured interviews. In business and management studies, the quantitative research has been compared with the methodology that natural scientists use in their investigations, with the core language of approach including terms such as variable, control, measurement, experiment, reliability and validity (Bryman, 1988).

Considering different aspects of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies the question raised is, which one is the appropriate research method to use in leadership and management research? In an attempt to answer this question different aspects of both methodologies will be overviewed.

5.3.1. Quantitative research method

Quantitative research is often conceptualized by its practitioners as having a logical structure in which theories determine the problems to which researchers address themselves in the form of hypotheses derived from general theories. These hypotheses are invariably assumed to take the form of expectations about likely causal connections between the concepts, which are the constituent elements of the hypotheses. In quantitative research the researcher uses quantitative data. Normally, the data, which have been measured in interval level, is considered as quantitative data. However, the measured data in ordinal level can be treated as quantitative data. The obvious benefits of quantitative data are that, the numerical

form makes comparison easier to do, and data are standardized, visible and amenable to the test of classical survey statistics (Hart, 1987).

In general, sample size is greater and controlled in such a way as to be representative of the population from which they are drawn. This allows greater confidence in accepting the reliability or generalizability of the findings. One process of quantitative research is the need to render observable the concepts, which are rooted in the hypotheses derived from a prior theoretical scheme. Thus, the quantitative researcher tends to be concerned with relating those concepts to one another to investigate associations and to tease out causal processes.

The measurement of concepts tends to be undertaken through the use of questionnaire devices or some form of structured observation. Quantitative research is often highly preoccupied with establishing the causal relationships between concepts. The frequent use of the terms 'independent variable' and 'dependent variable' by quantitative researchers is evidence of a widespread tendency to employ causal imagery in investigations. Another aspect of quantitative research is that, the results of a particular investigation can be generalized beyond the confines of the research location. By verifying generality, the qualitative researcher draws nearer to the law-like findings of the science. Accordingly, the replication of established findings is often taken to be characteristic of natural science. Replication can provide a means of checking the extent to which findings are applicable to other contexts. Finally, quantitative research tends to treat the individual respondents as the focus of empirical inquiry.

5.3.2. Qualitative research method

Recently, thoughtful and comprehensive discussions of the principal qualitative research methods and a convincing rationale for using them in management research have been provided (Hurley, 1999). Van Maanen (1983) describes qualitative methods as an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world.

Similarly, Chisnall (1986) defines the essence of qualitative research as diagnostic attempts to discover what may account for certain types of behavior, seeking a deeper understanding of factors, sometimes covert, which influence the decisions. Qualitative methods offer powerful and versatile techniques with which to examine the complexities and subtleties in the complicated sets of relationships in business and management studies.

In spite of the advantages of quantitative research, it has been argued that it is not possible to use quantitative methods in some specific circumstances (Burns, 2000; Malhotra, 1999; Bryman, 1988; Marshal, 1985). For instance qualitative research is an appropriate methodology in the following circumstances:

- Research that can not be done experimentally for practical or ethical reasons
- Research that delves into complexity and processes
- Research for which relevant variables have yet to be identified
- Research into unknown societies or innovative systems.
- Research into informal and unstructured linkages and processes in organizations
- Research into real as opposed to stated organizational goals (Marshal, 1985)

Malhotra (1999) argues that, like secondary data analysis, qualitative research is a major methodology used in exploratory research (such as the present study). Researchers undertake qualitative research to define the problem or develop an approach. In developing an approach, qualitative research is often used for generating hypotheses and identifying variables that should be included in the research. In business and management studies, qualitative research provides the fundamental understanding of peoples' language, perceptions and values. A qualitative approach most often provides the understanding that allows us to decide on the information we must have to solve the research problem and how to properly interpret that information.

5.3.3. Choosing the research methodology

Research into leadership should reflect the dynamics of change. In highly dynamic and uncertain environments there is no single satisfactory generic method of research. Robson (1997) argued that although qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches are different it is wrong to oppose them as two competing methodologies. For some researchers, however, qualitative and quantitative research are simply different ways of conducting the research, each may be the most appropriate for different kinds of research questions. For instance, qualitative researchers may resort to some form of quantification in their work and for a survey to be successful a quantitative researcher must integrate some qualitative knowledge into the survey's design and interpretation, and/or understand peoples frame of reference (May, 1997). Different methods have different advantages and disadvantages, and can be mutually supportive (Wilson, 1995). More specifically, the difference between the two research methodologies in business and management studies, are summarized in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Qualitative versus quantitative research

	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Objective	To gain a qualitative understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations	To quantify the data and generalize the results from the sample to the population of interest
Sample	Small number of non representative cases	Large number of representative cases
Data collection	Unstructured	Structured
Data analysis	Non-statistical	Statistical
Outcomes	Develop an initial understanding	Recommend a final course of action

Source: Malhotra, (1999, p. 148)

Qualitative research provides insights and an understanding of the problem setting, whereas quantitative research seeks to quantify the data and typically uses some forms of statistical analysis. While quantitative methods are necessary to test the validity and general applicability of research findings, the potential of in depth quantitative studies diminishes rapidly as the underlying conditions change in a dynamic environment.

Researching leadership effectiveness therefore requires the right balance between qualitative and quantitative methods. Whenever a new management research problem is being addressed, quantitative research must be preceded by appropriate qualitative research. Langer (1999) argued that, qualitative research studies should always be followed by quantitative research to test the hypotheses.

An example might be finding out what the consumer needs are in order to create new product concepts, which will be shown in subsequent qualitative research. It is a principle of research in business and management studies, more especially leadership, to view qualitative and quantitative research as complementary, rather than in competition with each other (Judd et al, 1991). Using a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods as a contingency approach in management researches, has been used by several different researchers (Gerson and Horowitz, 2002; Analoui, 1990). The degree to which quantitative and qualitative studies are utilized will depend on the environmental circumstances of the firms. In turbulent environments research will focus on developing conceptual knowledge by relying on qualitative studies, whereas in more static environments quantitative studies are favored for testing and validating existing conceptual knowledge.

5.4. Case study research design

A research design or a research plan is the logic that links the data to be collected and the conclusions to be drawn to the initial question of the study. Yin (1994) states that a research design is an action plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and there is a set

of conclusions about these questions. It provides the link between the questions that the study is asking, the data that is to be collected and the conclusions drawn (Robson, 1997). Robson (1997) noted that the two variables, which mainly influence research design, are the purpose of the research and the time frame.

Yin (1994) acknowledged that a comprehensive 'catalogue' of research design for case studies has yet to be developed. However, he suggested that the following five components of a research design are especially important:

- a study's questions
- its propositions if any
- its unit(s) of analysis
- the logic linking the data to the propositions
- the criteria for interpreting the findings

This research attempts to answer the 'what', 'why' and 'how' questions which according to Yin (1994) and Robson (1997) are ideally answered by the case study approach. Case studies have a distinctive place in evaluation research as noted by (Root, 1996). According to Yin (1994), to explain the causal links in real-life interventions is too complex for the survey or experimental strategies. Case studies can illustrate certain topics within an evaluation, again in a descriptive mode. The case study strategy may be used to explore those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes. The case study may be a 'meta-evaluation' - a study of an evaluation study (Smith, 1998). The case study research approach provides a better explanation of the phenomena studied because it allows for a 'thick description' (Miles and Snow, 1994) which would otherwise be lost in experimental and other quantitative designs (Yin, 1994). Yin further noted that, the case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events.

This statement is supported by Smith (1998), who reiterated that case studies have a special purpose in that they gather in-depth program information that is not possible to collect through broad surveys. This is particularly useful when conducting

research into program evaluation in which the researcher or evaluator are able to identify problems with program implementation or suggest ways to design effective practices. It has been discussed that (Gerson and Horowitz, 2002) a well-designed case study can be an important tool for evaluators wanting an in-depth understanding of interventions. Gerson and Horowitz noted that neither set of findings is likely to have emerged from larger-scale comparison group or survey studies.

Along with studying exemplary sites exploratory case study analyzes have been found especially useful in understanding implementation problems of new legislation. The results from these useful case studies support the more general conclusions of the potential benefits from conducting scientifically sound case studies. Case studies are particularly useful in explaining how or what is going on in a local context and in generating plausible hypotheses for later quantitative work or improvements in data collection instruments. Scientifically sound case studies are usually guided by either a theory or theories, and a clear conceptual framework. The selection of sites based on data describing the character of the site is likely to produce added knowledge worth the investment. They develop and analyze multiple sources of data ranging from observation, review of documents and records, examination of physical artifacts, to interviews. They can provide enough detail to let the reader judge the validity of the findings. Replication in other sites, using the same or a similar protocol, helps provide confirmation (Yin, 1998).

5.4.1. Validity and reliability in case study design

In judging the quality of the research designs, Judd et al, (1991) summarized the following tests generally found in advanced textbooks on social science research methods:

Construct validity: establishing correct operational measures for the concepts being studied.

Internal validity: establishing a causal relationship, whereby certain conditions are shown to lead to other conditions, as distinguished from a spurious relationship.

External validity: establishing the domain to which a study's findings can be generalized.

Reliability: demonstrating that the operations of a study - such as the data collection procedures - can be repeated with the same result.

In general, it has been discussed that (Gilbert, 1993; Cohen and Manion, 1980) validity is the accuracy with which the instrument obtained measures what it is intended to measure, while reliability is concerned with the measurement instrument's ability to provide the same results over time (test-retest reliability), across a range of items (internal consistency reliability) and/or across different rater/observers (inter rater or inter observer reliability).

The current research employs multiple sources of evidence in data collection to enable it to achieve the requirement for both validity and reliability. The use of multiple source data and evidence has been recommended by many authors and researchers such as Hitt et al (1998), Silverman (1998), Langer (1999).

5.4.2. Why the case-study approach for this research?

This study investigates the senior managers/leadership effectiveness in the Municipality of Muscat. The suitability of the case study for this research is summarized as follows:

Firstly, in order to understand and make sense of the process by which senior managers' effectiveness is positively or adversely influenced; a relatively detailed analysis is required of the complex information-seeking context, the social processes of the studied organization and the interactions of the senior managers involved (Silverman, 1998).

Secondly, the diversity of the stakeholders, the information needs and the nature of the information required. According to the exploratory framework adopted, a range of information sources including individual (personal), organizational and external context is required to make sense of the behavior involved (Analoui, 1999; 2002).

Finally, a case study approach provides the opportunity to examine a continuous process (such as evaluation) in context and to draw on the significance of various interconnected levels of analysis. Also, on this occasion, it is within the capacity of a lone researcher with limited resources to undertake such an approach.

Perry (1998) argued that the process of collaboration and participation has an impact on collaborators quite beyond whatever they intend to accomplish, as the people who participated in creating something tend to feel ownership of what they have created. All the respondents in this case study were provided with the necessary information relating to the purpose of the study, benefits of the study, background of the program to be evaluated and issues relating to research ethics such as confidentiality and anonymity. As noted by Zikmund (1991) there are many ways in which data can be anonymous or kept confidential. He suggested the use of pseudonyms, which is commonly used in qualitative research, and in some cases it is relevant to use pseudonyms not just in published reports but also throughout the study, in labeling interview notes and taped interviews.

In some situations, respondents may not appreciate the implications of being named, thus there is the possibility of needing separate reports for different audiences, to protect their identity and to meet the needs of different reporting styles for different purposes. For the purpose of this study, the respondents, namely senior managers, were coded to protect their identity, however the participants for the focus group will be acknowledged as they were very responsive and eager to share their opinions and viewpoints on the program evaluated and they do not object to being named.

5.5. Data source and sample

This research study is exploring senior managers' effectiveness, those who exercise their leadership qualities to successfully implement the large scale development projects in Oman. This section aims to shed some light on the nature and sources of data used in the current research study, which is divided into two main sources:

primary and secondary data. Here the aim is to illustrate the nature of the primary and secondary data, and the sources from which these data could be obtained. According to Zikmund (1991) primary data are data gathered and accumulated specifically for the project or the research study at hand. Secondary data is gathered and collected by some one else before the research and for purposes other than the current needs of the researcher. Secondary data are usually historical and already collected. According to Zikmund (1991) the primary advantage of secondary data is that obtaining this kind of data is not expensive and that secondary data can be obtained more rapidly than primary data. The money and time factors play an important role in the success of the research and secondary data could save on both elements. Collecting data that has been already gathered and tested saves the researchers doing some of the fieldwork themselves. One of the disadvantages of secondary data is that the data obtained from these secondary data resources are not designed to meet the specific need of the research and the researcher (Zikmund, 1991).

Is data applicable to the population of interest? Is the subject matter consistent with the research problem of definition? For example, in this current research study regarding the relationship between managerial leadership and organizational effectiveness, secondary data was provided from the Muscat Municipality.

5.5.1 The sampling employed for this study

This section is concerned with the explanation of some aspects of sampling principles and the selection of people who would be asked questions through participating in survey interviews or questionnaires conducted by the researcher. Cooper and Schindler (2003) throw light on the nature of sampling by giving the example that one taste of the drink tells us whether it is sweet or sour and that the basic idea of sampling is that by selecting some of the elements in a population, conclusions can be drawn about the entire population. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the population element is the subject on which the measurement is taken. Another term to be used is the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis could be

a person, an organizational department, a functional operational team or something else.

According to Maxim (1999) the accuracy of a sample is very important and the more accurate a sample is the more expensive. In some studies a high degree of accuracy is required to estimate respondents' participation. If a high level of accuracy is required but the resources are not available, the researcher would either consider an alternative strategy or reschedule until a later date. Cooper and Schindler (2003) outline two factors that should exist in a sample to represent the characteristics the population. The validity of a sample depends on accuracy and precision. Accuracy is the degree to which bias is absent from the sample. An accurate sample is one in which the under-estimators and the over estimators are balanced among the members of the sample and there should be no systematic variance with an accurate sample. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) systematic variance is defined as the variation in measures due to some known or unknown influences that would cause the scores to lean in one direction more than another.

In this study, in order to gain a more comprehensive picture of what factors and processes influence the effectiveness of the senior management/leadership of the organization, it was decided to involve the entire population of the senior management of the Muscat Municipality. Thus, three levels of management were included in the study. These included; Director Generals (8); Deputy Director Generals (8); Directors (32); forty eight participants in all. The main criteria used for the selection were first the leadership position of the senior management involved. It was felt that the above cadre provides the leadership for all the others, including heads of the departments. Second, the senior management are directly involved in the formulation of policies and act as decision makers in so far as the large-scale projects are concerned. This is of great importance, since it is their perceptions and behaviors which influence the ways development projects are envisaged and implemented. Whilst the heads of departments do provide leadership for the sections and subsequent units of operation, it was felt that this category of senior management could not adequately meet the above selection criteria.

Although the participatory style of management exercised by the Minister has resulted in all cadres of the organization feeling involved. As a head of department commented “We can’t help but feel proud of our achievement. Just a look at how clean and modern our city is will make us feel like holding our heads up in the community”.

Moreover, as stated earlier, the intention of the researcher is to maximize the quality and accuracy of the data generated. Thus, it is believed that attention must be paid to the quality of data rather than quantity alone. As a Director General expressed “Yes, it could be a great responsibility; every one looks up to us. I have to consider, H.E. (meaning the researcher) and my colleagues on one hand and the public on the other (smiling). Yes, the buck stops here (sitting back in his chair), as you are aware of it your good self (showing respect for the researcher’s position in the organization”. The unit of analysis is therefore the senior managers in the Muscat Municipality. According to Maxim (1999) sampling is a less desirable procedure for data collection; however conducting a census would be very difficult and impractical. Sampling is less costly and would require less time if compared with testing the whole population. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) there are many reasons why researchers do sampling and that includes lower cost, as sampling require lesser costs than testing the whole population; sampling also gives greater accuracy with results and greater speed of data collection, data analysis and availability of population elements.

Precision of estimate is the second criterion of a valid sample and no sample will completely represent its population in all aspects. This is called sampling error and reflects the influences of chance in drawing the sample members. Sampling error is what is left after all known sources of systematic variance have been accounted for. According to Bryman (2004) a sample error is the difference between a sample and an entire population from which it is selected, even though a probability sample has been selected. A non sampling error is the differences between the population and the sample that arise either from deficiencies in the sampling approach such as inadequate sampling frame, non-response, problems in the questionnaire wording or poor interview.

Non response is a source of non sampling when the respondents of the sample refuse to cooperate or cannot be contacted for some reason. According to Field (2005), looking for and finding results that apply to the entire population of people or other phenomena is very vital and essential to the research in the sense that the researcher cannot collect data from every single element in the entire population; and in this case the researcher collects a smaller sample, analyzes the results and then infers the results about the entire population. As mentioned earlier, the criteria of 'leadership' and 'decision making' which were employed on one hand and the involvement of all the senior managers in the selected categories has ensured that sampling error and lack of precision will not jeopardize the quality and accuracy of the results.

5.6. The methods of data collection

Data in social science in general, and in business and management studies in particular, are obtained in either formal or informal settings and involve either qualitative or quantitative formats. Robson (1997) argued that, a variety of combinations of these two settings for data collection results in three types of data collection: observation, interview and questionnaire survey. In this section the advantages and disadvantages of these three data collection methods are compared and in light of the discussion the selected data collection method for this study is described.

5.6.1. Observation

Nachimas and Nachimas (1996) argued that, social science research is rooted in observation. A major advantage of observation as a technique is its directness. You do not ask people about their views, feelings or attitudes; you watch what they do and listen to what they say (Adler and Adler, 1998; Robson, 1997). Moreover, data collected by observation may describe the observed phenomena as they occur in their natural setting. Other data collection methods introduce elements of

artificiality in to the research environment. Observational methods might also be used when persons are unwilling to express themselves verbally.

Appropriateness does not imply that observation is an easy or trouble free option (Adler and Adler, 1998). There is a major issue concerning the extent to which an observer affects the situation under observation. There is also the very practical problem with observation that is tends to be time consuming (Robson, 1997). Based on the literature, there are very few footprints for using observation as a data collection method in management studies. However, observations made by the researcher may provide the insight into operations and processes involved. In the case of the present study, the researchers' own observations of the respondents with others provided an insight into the meanings which were used by the respondents in describing their actions. In this sense observation could be of some value for understanding the points of view of the respondents and the interpretation of the data as a whole. It was felt that these observations could be of value when comments made by respondents in the form of interview and questionnaire needs clarification, interpretation and understanding as the whole.

5.6.2. Interview

One of the most effective methods of gathering primary data in management research is the interview. The research interview has been defined as 'a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by the research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation' (Cohen and Manion, 1980, p. 244). Cohen and Manion argued that as a distinctive research technique, the interview might serve three purposes. First, it may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. Second, it may be used to test hypotheses or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. Finally, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking (Cohen and Manion, 1980).

In the case of opinion and attitude questions, especially if they are presented in an open-ended format, the interviewer has the opportunity to make sure that the respondent understands the questions. Interviews are increasingly being used in management research through which in-depth information about people, attitudes and values can be elicited. The researcher gains an impression of the respondent, is able to explore issues in greater depth and clarify concepts and definitions. There are more obvious advantages in the use of interview (Kohn and Dipboye, 1998). The process allows the interviewer to encourage the potential respondent to interpret complex questions, to correct the respondent's misunderstandings and to keep track of the interviewee's attention (Judd et al, 1991). Both questionnaire and interview are powerful instruments in collecting primary data. For collecting qualitative data in management research the in-depth interview is a considerable instrument.

There are four types of interview. Based on research objectives, the researcher uses the appropriate type of interview. In the standardized or structured interview the wording of questions and the order in which they are asked is the same from one interview to another. The piece of paper, which is held by the interviewer, is the 'interview schedule' and that word 'schedule' seems to convey the formality of this type of interview (Gilbert, 1993).

However, Gilbert has argued that the second type of interview is the semi-standardized type; here the interviewer asks certain, major questions the same way each time, but is free to alter their sequence and to probe for more information. The interviewer is thus able to adapt the research instrument to the level of comprehension and articulacy of the respondent, and to handle the fact that in responding to a question, people often also provide answers to questions we are going to ask later (Gilbert, 1993, p. 136).

The third type of interview is unstructured or informal interviewing. What differentiates this form of interviewing from the structured or semi-structured interview (Malhotra, 1999), is its open-ended approach. Based on a list of topics, which the interviewer wishes respondents to discuss, questions are flexible and

phrased as the interviewer wishes. Context in this type of interview is very important. It is the most informal form of data collection and is often rich in content, which is why it is associated with a qualitative approach (Robson, 1997).

Group interviewing is the fourth type of interview. Group interviews have special value for those who want to assess how several people work out a common view or a range of views, about some topic (Gilbert, 1993). In this type of interviewing the topic should be directed and it is up to the interviewer to maintain the focus so that the discussion does not deviate from the main topic. The researcher aims to encourage interaction in the group (Robson, 1997; Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). Group interviewing allows the researcher to see how people interact when considering a topic, and how they react to disagreement.

Generally, there is no single best way of collecting data. In this research, as it will be discussed later, the semi-structured interview has been used for gathering the data. This provided the necessary flexibility needed to generate information related to the parameters of the effectiveness as perceived by the senior managers involved. In most cases the researcher has to create an environment in which the researcher can be trusted and interacted with informally. In the case of the present research the informal relationship established with the senior managers over a number of years meant that, the researcher could explain the concepts and construct to the participant to ensure the generation of the high quality data. The researcher also felt that a semi structured approach to interviewing senior managers ensured both flexibility and relevance of the data collected.

5.6.2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of interview

The interview is a kind of conversation; a conversation with a purpose (Robson, 1997). Interviews carried out for research or enquiry purposes are a very commonly used approach, possibly in part because the interview appears to be a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out. The main advantage of interview lies in the quality of the data obtained. Interviews are the best instruments when a small number of high quality and detailed responses are to be considered. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) argued that flexibility in the questioning process; control of the

interview situation; high response rate; and fuller or supplementary information are the main advantages of interview. In contrast, higher cost; interviewer bias; and lack of anonymity are the main disadvantages of interview. Interviews offer more flexibility to the interviewer to probe for quality information. Personal interviews have a better chance of acceptance returns, with a low respondents-refusal rate. The sample is less distorted and a much wider range of questions can be covered (Curran and Blackburn, 2001; Gorton and Dool, 1983).

Robson (1997) argued that, face-to-face interviews offer the possibility of modifying one's line of enquiry, following up interesting responses and investigating underlying motives in a way that postal and other self-administrated questionnaires cannot. In contrast, interviewing is time consuming and in addition, in some fields it appears to be increasingly difficult to obtain co-operation from potential interviewees (Robson, 1997).

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

5.6.3. Questionnaire

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

for one or more of the following purposes - description, explanation or hypothesis testing. Remenyi et al, (1998) argued that, the type of information sought when surveying individuals or objects, such as firms, usually includes evidence on demographic and socio-economic variables. In addition, depending on the study, evidence may be sought on opinions or beliefs related to behaviors, experiences, activities and attitudes.

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

5.6.3.1. Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire

McNeill, (1990) and Nachiman and Nachiman, (1996) discussed the main advantages of the mail survey as follows.

- Low cost
- Reduction in biasing error
- Greater anonymity
- Considered answers and consultations
- Accessibility

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

- Requires simple questions.
- No opportunity for probing.
- No control over who fills out the questionnaire.
- Low response rate

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

5.6.4. Selection of data collection techniques

As discussed earlier, data collection methods have been grouped into three categories consisting of observational methods, questionnaire surveys and interviews (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). This study required the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data that would facilitate comparison and hypothesis testing. Therefore, it was decided that a combination of questionnaire and interview was the most appropriate data collection method (Curran and Blackburn, 2001). In this research many of variables could not be observed. This made the observational method, as a main method of data collection inadequate for the research. However, although the main data collection method was the survey method, some observations that had been made earlier and the secondary sources which were available provided the additional data. In this research, where secondary data were available, they provided additional data.

5.7. Questionnaire construction

A questionnaire is a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents. Regardless of the form of administration, a questionnaire is characterized by three specific objectives (Malhotra, 1999). First, it must translate

the information needed into a set of specific questions that the respondents can and will answer. Second, a questionnaire must uplift, motivate, and encourage the respondent to cooperate and to complete the questionnaire. Third, a questionnaire can be a potential source of response error. Therefore, a questionnaire should minimize response error. The researcher needs to be careful about the way questions are put and the structuring of the questionnaire. It is important to note that in designing the questionnaire two main types of questions were used; closed and open questions. Whilst the closed questions limited the respondents to providing only the data which was required, the open questions provided some scope for the employees to provide additional information. In the present research the questionnaire was structured (see appendix 1) in six steps.

First step was the decision about what information is required. It is useful to list all the items about which information is required. Base on the conceptual framework of the research, the subject area of discussion is mainly concerned with the following concepts:

- Managerial/leadership effectiveness
- Effectiveness parameters
- Contextual influences
- Organizational (including performance)
- Leadership behavior (styles)

Second step was considering data collection alternatives. It is necessary to answer the question, is survey research the best way of obtaining the information? In response to this question, since in this research the primary qualitative and quantitative data was needed, and the researcher himself has direct access to the participants, it was concluded that using personal administration of the questionnaire and carrying out personal interviews constituted the best strategy for generating adequate and relevant information to meet the objectives of the present research.

Third Step was the decision about the type of interview and questions schedule. In management research as Bell (1993) has argued, once the researcher has decided what he or she needs to know, a decision will have to be made about the type of interview. A structured interview will produce structured responses. And open-ended interview will produce a wide range of responses. In summary, the interview schedule consisted of the questions of different types - close-ended and open-ended.

The fourth step was refining the questions and considering how questions will be analyzed. In this research the researcher decided to include questions related to the parameters of effectiveness and project performance in the list to be asked. Thus, the categories of the responses related to the categories of the questions asked and in this way analyzes were done with ease and the responses were used to support the discussions in the categories in which questions were asked.

Preparing an interview schedule or guide was the fifth step in structuring the questionnaire. It consisted of considering the order of the questions and preparing prompts in case the respondents did not provide essential information freely.

Finally, in the sixth step of structuring the questionnaire, revising the questionnaire, and avoiding bias were necessary for finalizing the questionnaire.

5.7.1. Type of questions

As explained earlier, the questionnaire is self-administered, so the questions must be simple and detailed instructions must be provided. Questions can be either open ended or close ended. The type of question chosen has implications for the type of evidence that can be obtained and therefore on the method of analysis of the evidence. Since open-ended questions require the respondents to be articulate and willing to spend time on giving a full answer to the questions, a few of them have been used in the interviews. While open-ended questions are typically used in personal interview surveys involving small samples, the close-ended questions are typically used in quantitative studies involving large samples. Remenyi et al, (1998) argued that, the assumption is that detailed knowledge is available on the attributes

of interest and therefore it is possible to pre-specify the categories of responses. In the present study, the majority of the questions in the questionnaire survey were close-ended. Therefore it was possible to pre-code so as to be amenable to computer analysis using statistical packages. Although, close-ended questions were difficult to design, they made the collection and analysis of evidence and the task of the respondents easier. Nearly all of the close-ended questions were answered.

5.7.2. Data measurement

Data types vary and are listed as nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio types of data. Each data type has its own set of characteristics and empirical operations. According to Zikmund (1991) the nominal scale is the simplest kind of scale as the numbers and the letters assigned to objects serve as labels for identification or classification. In the business research for example, the coding of male as 1 and female as 2 is considered to be an example of the nominal scale. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) nominal data involves the collection of information on a variable that can be grouped into two or more categories that are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive. Nominal data is widely used in surveys when the data is categorized by major subgroups of the population. Classifications of nominal data are such as respondents' marital status, gender and age. More examples of the nominal scale measurements of the questionnaire are as follows:

Q 4. In your opinion, a senior manager/leader should:

- have the right personality, appearance and attitude Yes No Don't know
- be caring, inspirational, visionary and ethical Yes No Don't know
- take risks and create opportunities Yes No Don't know
- be able to adopt a leadership style suitable for dealing
with hostile and ever changing environment Yes No Don't know
- motivate knowledge workers and develop learning
organization Yes No Don't know

The second level of the data measurement was ordinal scale. According to Zikmund (1991) an ordinal scale classifies objects according to their degree in an ordered relationship. A typical ordinal scale in business research asks respondents to rate a

certain brand for example, as excellent, good, fair or poor. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the use of an ordinal scale implies a statement of greater than or less than without stating how much greater or less. An example of ordinal scale measurement level is as follows:

Q2. How would you describe your own managerial/ leadership style(s)? Please use the following Scale:

Little		So-So		Very
1	2	3	4	5
				I demand compliance from employees and drive to achieve with self-control <input type="checkbox"/>
				I believe in mobilizing people. I have self-confidence and am a change catalyst <input type="checkbox"/>
				I believe in creating harmony. I have empathy and communicate well <input type="checkbox"/>
				I believe in forging consensus, collaboration and team building <input type="checkbox"/>
				I set high standards, initiate drive to achieve objectives <input type="checkbox"/>
				I believe in developing people. I am self-aware and have empathy <input type="checkbox"/>

The third and final level of measurement is called the continuous, ratio or interval scale. Remenyi et al, (1998) argued that, 'rating scales' are strictly speaking ordinal. However, in practice, especially in the field of management, these are treated as being measured at the interval level' (Remenyi et al., 1998, p. 153). Evidence based on interval scales can be analyzed by virtually the full range of statistical procedures such as the mean, standard deviation and Pearson's correlation coefficient. In practice, although the survey generally makes the most use of evidence at the ordinal level, some of the variables were measured in continuous scales. Variables such as the number of employees of the firm, amount of turnover of the firm and duration of business plan preparation are examples of the variables which are measured in continuous scale.

The question design or style is another issue the researcher bears in mind when developing and building the questionnaire. According to Bryman (2004) one of the most significant considerations for many researchers is whether to ask a question in an opened or closed format. In the case of opened questions, the respondent is asked a question with no limitation and is not given a choice of answers from which to choose. The respondent has the freedom to answer as they wish. In the case of closed questions the respondent is presented with a set of choices from which they can select an appropriate answer. In this study, attempts have been made to ensure that there is balance between the close and open-ended questions.

According to Bryman (2004) with self completion questionnaires, most of the questions are likely to be closed. The process of developing a strongly constructed questionnaire is extremely important, as it is one of the most important ways of accomplishing a good response rate. According to Dillman (1983) an attractive layout is more likely to increase the response rate than other tactics such as reducing the margins or space between questions. According to Bryman (2004), to avoid the low response rate problem it is preferable to design the questionnaire as short as possible, assuring that the layout is easy on the eye and that it facilitates the answering of all the questions that are relevant to the respondent. As will be demonstrated below, one of the reason for undertaking a pilot study was to ensure that about issues are dealt with effectively.

5.7.3. Pilot Study

It has been already indicated that for the current research the author designed the questionnaire and generated the questions from three basic sources including,

a) Theories of leadership and management, b) previous empirical studies, and c) managerial effectiveness models in particular 'the Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness'. All relevant theories, empirical studies, and models from which questions were developed were discussed in chapters two and three. Designing an effective questionnaire that will yield appropriate data is a long process. An important part of this processes it to test the questionnaire on a group of people similar to the intended sample. The questionnaire was revised several times before it was ready for administering to the senior managers. There were several rounds of

discussions between the researcher and supervisors. Further discussions were held with statistical consultants and other researchers in doctoral research workshops. The questionnaire was revised after each round of discussions. More importantly, the questionnaire was tested on senior managers within the Muscat Municipality. In this regard, the questionnaire was pilot tested on a sample of senior management (2 Director Generals; 4 Deputy Director Generals and 8 Directors) as well as 2 academics (management specialists) and 2 doctoral students in their last stages of writing up. Following a number of minor adjustments to the format of the questionnaire, it was ready to send to the respondents. For the final version of the questionnaire please see appendix 5.1.

5.8. Survey and interview process

After design and implantation of the pilot study the researcher began the task of designing the survey questionnaire in order to collect the relevant data to answer the research questions which were posed earlier. Once this task was complete the researcher hired a consultant to collect the data from the respondents. This was done intentionally to avoid the potential problematic issues which are related to ethical considerations required appropriate field work. As Burnim (1978), in his evaluation of public sector employment has highlighted the issue that the 'research community has become more concerned with the political issues associated with the field research as governments and other political groups have become increasingly interested in who gets studied and what way.' (p. 164). The researcher was aware of this and because of his position in the organization adopted the above mentioned strategy to ensure that the data collected would not be contaminated in anyway.

Therefore, the questionnaire was used in order to obtain the data from the whole population and selected respondents were interviewed. This objective was achieved through the survey process. As mentioned earlier, interviews are very time-consuming. Then, there is the use of the extra time needed to consider what has been said during the interview and also consider the notes taken to extend and clarify points that may have been noted. The validity of the data collected through the interview depends upon the effective establishment of a particular kind of social

relationship between the interviewer and interviewee. Ackroyd and Hughes (1992) argued that the task of the interviewer is to obtain information, often of a highly personal and private nature, from a respondent who is a stranger with little or no obligation to spend time and effort answering questions.

In order to select the sub-sample of managing directors for conducting the interviews, the systematic sampling method has been used. As Nachimas and Nachimas (1996) argued, systematic sampling consists of selecting every K sampling unit of the population after the first sampling unit is selected at random from the total sampling units. Systematic sampling is more convenient than simple random sampling. Using the systematic sampling, from the 48 senior managers (48), a total of (K=32) who agreed to attend the interview, a total of 16 (50 percent) were selected. This involved 2 Director General (DG), 4 (Deputy Director General (DDG) and 9 Directors (D).

One consideration in selecting 16 senior participants was the sheer amount of time necessary for conducting meaningful and productive interviews. Senior managers by the very nature of their job are 'busy people' and it was important that too much demand was not place on all managers especially the DG and DDG categories. Moreover, had a larger sample of the senior managers been selected for interviews it could have resulted in 'why not me' misunderstanding. After careful consideration, it was felt that a sample of 16 (33%) interviews provided adequate information to meet the objective of the study. Based on the managers' managerial levels and the interviewees' organizational and personal personality, the initial contact is especially crucial. Obviously if this fails there is no interview. The interviewer must give the respondents sufficient information about who the interviewer is, how the respondent came to be selected, what the questions will be about, assurances must be given as to confidentiality, and permission sought for the interview to take place (Ackroyd and Hughes, 1992).

In this research the arrangement for interviews were made through personal informal channels. All interviews have been individually conducted and the consultant started by first briefing the interviewee about the background,

importance, and objectives of research for the development of senior managers and their organization (Miller, 1991). The second phase in the process of interview is establishing a suitably relaxed and encouraging relationship between the interviewer and respondent. The interviewees were provided with adequate information on the purpose of the research where it was needed. Since the creation of an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust is essential for the successful conduct of the interview, the interviewees were then assured of the confidentiality of the entire discussion. During the interviews, since the interview contains significant non-standardized items, the aim was to place the respondents at ease so that they felt free to talk at some length. The final stage was bringing the interview to a close and disengaging from the scene. This can often be harder than it looks, especially if the relationship has been a rewarding one for the respondent (Singleton et al, 1998; Ackroyd and Hughes, 1992). There are also cultural implications that have to be observed. For example, do the interviewees correlate the amount of time spent with interviewer with the degree importance give to their role as participants to the study or even as their perceived status as senior managers. To avoid such potential misunderstanding the respondents were guided towards the completion of the process by being asked if they felt that there was anything which needed to be included but which had inadvertently been missed out. Next was the process of thanking the respondents for their participation in this research. Interestingly, since the subject of study is managerial effectiveness, senior managers' interviewed expressed the desire to know the result of the study. It has been agreed that the result with the entire cadre of the senior management after the completion of the work.

5.9. Interview format

Since the main purpose of the interview was the generation of the adequate and relevant data (Analoui, 1999; Ackroyd and Hughes, 1992) which otherwise could not have been accessed and supporting the responses gathered through survey questionnaire it was decided to use the main items enquiry as a format in the interviews. As explained earlier, the researcher felt that the respondents may wish to expand on their responses. Also, since the questionnaire by its very nature has to include a large a number of closed questions, it was felt that it would be appropriate

to provide the participants with an opportunity to provide extra information should they deem it necessary. Having explained the purpose of the study to the participants it was evident to them that issues related to managerial and leadership effectiveness is a main concern. It must be noted that since the researcher is also the head of the organization in which the study is being carried out, it was important to ensure that the participants did not confuse the interviews with that of 'annual performance appraisal'. It was encouraging that the respondents felt free to express issues related to managerial effectiveness and make 'their points made'. More over, to avoid the issue of associating the physical setting with that authority of the researcher, as far as possible the interviews were held in a neutral place. Thus, after a brief 'warming up' and 'relaxation' the necessary but brief research 'background information' was provided. Almost all senior managers were aware of the research and seemed to appreciate the fact that their organization (municipality) was adopted as a case for this managerial study. As one commented, we are pleased that you have provided us with the opportunity to contribute to this first time study in Oman'. The participant also found the process and rational for selecting of the respondents for interview as being 'fair', 'encouraging' and 'appropriate'. Researchers have recognized that sharing information about the research and the background to the study facilitates the process of the interview as well as ensuring the quality and quantity of the data collected.

The interviews covered considerable territory which we will now explore.

Parameters for Effectiveness: Most questions were centered round 'parameters' for managerial effectiveness and the role of the leadership. The questions were, by and large, concerned with their perception of and their views on parameters of effectiveness such as the degree of awareness of the senior managers of their own and others effectiveness, or the ways they went about increasing their effectiveness. These questions also corresponded to those which appeared on the questionnaire and as such provided either extra or more clarification on their part. This part of the interview formed the main part of the data generation since the researcher's main interest is to explore the managerial and leadership effectiveness in detail. As noted earlier, throughout the interviews, the researcher observed that the interviewees

showed interest in the topics related to parameters of effectiveness and the impression given was that they felt that their contribution could ‘make a difference’ to discovering ways in which they could improve the achievement of the goals of the Municipality. This was particularly evident when issues of the ‘Demands, Constraints and Opportunities’ were discussed. As one of the interviewees (DDG3) mentioned “it is good to be a part of the process which leads to better achievement of our targets, not that we are not doing well, as you are aware yourself (leaning forward) but there is always room for improvement (sitting back feeling comfortable that the point has been put across)”. In some cases the interviewees showed more interest in one or more of the parameters in the question. When interviewing a senior manager, one said “Perception and awareness are important but in my view the skills and know how makes all the difference.” (DDG1). It was also interesting to see that most senior participants were aware of the differences between the transformational and that of the transactional leadership approach and indeed had no problem in discussing the leadership issues and how they can be improved.

Contextual Factors: This category of questions was directed towards the context in which effectiveness was demonstrated. Interviewees showed concern for the ‘contextual factors’ particularly the environment. One commented, “To be effective you got to know the environment (American accent), you got to know the physical environment and the politics....” And another senior manager was concerned with the influence of religion, Islam, on senior managers’ effectiveness. “This is important in Islam, to work hard, be fair and give back to the community. That is what we are here for, the people of Muscat” (D. 6). On the whole, the interviews showed concern for their role as managers in the Municipality. As one clearly commented “The Municipality is different from other ministries, as you are well aware...we are responsible for the city... working for the Municipality is different, it is projects real projects” DDG.2.

Interestingly, all interviewees showed concern for ‘quality of leadership’ and for ‘getting things done’ indicating that they were aware of ‘being effective’.

Perceived relevant issues: Finally, to ensure that all relevant information were gathered, the interviewees were asked if there was anything which they felt was important to this investigation but that had not come up either in the questionnaire or the interviews. The initial response was to mention the 'wave project', one of the biggest and high profile projects implemented by the office of Municipality. This clearly showed that senior managers are 'proud' of what is being done and what has been achieved in a relatively short space of time. However, once they were asked to be more specific they generally talked about the importance of the 'projects', issues related to the Municipality's relative status among other ministries and the importance of 'having highly educated staff'. One Director said "I believe the university education makes the difference ... most of us (senior managers) have postgraduate studies from the US. We know how to become successful and make the best of the resources." (D9). Most participants including the executive members placed stress on the importance of the managerial skills as oppose to education for improving managerial effectiveness. For example, "...new skills and competencies and indeed the management training as the whole helps to develop the managers, their organization and of course, their work...." DDG1. On the whole, the questions asked helped to give a view of the reality which is often not open to top leaders of the organization - it was revealing.

5.10. Data analysis

The stage of data analysis begins after the data has been collected. The raw data that is collected in the fieldwork must be edited, categorized and transformed into the meaningful information that helps the researcher. According to Zikmund (1991) the conversion of raw data into information requires that data must be edited and coded so that it might be transferred to a computer or other data storage medium. Editing is a process of checking and adjusting for omission, legibility and consistency. Coding is a process of identifying and classifying each answer with a numerical score. Transforming the data into numerical symbols prepares the data for entry into the computer.

The completed questionnaires had already been edited in the field after completion of each interview. It was necessary to code the responses to facilitate computer data input. Defining research variables did the coding of the data. Accordingly for each variable, its acceptable variable name (eight characters) was defined. Also the variable label and variable value were indicated. Since the data analysis of the quantitative data collected was to be carried out using the SPSS statistical package, the data entry was done using the SPSS spreadsheet.

According to Zikmund (1991) descriptive data analysis refers to the transformation of data into a form that will make it easy to understand and interpret. Descriptive data analysis involves the calculation of averages, frequency distribution and percentages distribution. In order to analyze the data and consequently answer the research questions, the collected data was summarized using statistical graphs such as, bar charts and histograms. In addition, various descriptive statistics including means, medians, modes, standard deviations, coefficient of skewness and kurtosis were calculated. The main reason for such analysis was to get a clear picture of how the different variables were distributed. The general picture given was that of skewed and non-normal distributions. In order to cross check these observations regarding the distributions the Kolmogorove-Smirnove goodness-of-fit test on the data to check for normality was performed. The result of the test confirmed that the majority of the variables were not normally distributed. Accordingly the findings had a big influence on the choice of statistical techniques used to analyze the data accumulated through survey questionnaire.

Regarding the reliability of the data, reliability analysis on measurements was carried out. Reliability refers to the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if measurements are made repeatedly (Wilson, 1995). The coefficient alpha is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale item (Burns, 2000; Malhotra, 1999). Churchill and Peter (1984) argued that, this coefficient varies from 0 to 1, and a value of 0.6 or less generally indicates unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability. In saying this, they implied that, value of alpha above 0.6 were generally acceptable. In this research the coefficient alpha was computed for the various variables. The value of alpha ranged

from 0.74 to 0.96. This coefficient gave an indication of the internal consistency and therefore stability of measurement generated by research scales and indicated that, the data collected were quite reliable.

As for the qualitative data, following the interviews, the data was edited and categorized. As mentioned earlier, a mixed method was used (triangulation), on the evidence collected to ensure a better understanding the processes involved. Using a pre-determined format of questionnaires three categories of questions were used to ascertain their views on parameters for effectiveness, the importance of contextual factors on their effectiveness and attempting to generate information which were not directly related to the main objectives of the study but are important for better understanding the motives for senior managers increased effectiveness. On the whole, the interviews generate rich data, which resulted in sense being made of the behaviors observed. Moreover, as will be shown in the next chapter, the qualitative data provided information regarding the motives for the actions which were taken by the participants in implementing the various stages of the development projects in Muscat, Oman.

5.11. Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed a number of alternative approaches to the design of an appropriate methodology (triangulation) to meet the specific objectives of this study including qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, research process, data collection methods, and data analysis techniques. It has been concluded that, the objectives of this research require that rich, qualitative and quantitative data be collected; thus a methodology which combines qualitative and quantitative approaches. In order to study the processes which underlie and influence the managerial effectiveness in the Municipality of Muscat, a 'case study' approach was deemed appropriate. Management researchers use a wide range of techniques to collect their primary data. In order to gather the data, a combination of both questionnaire and personal interview survey techniques was judged to provide the

most comprehensive means of capturing exploratory, descriptive and explanatory data pertinent to the stated research objectives.

Through preliminary analysis, it has been found that, a portion of the data violated several of the assumptions underlying parametric analysis. The data generated through interviews proved to be rich in quality and enable the researcher to make sense of the processes involved as well as understanding the motives behind the behavior of the actors involved. Adequate preparations and the pain staking process of data collection resulted in the collection of adequate and relevant data for this research.

Chapter Six: Data Analysis

6.1 Introduction

The discussion on the methodology adopted for this empirical research was provided in chapter five. It has been explained that the main methods of data collection in this research are survey questionnaire supported by sample interviews. In this chapter the data generated through self administered survey will be analyzed, explored and discussed in some detail. The aim of this chapter is to present the findings from the data analysis carried out for this empirical research. Furthermore, in chapter seven, these findings will be interpreted in relation to the research questions of the study and will be discussed with respect to the existing theories which were reviewed in the preceding chapters.

In order to analyze the data and consequently discuss the results, the collected data was summarized using 'descriptive statistics'. This type of data analysis gives a clear picture of the distribution of the data and consequently helps to select appropriate statistical tests for data analysis and discussion. In this chapter, first the demographic profile of the respondents will be explored. Second, the data regarding the senior management leadership effectiveness will be analyzed. Third, the data analysis will continue with respect to contextual influences and leadership style in the Muscat Municipality and the public sector in Oman. Finally, the chapter will end with a conclusion and summary.

6.2. Demographic profile of the respondents

To draw a correct profile of the senior managers within the Muscat Municipality, a number of interrelated questions were asked in section one of the survey questionnaire relating to the respondents' managerial position in the organization, gender, ages, total years of working experiences in the public sector in Oman in general and in Muscat Municipality in particular, and their qualifications. Demographic data provided valuable information concerning who took part in the survey and later participated in the interviews. The analysis of the data and the relevant findings are discussed in brief.

6.2.1 Managerial position of the respondents

From a total number of 48 senior managers, eight (16.7%) respondents were the top (team) management (Director General); eight (16.7%) respondents were the next level in the hierarchy of the organization (Deputy Director General) of the Muscat Municipality. The largest group in the survey were those senior managers in charge of the operational aspects (Directors) (No = 22, 45.6%) and others (No=10, 21.2%) e.g. senior specialists (OD Changes) and consultants/production managers. Table 6.1 illustrates the frequency distribution of the managerial position of the respondents.

The interrelation between the personal characteristics of the respondents will be discussed later in this chapter. However a preliminary data analysis shows that there is no significant relationship between the managerial position of the respondents and their educational level.

Table 6.1 Frequency distribution of the managerial position of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Director General	8	16.7	16.7
	Deputy Director General	8	16.7	33.4
	*Director	22	45.6	79.0
	Other	10	21.0	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	

Source: Data Analysis

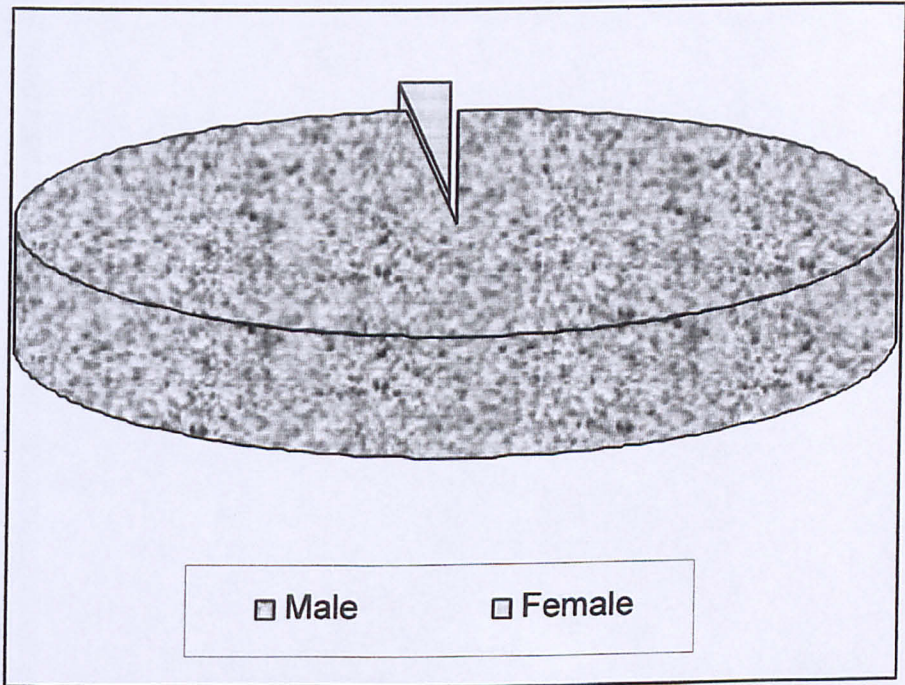
Therefore, it is important to note that in public sector organizations such as Muscat Municipality, promotion to senior management positions is usually not entirely based on the result of the systematic and objective assessment of the individual's educational level and qualifications but, rather it is based on subjective merit appraised by their immediate superiors.

This category of staff occupies senior positions in the organization. Despite the traditional approach to promotion and career development, the senior managers, irrespective of their educational and professional qualifications, seemed to perform their job well. It is noteworthy to mention that ‘Heads of Departments’ are classed as middle management and therefore were not included in the survey (see chapter five).

6.2.2 Respondents’ gender

Regarding gender, the vast majority of the respondents (N = 47, 97.9%) were male and only 2.1% of the respondents (N = 1) was female. This result confirms that most of the top management and especially the senior management positions in

Figure 6.1 Distribution of the gender of the respondents



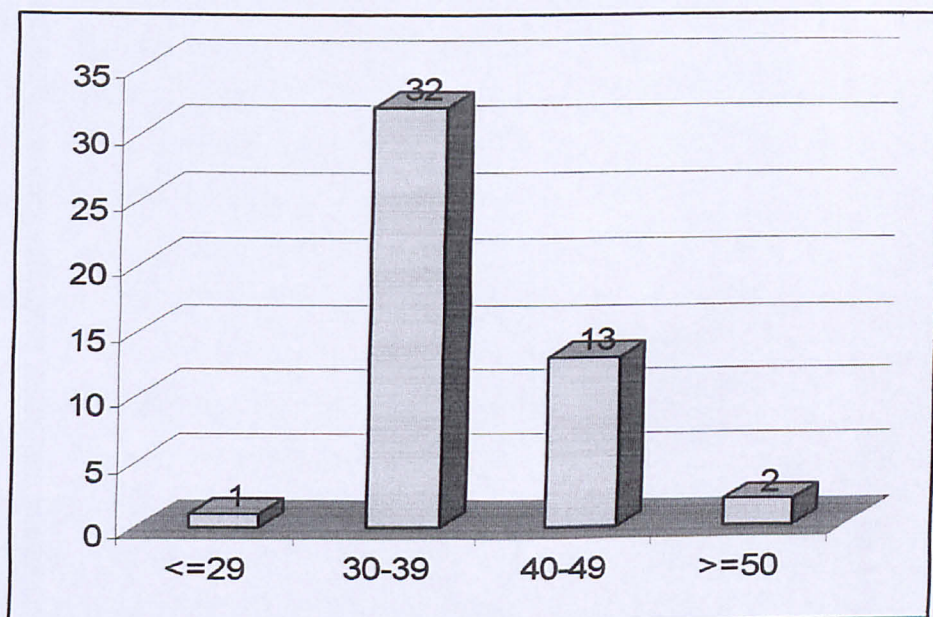
Source: Data Analysis

Muscat Municipality are occupied by men rather than women. Perhaps this result is related to the cultural and political issues in the public sector in Oman. Figure 6.1 shows the distribution of the frequency of the respondents in terms of their gender.

6.2.3. Respondents' age

In this research the respondents were asked to indicate their age groups. One of the reasons for using the age group rather than the exact age of the respondents was their possible intention to respond to the question correctly. The reason for measuring the age of the respondents was to explore the relation between age of the respondents and their managerial characteristics. It has been argued that, the age of the senior managers is highly correlated with their total work experience, and organizational and industry tenure. For instance, it has been proposed that older executives are more committed to the status quo than are the younger executives. Kakabadse (1999) also argues that younger does not necessarily mean better. Figure 6.2 provides the classification of the respondents' age groups. The respondents were categorized into four groups: group one (29 or less years old), group two (30-39 years old), group three (40 to 49 years old) and group four (50 years old and over).

Figure 6.2 Classification of age groups of the respondents



Source: Data Analysis

The first group has the lowest (2.1) and the second age group has the highest (66.7) percentages. Thirteen of the respondents (27.1%) reported their age to be between

40 to 49 years old. The majority of the respondents (N=32, 66.7%) were between 30 to 39 years old and the remainder (N = 2, 4.2.2%) reported their age as being 50 or older.

6.2.4 Working experiences of the respondents

A preliminary analysis of the data shows that the respondents' total years of service in the public sector (Mean = 3.52, Std. Deviation 1.130) are highly correlated to their work experiences in the Muscat Municipality (Mean = 3.44, Std. Deviation 1.109). Table 6.2 illustrates the cross tabulation of the total years of working experiences in the Muscat Municipality versus the total years of working experiences in the public sector as a whole.

In this research the total work experiences of the respondents in both the public sector and the Muscat Municipality were categorized into 4 groups. The findings of the research show that 12 of the respondents (25%) had 6 to 10 years work experience, in Muscat Municipality, while 11 of the respondents had 6 to 10 years working experience in the public sector. For the 11 to 15 years of working experience category, the results were exactly the same (No = 14, 29.2%) for both the Muscat Municipality and the public sector. Whilst there were slight differences in the results in terms of the total years of working experiences for the 16 to 20 years and 21 years or over categories in both the Muscat Municipality and the public sector (see Table 6.2).

The findings reveal that the majority of the respondents have started their career in the Muscat Municipality and stayed with the organization for a very long time. In other words, there is no evidence to show that the work force and more specifically the senior managers are mobile between the Municipality and other organizations in the public sector. This conclusion, however, may not apply to the public sector in Oman, as the whole.

Table 6.2 Cross tabulation of the total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality and the years of working experience in the Public Sector.

		Total years of working experience in the Public Sector				Total	
		6-10	11-15	16-20	>=21		
Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	6-10	Count	11	0	0	1	12
		% within Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	91.7%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	100.0%
	11-15	Count	0	14	0	0	14
		% within Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	.0%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	16-20	Count	0	0	10	1	11
		% within Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	.0%	.0%	90.9%	9.1%	100.0%
	>=21	Count	0	0	0	11	11
	% within Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Total		Count	11	14	10	13	48
		% within Total years of working experience in the Muscat Municipality	22.9%	29.2%	20.8%	27.1%	100.0%

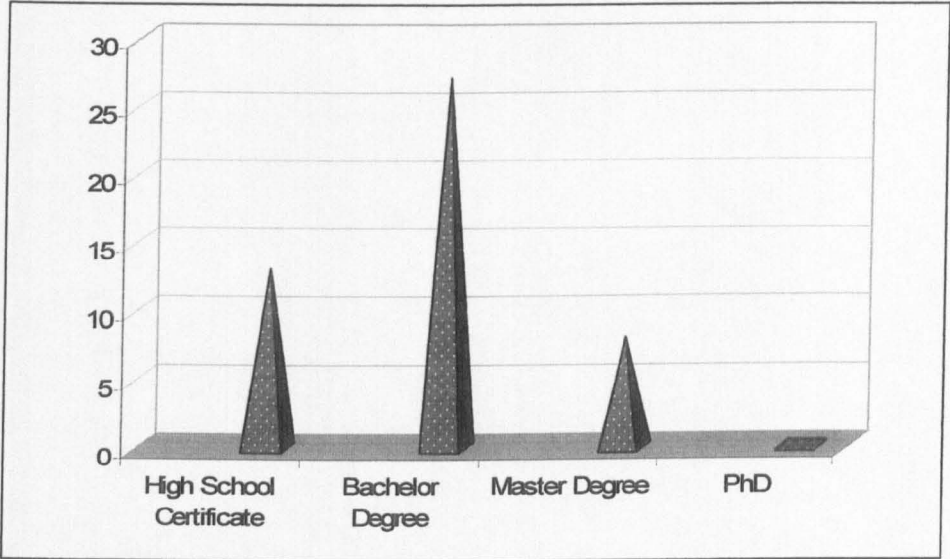
Source: Data Analysis

6.2.5 Educational levels of the respondents

Another interesting characteristic of the senior managers in the Muscat Municipality is their educational level. Education may be considered as indicative of one's knowledge and skill base. As noted by Hitt and Tyler (1991) the senior manager who has one type of formal education can be expected to have developed different problem-solving skills and mental models with which to manage their work than senior managers with a different type of formal education. Thus, it has been decided to measure the senior managers' educational level in conjunction with their

professional qualifications. The educational level of the respondents was divided into four categories including: Up to High School Certificate, Bachelor and Masters Degrees including MBA, and Ph.D. Figure 6.3 shows the educational levels of the respondents in the studied organization.

Figure 6.3 Educational levels of the respondents



Source: Data Analysis

The data analysis revealed that about half of the respondents (N = 27, 56.3%) reported that, they had a Bachelor degree in areas such as management, engineering, sciences. Thirteen (27.1%) of the respondents reported their education was up to High School Certificate, whilst only 16.73% (N = 8) of the respondents reported that they possessed a Masters degree. In the post graduate category the frequency for Ph.D. or equivalent was zero.

Regardless of the respondents' differing educational levels, the respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they have had any professional qualifications. In this regard, 33.3% of the respondents (N=16) reported that, they have attended some form of management training program and possessed professional qualifications, while the majority of the respondents (66.7%) reported that, they do not possess any professional qualifications. The professional qualifications and management training programs reported here are different from those of the formal degrees

offered in management and other disciplines. Table 6.3 reveals the cross tabulation between professional qualification and educational level of the respondents of the respondents.

However, by checking the details of the data analysis provided in Table 6.3 no significant association has been found between professional qualification and educational level of the respondents.

Table 6.3 Cross tabulation between professional qualification and educational level of the respondents

			Professional qualification		Total
			Yes	No	
Highest level of education of the respondents	High School Certificate	Count	3	10	13
		% within Highest level of education of the respondents	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
		% within Professional qualification	18.8%	31.3%	27.1%
		% of Total	6.3%	20.8%	27.1%
	Bachelor Degree	Count	11	16	27
		% within Highest level of education of the respondents	40.7%	59.3%	100.0%
		% within Professional qualification	68.8%	50.0%	56.3%
		% of Total	22.9%	33.3%	56.3%
	Master Degree	Count	2	6	8
		% within Highest level of education of the respondents	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
		% within Professional qualification	12.5%	18.8%	16.7%
		% of Total	4.2%	12.5%	16.7%
Total		Count	16	32	48
		% within Highest level of education of the respondents	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within Professional qualification	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%

Source: Data Analysis

6.3 Role of senior managers and their effectiveness

Organizational achievements are often explained by the suggestion that there is a direct relationship and correlation with the effectiveness of the leadership of the organization. Svensson and Wood (2005) argued that the actual effectiveness of this leadership itself may be regarded to be the outcome of timely precision in management and business practices, as well as the outcome of contextual precision. In addition, leadership effectiveness in organizational achievements is often regarded as being the outcome of skills rather than serendipity in management and business practices. In this section an attempt has been made to analyze the respondents' perception of senior management and leadership effectiveness in the public sector in Oman in general and the Muscat Municipality in particular.

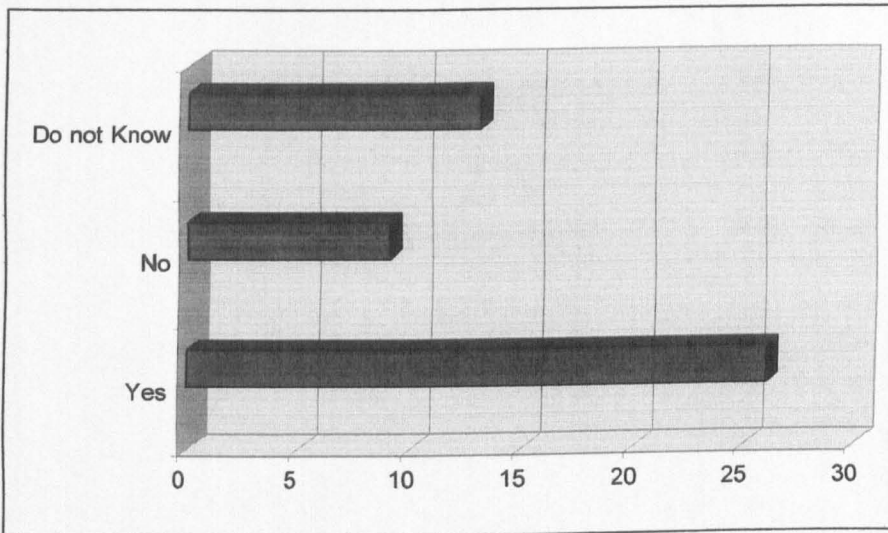
6.3.1 Senior management involvement in large scale projects

As it has been discussed in the literature review (chapter two), leadership effectiveness in management is not new. It has been addressed in the literature for more than a few decades. Many authors argue that senior managers should be involved in long term and strategic decision making rather than operational and day to day operations. As Svensson and Wood (2005) argue, this view is based on the belief that a top-down approach of leadership effectiveness is superior to the bottom-up approach. It proffers the worth of strategic management issues, but neglects the knowledge and awareness inherent among staff at tactical and operational levels of business practices. It also proffers a mechanical view of staff performance and ignores the worth of the generation of ideas from subordinates on management and business practices that may contribute to organizational effectiveness.

In this research the respondents were asked to indicate whether they see themselves as one of the key individuals in the management of large scale projects in Muscat Municipality. As shown in Figure 6.4 the majority of respondents (N=26, 54.2%) considered themselves to be key people within their organization, whilst only nine of the respondents (18.8%) believed that they were not involved in managing major

projects and making strategic decisions within their organizations. Another interesting finding of this research is that 13 of the respondents (27.1%) could not identify their role and involvement in managing large scale programs. This might be because some senior managers often perceive ‘involvement’ as being ‘in charge’, in reality however, a large number of senior staff are involved in the planning and implementation of the large scale projects.

Figure 6.4 Involvement in managing large projects



Source: Data Analysis

6.3.2. Types of projects senior managers are involved in

The respondents also were asked to indicate the large scale projects with which they had been involved in during last three years. The respondents identified a wide range of large scale projects. Some of the projects in which the respondents were involved include the Muscat Festival, E-government conference, Sultan Qaboos Architectural Award, Sports Committee, Development of Streets, Road Construction Projects, Change of IT Systems, CRM Projects, City Illumination Project, Refurbishment of Low Cost Houses, Constructing Parks and Sahel, Human Resource Planning, Developing Service Committees, Renovation of the Fish Market, Aseeb Souq Street Development, and Map Development. Out of all of the

major projects, the following projects have been identified as the top three projects by the respondents:

- The Muscat Festival
- Construction projects, and
- City development projects

It is important to mention that the respondents were asked to prioritize the projects in which they were involved in terms of the time they allocated to each project.

6.4. Description of effective leader/manager

The literature shows considerable ambiguity between leadership effectiveness and organizational achievements. It is argued that leadership effectiveness in management in the public sector is often seen as crucial to explain and predict organizational achievements (Svensson and Wood, 2005). Some authors also argue that the belief in leadership may be one of the most deeply rooted human assumptions, but at the same time argues that it has been difficult to confirm the link between leadership and organizational achievements, and that empirical support is doubtful (Thomas, 1993). As indicated earlier (see chapter two) there are different characteristics which have been attributed to leadership (Bass, 1990)

In this research, it was very important for the researcher to explore the senior managers' perceptions of effective leadership. Therefore a question was designed and included in the survey questionnaire which asked the respondents to describe the characteristics of an effective leader/manager in their organization. Table 6.4 illustrates the descriptive statistics of senior managers' perceptions of an effective leader.

Table 6.4: The descriptive statistics of senior managers' perceptions of an effective leader

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewnes
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
A good motivator	48	1	2	1.56	.501	-.260
Ability to supervise/lead	48	1	2	1.54	.504	-.173
Allocate resources efficiently	48	1	2	1.69	.468	-.835
Inspire people to perform beyond their contractual responsibilities	48	1	2	1.62	.489	-.533
Making people work to their contract	48	1	2	1.90	.309	-2.676
Meet deadlines	48	1	2	1.71	.459	-.947
Perform tasks satisfactorily	48	1	2	1.83	.377	-1.847
Responsible, conscientious and focused	48	1	2	1.71	.459	-.947
Solve problems	48	1	2	1.71	.459	-.947
Teamwork/participation	48	1	2	1.60	.494	-.440
Valid N (listwise)	48					

Source: Data Analysis

This question is aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager should possess. The respondents answered the questions using different indicators. The characteristics included were 'being a good motivator', 'having the ability to supervise/lead', 'allocate resources efficiently', 'inspire people to perform beyond their contractual responsibilities', 'making people work to their contract', 'meet deadlines, perform tasks satisfactorily', 'being responsible', 'being conscientious and focused', 'being able to solve problems, and 'encouraging teamwork/participation' at work. The data analysis revealed that (see Table 6.5) the following ten groups of managerial characteristics in their order of priority were stressed as the most important qualities.

Further data analysis shows that the qualities which were described portrayed a manager who is able to both carry out the task and deal with people at work effectively. However, most emphasis seems to have been placed on making people work to their contracts, perform tasks satisfactorily and solving problems. It was

Table 6.5 Perceived priority of managerial characteristics for effective leadership

Managerial characteristics	Score	Mean	St. D
Making people work to their contract	1st priority	1.8	0.308
Perform tasks satisfactorily	2nd priority	1.8	0.376
Solve problems	3rd priority	1.7	0.459
Meet deadlines	4th priority	1.7	0.459
Responsible, conscientious and focused	5th priority	1.7	0.459
Allocate resources efficiently	6th priority	1.6	0.468
Inspire people to perform beyond their contractual responsibilities	7th priority	1.6	0.489
Teamwork/participation	8th priority	1.6	0.494
A good motivator	9th priority	1.5	0.501
Ability to supervise/lead	10th priority	1.5	0.503

Source: Data Analysis

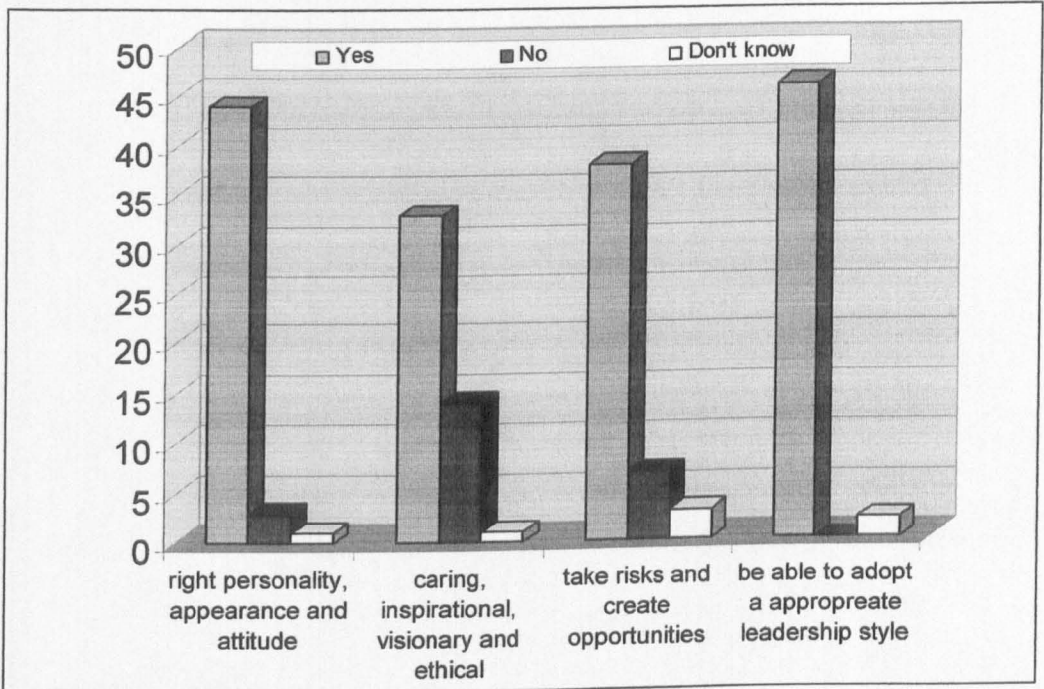
also noted that managers felt that they ought to be able to perform tasks with little or no supervision at all. When they were asked whether this is their expectation from their subordinates, or whether it is that they feel that they are constantly being supervised, most expressed the former rather than the latter.

In this research the characteristics of an effective leader/manager have been cross checked with another question. The senior managers were asked to answer the question which considered the following different leadership attributes:

- Have the right personality, appearance and attitude
- Be caring, inspirational, visionary and ethical
- Take risks and create opportunities
- Be able to adopt a leadership style suitable for dealing with a hostile and ever changing environment and;

- Motivate knowledge workers and develop learning organization

Figure 6.5: The respondents' opinions concerning effective leadership attributes



Source: Data Analysis

As is illustrated in Figure 6.5, the majority of the respondents agreed with the propositions about effective leadership characteristics.

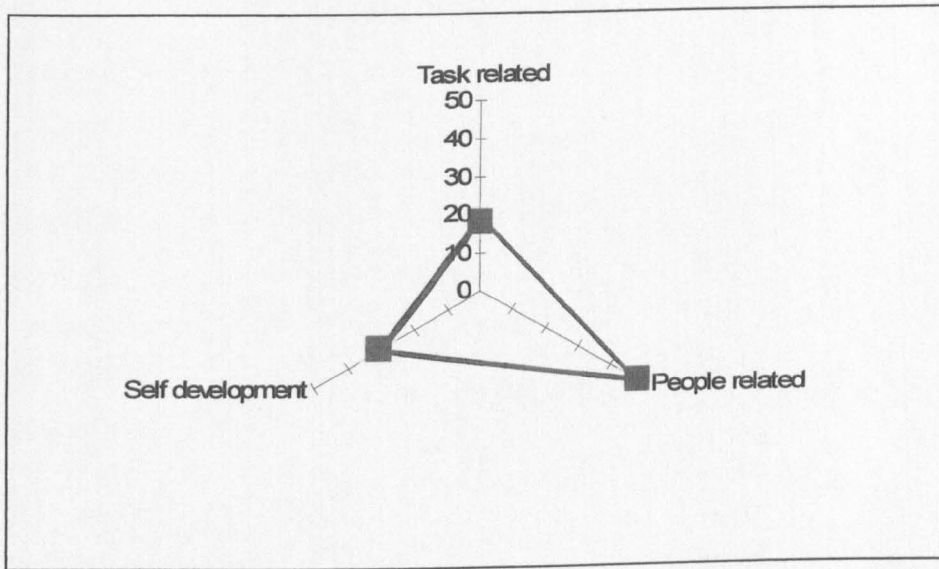
6.5. Managerial skills

In section two of the survey questionnaire one essential question was asked so as to explore the views and perceptions of senior managers concerning the importance of a set of three managerial skills categories namely task related skills, people related skills, and self and career development skills which have been identified in the literature as being the most salient behavioral skills required for managerial effectiveness.

6.5.1. Categories of managerial skills

The objective was to ascertain how the senior managers in each managerial level of the hierarchy perceived the importance of different managerial skills for their effectiveness. For this purpose, senior managers were asked to identify the managerial skills they considered to be essential for ensuring their effectiveness.

Figure 6.6 Categories of managerial skills required by senior managers



Source: Data Analysis

To analyze the perceptions of senior managers, the mean value of the ranked scores was used. Subsequently, to rank the importance of each of the predetermined categories of skills, the average mean scores of the skills within each category were calculated and used for the comparative analysis. The general picture of the respondents' perceptions of managerial skills can be seen in Figure 6.6.

Table 6.6 represents the rated importance of the managerial skills categories ranked by the mean value of each specific category. These results establish a hierarchical list of managerial skills required for the effectiveness of senior managers as a whole and they are in line with Analoui's (1999) findings that senior managers tend to view people and self related categories as the most important for their effectiveness. The senior managers were asked to suggest some managerial skills, in order of

priority to them, which in their view are essential for ensuring their increase of effectiveness. Analysis of questionnaires show that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities which were reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important ones are associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones.

The responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in other developed and developing countries. Senior managers become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because awareness has been gained that one cannot be effective unless he or she can work with or through people, namely colleagues, peers and subordinates. One of the main themes of this research is based on the assumption that the overall increased effectiveness of senior managers depends more on their ability to manage people effectively. As mentioned earlier the category of people-related skills has emerged as the most important set of managerial skills which is required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers.

The results shown in Table 6.6 once again support the main hypotheses of the research. It is interesting therefore, to see that human skills are perceived as a more important factor than functional skills. Analysis of the data indicates that self-efficacy is more important to a senior manager's performance and increased effectiveness compared with human skills and functional skills.

6.5.2. Managerial skills and professional qualifications

Further analysis (Table 6.7) revealed that there is a clear indication that a relevant educational background, and management training and experience are perceived as less important factors than those of the behavioral skills. Nevertheless, this result indicates that a relevant educational background and management training and experience are considered as highly influential factors in the performance and increased effectiveness of senior managers. It was also revealed in the course of the

Table 6.6 Perceived importance of Managerial Skills

Description of skills	Mean	St. Deviation
Managing people Managing change Effective communication Creating organizational climate Effective time management Effective motivation of people Team working and participation Managing conflict Delegation and resource allocation	1.04	0.202
Analytical and career development Improving one's overall effectiveness Managing stress at work Problem solving Work planning Managing one's career development Developing one's own potential	1.38	0.489
Managing tasks Decision making Strategic planning Organizational analysis Information Technology Maintaining effective interaction system Financial planning Controlling Managing financial aspects of work	1.29	0.459

Source: Data Analysis

interviews that senior managers have high regard for managerial experience and its importance in terms of increasing their effectiveness at work.

Table 6.7 Cross tabulation between managerial skills, and professional and management qualifications

Variables		Professional and management qualification	
		Yes	No
Managerial Skills			
Managing people (e.g. leadership, motivation, and communication)	Yes	14	32
	No	2	0
Analytical and career development skills (e.g. decision making, problem solving, career planning)	Yes	10	20
	No	6	12
Managing tasks (e.g. finance, IT, information, strategic planning)	Yes	11	32
	No	5	9

Source: Data Analysis

6.6. Organizational criteria

In the second section of the questionnaire a question has been designed to identify the organizational factor affecting managerial effectiveness in the Muscat Municipality. Managers were asked what the criteria for effectiveness in their organizations are. To analyze senior managers' responses, the researcher adopted Analoui's model (1999), which identified 10 organizational criteria for increased effectiveness in organizations. He reported that from a list of 38 criteria used to determine effectiveness, the eleven most widely used criteria throughout the public sector, ranged from 'meeting targets', the most important, to 'increased productivity' the last in the list of priorities. Meeting targets usually referred to what was expected from the employees.

The organizational criteria identified in Analoui's research are as follows:

- Meeting targets
- Publications
- Self-discipline
- Good achievement
- Self-motivation
- Planning abilities
- Time management
- Good and punctual report writing
- Well-motivated staff
- Training
- Increased productivity

Table 6.8: Organizational factors influencing managerial effectiveness

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Increased productivity	48	1.56	.501	.251	-.260	.343
Being competitive	48	1.56	.501	.251	-.260	.343
Self-motivation	48	1.50	.505	.255	.000	.343
Time management	48	1.50	.505	.255	.000	.343
Meeting targets	48	1.48	.505	.255	.088	.343
Compliance with rules and regulations	48	1.46	.504	.254	.173	.343
Planning abilities	48	1.40	.494	.244	.440	.343
Valid N (listwise)	48					

Source: Data Analysis

As expected, in this research a list of factors was produced which was not exactly the same as those from Analoui's 1999 research output. Evidently, this is because of the inherent differences in organizational specifications deriving from the nature of the work in Oman's public sector, its history, size and the like which tended to support the basis for a particular way of working and standard with which effectiveness was measured. Table 6.8 illustrates the list of organizational factors influencing managerial performance and effectiveness identified in this research.

In the Muscat Municipality most senior managers expressed the opinion that the most important top three factors were increased productivity (Mean = 1.56, St.D =

0.501), being competitive (Mean = 1.56, St.D = 0.501), and being self motivated (Mean = 1.50, St.D = 0.505). They all indicated that what was important to their effectiveness was that their staff was achieving targets. However, it became clear that targets were often 'set' for the subordinates with little degree of involvement in the setting of those targets on the part of the employees concerned. Criteria such as time management appeared to be the fourth (Mean = 1.50, St.D = 0.505) most important factor for determining effectiveness from an organization's point of view. Meeting targets has been considered to be the fifth (Mean = 1.48, St.D = 0.505) most important factor determining manager's effectiveness in the firm studied. The reason for this is largely due to the involvement of senior managers in the large number of projects implemented in the Muscat Municipality. Senior managers, because of the nature of their job, were expected to be able to manage time and achieve their targets in an effective manner. Other criteria such as compliance with rules and regulations (Mean = 1.46, St.D = 0.504), and planning abilities (Mean = 1.40, St.D = 0.494) were seen as important criteria and were indicative of the expectations from top managers of their subordinates.

Table 6.9: Association between the top seven organizational criteria

	Test Value = 0						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
					Lower	Upper	
Being competitive	21.593	47	.000	1.56	1.42	1.71	
Increased productivity	21.593	47	.000	1.56	1.42	1.71	
Planning abilities	19.568	47	.000	1.40	1.25	1.54	
Time management	20.567	47	.000	1.50	1.35	1.65	
Compliance with rules and regulations	20.065	47	.000	1.46	1.31	1.60	
Meeting targets	20.299	47	.000	1.48	1.33	1.63	
Self-motivation	20.567	47	.000	1.50	1.35	1.65	

Source: Data Analysis

As has been already mentioned the top organizational criteria has been identified from a long list of factors. There is a significant association between these seven variables as illustrated in Table 6.9.

Regardless of the difficulties, demands and constraints with which managers were faced, the organization expectation was an ability to 'get on with it' and 'get the job

done'. These were expectations very similar to the characteristic used by the managers to describe an effective manager. It could be argued that all managers were aware of what was expected from them and that their views and opinions concerning managerial effectiveness has been partly, or even to a large extent in some cases, formed by the dominant value system of the organization. As far as the top management is concerned, as shown in the literature, there is a tendency on the part of the senior managers and executives (top team) to identify with the core values of the organization and what was observed in the Muscat Municipality confirmed the stated belief.

6.7 Motivation at work

It has been discussed that people are the most valuable asset of an organization as the success and sustainability of a company is highly dependant on its employees. Without question, each and every employee needs some form of motivation regardless of the size and nature of the organization that they are working for. Therefore, in order to be more effective and efficient in today's public sector environment, the managers must have the ability to motivate their employees. As discussed earlier in the literature review chapter, Rabey (2003) defined motivation as 'the mainspring of behavior, it explains why individuals choose to expend a degree of efforts towards achieving particular goals'. Motivation can be defined as 'the set of processes that arouse, direct and maintain human behavior toward attaining some goal' (Manolopoulos, 2008). It can be further summarized as the driving forces within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goal in order to fulfill some need or expectation. To fully understand motivational processes in its true sense, and the importance of motivation in an organization, one must understand the two fundamental theories of motivation, namely content and process theories.

The purpose of motivating employees will vary from organization to organization. However, one fundamental factor will remain, that regardless of the problem, managers always want a positive resolution. Analoui (1999) contends that in order to understand effectiveness attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, in particular the motive behind the actions undertaken by managers.

In this research the respondents were asked to answer the question “what motivates you towards your managerial leadership effectiveness?” The analysis of the quantitative data (see Table 6.10) revealed, not surprisingly, that the motivators were those factors which were not already present at work. Motivators, such as ‘recognition from superiors’, ‘job satisfaction’ and ‘training and self-development’ will be reported to be the main motivating factors towards effectiveness. Thus, these and other remaining factors such as ‘promotion’ and ‘good teamwork’ seem to be symptomatic of the following issues.

Table 6.10: Priority of motivational factors

Motivational factors	Priority
Remuneration	1st
Recognition from superiors	2nd
Job satisfaction	3rd
Training/self-development	4th
Provision of resources	5th
Promotion	6th
Good teamwork	7th
Contribution to development of institute	8th
Reward for good/hard work	9th
Achieving set goals	10th

Source: Data Analysis

It was interesting to note that what was expressed as the motivators were indeed the problem areas, and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. The fact that remuneration was seen as the most important motivator was due to the inadequate presence of ‘hygiene factors’ in the Muscat Municipality as a whole. By far remuneration, salary and economic incentives seem to constitute the root of ineffectiveness at work within the public sector as the whole. In other studies, most senior officials seemed to be concerned with their earnings and that their effectiveness is adversely affected by the low level of remuneration.

Top management showed deep dissatisfaction with the 'worsening situation'. "How can senior managers motivate their employees? We have no control over it at all." Interestingly, the employees too were aware of the limitations imposed on their superiors in terms of deciding on the reward offered to civil servants in this sector. On average, it was reported that 'compared with the private sector the monthly salaries within the public sector as a whole are generally low and a source of discontent. Some senior managers reported that 'from time to time, they had to supplement their salaries' and that there is need for a better reward system within the public sector one which related performance with pay.

6.7.1. Association between motivational factors

Further data analysis revealed that these and the other remaining factors such as 'promotion' and 'good teamwork' seem to be symptomatic of the different issues. Table 6.11 illustrates the correlation between motivational factors in the studied organization. Data analysis shows that the reward system within the public sector acts as a de-motivator and adversely affects the senior managers' effectiveness at work. Managers feel that they do not receive recognition for work well done. The managerial style adopted by the top management is responsible for this. Job satisfaction, especially among directors, seems to be the most important motivator for remaining in their posts. Achievement of targets set also added to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acted as a motivator in their work. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work found the challenge to be motivating and the main reason for their effectiveness at work. Provision of resources and teamwork were suggested to work as motivators.

It was interesting to note that what was expressed as the motivators were indeed the problem areas and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. Some economic issues such as inflation and a substantial decline in the purchasing power of the managers together with organizational structural reform adds to the worsening situation as far as the motivation for effectiveness is concerned.

Table 6.11 Correlation between motivational factors

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
I	1.00									
II	0.07	1.00								
III	0.17	0.23	1.00							
IV	0.02	0.77**	0.30*	1.00						
V	0.31**	0.15	0.48**	0.06	1.00					
VI	0.03	0.03	0.21	0.06	0.03	1.00				
VII	0.63**	0.28	0.09	0.10	0.55**	0.10	1.00			
VIII	0.14	0.05	0.17	0.10	0.02	0.31	0.03	1.00		
IX	0.02	0.16	0.05	0.27	0.31	0.00	0.02*	0.07	1.00	
X	0.28	0.28	0.09	0.19	0.01	0.38	0.07	0.29 *	0.02	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

- I. Managerial position of the respondents
- II. Achieving set goals/targets
- III. Good teamwork
- IV. Promotion
- V. Remuneration
- VI. Training/self-development
- VII. Achievement
- VIII. Job satisfaction
- IX. Recognition from superiors
- X. Reward for hard work

Source: Data Analysis

6.7.2 What motivates senior managers?

This study set out to examine what important forces are behind the senior managers' attitudes to work and more particularly what factors determine senior managers' motivation in maintaining quality performance in their jobs. Thus, section five of the survey questionnaire was designed to obtain relevant data for this purpose. The respondents were asked to rate the importance of 18 factors which they considered to be a motive or need in relation to maintaining their quality performance in the job. The identified factors have been drawn primarily from those clusters already described in the content theories of motivation (Hertzberg, et al, 1959; Hertzberg, 1966).

Table 6.12 Motivational Factors Influencing Senior Managers' Performance

Rank Order	Motivational factors	Mean	St.D
1st	Well respected and high status job	4.82	0.71
2nd	Recognition of good work	4.78	0.77
3rd	Opportunity for advancement	4.62	0.82
4th	Understanding superior	4.10	0.64
5th	Pleasant work relationships	4.01	1.04
6th	Job with a valuable purpose	3.98	1.55
7th	Authority to make decisions	3.90	0.48
8th	Job autonomy and freedom	3.89	0.79
9th	Vast amount of responsibilities	3.81	0.92
10th	Participation in policy making	3.60	0.98
11th	Good working condition	3.58	0.77
12th	Good salary	3.50	0.82
13th	Job security	3.48	0.92
14th	Opportunity for development	3.44	0.87
15th	Participation in MD programs	3.35	0.91
16th	Well rewarded job	3.32	0.67
17th	Fair appraisal system	3.11	0.81
18th	Variation of the tasks in the job	2.90	0.64

Source: Data Analysis

Table 6.12 illustrates the details of descriptive statistics on motivational factors influencing senior managers' performance at work in the Muscat Municipality. All the identified motivating factors were perceived to have more than average importance in motivating senior managers to maintaining quality performance in their jobs. The analysis of the results show that the 'Well respected and high status job' (Mean=4.82, St. Deviation= 0.71) was considered the most important and 'variation of the tasks in the job' (Mean=2.90, St. Deviation= 0.64) was viewed as the least important factor by senior managers in motivating them to keep up the good work.

The analysis of the results also indicates that for senior managers as a whole, 'the recognition of good work' (Mean=4.78, St. Deviation= 0.77), 'opportunity for development' (Mean=4.62, St. Deviation= 0.82); 'an understanding superior' (Mean=4.10, St. Deviation= 0.64) and 'pleasant work relationship' (Mean=4.10, St. Deviation= 1.04), which are indeed all job related motives, have considerable importance in their motivation to work. These results correspond with the analysis of the senior managers perceptions of managerial work. Because the job is viewed as important to senior managers, the skills and knowledge; and task and people related aspects of their work, were perceived as enabling them to become more effective.

Two essential factors can be considered as the most influential factors in motivating senior managers at work. The result of this study indicates that the senior managers in the studied organization are best motivated to work effectively when they have an understanding superior who possesses the right style of leadership and holds a high regard for their good work. Various factors such as a job with a valuable purpose (Mean=3.98, St. Deviation= 1.55) 'job security' (Mean=3.48, St. Deviation= 0.92), 'job autonomy' (Mean= 3.89, St. Deviation= 0.79) and 'participation in policy making' (Mean=3.60, St. Deviation= 0.98) are highly influential and seem to be of high importance in a senior manager's motivation. The financial rewards in terms of salary and fringe benefits are ranked as less important than other hygiene factors such as fair appraisal system, but tend to be more important than the variation of the tasks in the job.

When this result is compared with the result obtained concerning management development obstacles, it was very interesting to see that the hygiene factors are ranked as the most severe obstacle to the development of senior managers in the Muscat Municipality. Participation in policy making is perceived to be the 10th existing severe obstacle to the development of senior managers. This situation seemingly indicated that although the above factors are viewed as very important factors by senior managers, they expected their organization to provide them with more opportunities. Furthermore, this result can be taken as evidence to indicate that some degree of dissatisfaction with respect to the above policies, within the public sector as the whole, exists amongst senior managers.

6.8 The degree of demands and constraints

It is difficult if not impossible to deal with the issue of effectiveness at work without considering the 'constraints and demands' with which managers are faced. Realistically, managers are not free floating agents, allowed to do what they desire. In almost all organizations, there are inhibiting forces which slow down the progress and need to be managed, removed or negotiated. In line with an open system approach towards understanding managers, their works and effectiveness, the managers are asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work. In this respect, the data analysis led to the provision of a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse impact on the effectiveness of the managers, though managers in each organization naturally experienced different sets of difficulties. These difficulties are: inappropriate training, lack of communication, lack of relevant task skills and competencies, lack of appropriate resources, shortage of appropriate staff and ineffective leadership of the organization, lack of relevant people skills, lack of motivation, lack of teamwork and finally, unrealistic targets.

Table 6.13 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the major constraints and demands as perceived by senior managers in the studied organization.

Table 6.13: Descriptive data analysis of the major constraints and demands

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Lack of communication	48	1.69	.468	.219	-.835	.343
Shortage of appropriate staff	48	1.60	.494	.244	-.440	.343
Unrealistic targets	48	1.60	.494	.244	-.440	.343
Lack of motivation	48	1.56	.501	.251	-.260	.343
Ineffective leadership of the organization	48	1.50	.505	.255	.000	.343
Lack of teamwork	48	1.48	.505	.255	.086	.343
Lack of resources	48	1.48	.505	.255	.086	.343
Inappropriate training	48	1.46	.504	.254	.173	.343
Lack of relevant people skills	48	1.46	.504	.254	.173	.343
Lack of relevant task skills and competences	48	1.46	.504	.254	.173	.343
Valid N (listwise)	48					

Source: Data Analysis

As shown in Table 6.13 a cluster of factors tended to be shared among the respondents. The most important demands and constraints were 'lack of communication' (Mean = 1.69, St. Deviation = 0.468). It may seem unrelated but a lack of communication in some ways has been the cause of the presence of these constraints. Top management often is not aware of the extent of information available in the organization as a whole. Such inadequacies and shortcomings seem to lead to high expectations on the part of the senior management and unreasonable targets (Mean = 1.60, St. Deviation = 0.494). At the individual level, the flow of information is extremely slow. In most cases the secrecy and use of information as a source of power is an indication of classical management philosophy at work which leads to frustration and the wastage of valuable time. Senior managers also felt that inappropriate human resources made their work and life difficult. The issue of 'shortage of appropriate staff' (Mean = 1.60, St. Deviation = 0.494) in the list (ranked 2nd) is clearly related to the issue of inappropriate non financial resources. In the studied organization, according to the top management team, the inadequacy of the human resources and the inappropriate 'staff' seem to contribute to the apparent ineffectiveness. In other managerial levels, especially the more operational levels, the absence of trained staff, especially in the field of management, is noticeable. Therefore, the general lack of resources in addition to inappropriate

resources created a 'headache' for both middle and senior management. While the 'lack of or inappropriate training' (Mean = 1.46, St. Deviation = 0.504) was regarded as relatively less acute, it is easy to see the relevance of this important factor, or indeed the lack of it, for the increased effectiveness of the managers in the organization. All these and other difficulties have been contributed to by a 'lack of funding'. This, however, is not unique to the Muscat Municipality in Oman. Throughout the developing world, a lack of funds is being blamed for the lack of effectiveness which is being observed. It is almost expected that managers in almost all organizations should report a 'lack of motivation' (Mean = 1.56, St. Deviation = 0.501) as another major culprit.

While the lack of motivation clearly posed questions related to 'maintenance' factors, in particular 'salary and reward', it is also related to the effectiveness of other organizational and managerial matters. In a sense, a 'lack of teamwork' (Mean = 1.48, St. Deviation = 0.505) mentioned by almost all senior managers, is an indicator that 'more could be done to improve the way things are done'. As one senior manager aptly put it, "there are other issues besides money which count as incentives...a word of thanks acknowledgement makes all the difference, we all agree that some senior managers should learn from H.E. (smiling), this is true, (emphasizing on the last point), ... some of us feel that some senior managers are not aware how important their recognition and concern is. Putting your position aside (referring to the organizational position of the researcher) some superiors could take a leaf from your book, God willing" The managerial attitudes and approaches seem to see functions such as organizing and coordinating as a matter of distribution and not as the 'delegation' of tasks among staff. However, it needs to be said that the presence of motivators such as 'responsibility', 'leadership' (Mean = 1.50, St. Deviation = 0.505) and the like can not replace the basic hygiene factors such as adequate remuneration. The above, however, becomes meaningless unless they are seen within the context of the deteriorating state of the economy, raging inflation and an uncontrolled pricing policy.

Finally, it is not surprising to see lack of competencies (Mean = 1.46, St. Deviation = 0.505) as the least important constraint with which managers are faced. Earlier it was explained that the present 'training system' in the public sector, whether in Asia

or Eastern Europe is commonly perceived as problematic. The constraints and demands, whether those identified and briefly introduced or those which will be never mentioned, such clusters of demands on an individual, organizational and a wide social level, leave the managers with very little chance to determine their own level of effectiveness.

6.9. Presence of 'choices' and 'opportunities' for effectiveness

As discussed in the literature review, Analoui (1999) suggests that the choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. In this research the respondents were asked to list the choices which they believed would improve their effectiveness. The data analysis revealed that a total of 20 factors related to the choices available have been identified, from which the nine most important ones are listed in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Descriptive statistics of choices

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Training & development	48	1	2	1.33	.476
Achievable targets	48	1	2	1.35	.483
Appropriate motivation	48	1	2	1.38	.489
Career succession plan	48	1	2	1.40	.494
Teamwork	48	1	2	1.42	.498
Necessary resources	48	1	2	1.46	.504
Appropriate staff	48	1	2	1.48	.505
Effective communication	48	1	2	1.50	.505
Being able to set my own targets	48	1	2	1.54	.504
Valid N (listwise)	48				

Source: Data Analysis

The responses of the senior managers point to solutions and ways of dealing with the present situation in order to become more effective. As one explained, "this is not the ultimate solution by any means but what we can do in these circumstances is limited to training and improving the working condition as much as possible".

The vast majority of the respondents considered training to be one of the most important factors for increased effectiveness (Mean = 1.33, St. Deviation = 0.476). They generally believed that training would increase their effectiveness. It was interesting to see that most senior managers showed very little confidence in the effectiveness of the training which is provided locally, in the Muscat Municipality. It was widely believed that the course (content and structure) and the trainers were not able to meet the needs and demands of the senior managers. The consensus was that courses organized with foreign consultants seem to be more 'modern' and 'useful'. As for the rest, "Well, they can be a waste of time, certainly for senior staff". Most senior managers welcomed the opportunity to take visits abroad. However, it was mentioned that "maintaining a healthy balance between workload and visits can be difficult". Most senior managers are fully occupied with work related responsibilities. More effort is needed to provide them with further opportunities for advance learning and development.

There were some other major factors which were regarded as opportunities for improving effectiveness. These included achievable targets (Mean = 1.35, St. Deviation = 0.483), appropriate motivation (Mean = 1.38, St. Deviation = 0.489), succession planning (Mean = 1.40, St. Deviation = 0.494), team working (Mean = 1.42, St. Deviation = 0.498), necessary resources (Mean = 1.46, St. Deviation = 0.504), appropriate staff , (Mean = 1.48, St. Deviation = 0.505), effective communication (Mean = 1.50, St. Deviation = 0.505), and being able to set their own targets (Mean = 1.64, St. Deviation = 0.504).

It was clear that the presence of 'power and role-culture' and lack of motivation 'has forced' some managers to adopt an individual stand in terms of exploring choices available to improve their own managerial effectiveness. This is not unusual amongst senior managers. It has been reported that when senior managers are faced with lack of opportunities they tend to use their creativity to 'create one'. Having said that the impression given was that there is a sense of pride in what is being done and achieved that as they put it this 'supersedes' the needs for opportunities in the Muscat Municipality.

6.10 Nature of inter-organizational relationships

The respondents were asked to answer the question about the inter-organizational relationships. Table 6.15 illustrates the results of the descriptive data analysis. Implicit and explicit remarks were frequently made where the overall subject of managerial effectiveness was being discussed. All respondents saw their effectiveness as being affected, if not determined, by the overall effectiveness of the organization (Mean = 1.56, St. Deviation = 0.741). They also believed that their effectiveness is influenced by the degree of intra-connection with other departments within the Muscat Municipality (Mean = 1.29, St. Deviation = 0.544). It was evident that the respondents were aware that there is a two-way relationship between their effectiveness and the organization that was determined partly by their organization's relationship with other organizations both locally and nationally (Mean = 1.55, St. Deviation = 0.688).

Table 6.15: Descriptive statistics of inter-organizational relationships

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Do you believe that your effectiveness is influenced by the overall effectiveness of your organization?	48	1	3	1.56	.741
Is your effectiveness influenced by the degree of intra-connection with other departments in your organization?	48	1	3	1.29	.544
Is your effectiveness influenced by the company's degree of connection with other organizations nationally and internationally?	48	1	3	1.48	.684
Do you believe that your effectiveness is influenced by your relationship with others outside your organization?	48	1	3	1.65	.668
Valid N (listwise)	48				

Source: Data Analysis

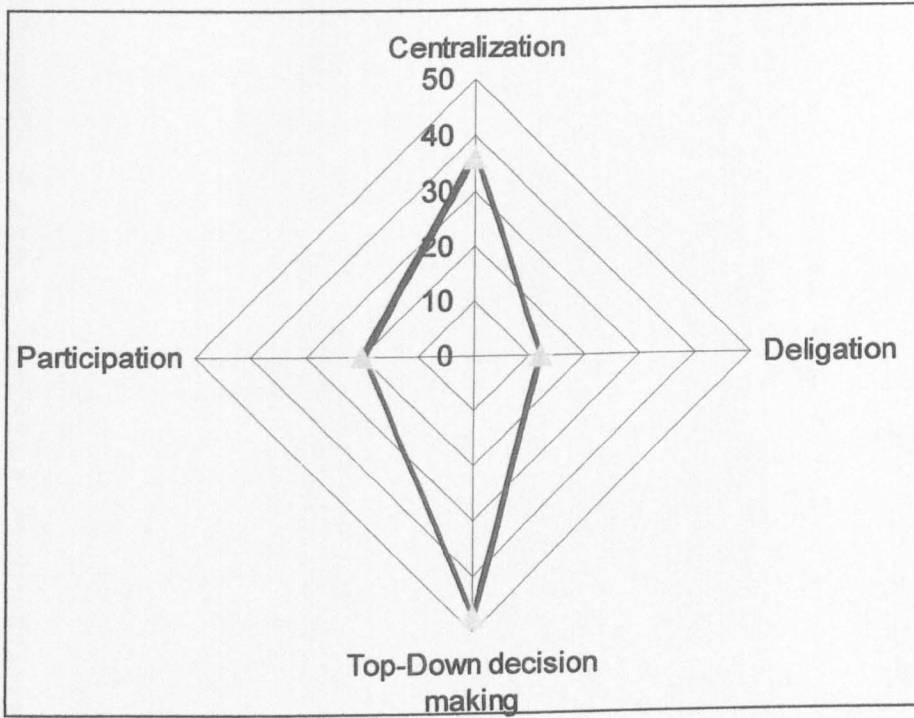
It was generally believed that for a variety of reasons, the Muscat Municipality tends to influence the potential for effectiveness of the other organizations in the public sector in Oman. To sum up, the respondents believed that in the Muscat Municipality, senior managers' effectiveness is influenced by the organization's degree of connection with other organizations nationally and internationally (Mean = 1.48, St. Deviation = 0.684). But this relationship was not very statistically significant.

6.11. Dominant managerial philosophy

One focus in this research was to consider a range of options in an introductory program in philosophy that could be useful for people engaged in the practice of management. Trust among participants in business transactions is important, but so are other qualities such as justice and honesty, and being recognized for one's integrity. It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organization does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed, and generally it influences the flow of information, and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organization. The leadership of the organization provides the standard for the patterns of behavior and therefore has proven to be a decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the organization. The data, whether in qualitative or quantitative form, have been tainted by the presence of this influence of the managerial philosophy and style of the top management of the organization and its related departments.

In all departments there seems to be a tendency on the part of management for centralization, top-down management, overemphasis on control and managerial decision making (see Figure 6.7). In most cases it was observed that top management did not delegate enough and therefore in their absence major decisions could not be made, there were some exceptions to this general rule among the top management team.

Figure 6.7: Respondents' of managerial philosophy in the organization studied



Source: Data Analysis

The degree to which the top management and senior managers adhered to traditional management, or to correct administration principles varied from one department to another. However, apart from a few top senior managers who did feel that there is a need for change of attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training and the adoption of the participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work given the need for 'crisis management and firefighting'. As mentioned by most participants "You are aware of it yourself, when a cyclone hits the shore priorities change, Thank God (said in Arabic) we managed it".

6.12 Effects of contextual factors

As stated earlier, effective performance is not only the function of one parameter for example, motivation or managerial skills but also a function of the individual's

abilities and organizational as well as environmental factors. This point has been explored in the review of the related literature. It may be important to reiterate here, as Analoui (1999) aptly argues, the overall assessments of the influence of the identified parameters have to be considered in individual, organizational, and environmental contexts (see Table 6.16).

Table 6.16: Influence of contextual factors on managerial effectiveness

Description of skills	Mean	St.Deviation
Organizational circumstances	4.35	0.601
Organizational structure		
Organizational culture		
Management style		
IT		
System effectiveness		
Departmental interdependence		
Availability of resources		
High degree of involvement		
Participation management		
Personal circumstances	3.50	0.596
Managerial skills		
Competencies		
Education		
Age		
Gender		
Family		
Personal intention to growth		
Environmental (PESTEL) factors	2.29	0.761
Political factors		
Economic factors		
Scio-cultural factors		
Technological factors		
Ecological factors		
Legal factors		

Source: Data Analysis

In this regard the respondents were asked to rate the influence of individual, organizational and environmental factors on their overall effectiveness. As can be seen in Table 6.16, the respondents believed that organizational circumstance (Mean = 4.35, St. Deviation = 0.601) were the most influential factors affecting their effectiveness. Whilst the personal circumstances (Mean = 3.50, St. Deviation = 0.596) and consequently the macro-environmental factors (Mean = 2.29, St. Deviation = 0.761) have influenced their effectiveness at work.

6.12.1. Personal attributes

To explore what personal attributes and qualities are considered as influential in terms of senior manager's effectiveness, the respondents were asked, to name three of the contributing factors in order of importance to them. As shown in Table 6.17 apart from those factors already identified, senior managers' effectiveness is also influenced by a number of personal attributes and qualities. These include their personal qualities, attitudes, beliefs and values.

Table 6.17: Personal attributes influencing senior managers' effectiveness

Personal attributes	Score
Decision making skill	48
Motivation	47
Education	45
Hard work	42
Positive attitude towards people	40
Confidence in own capabilities	38
Good relationship	35
Team work and participation	34
Analytical skills	30

Source: Data Analysis

This result is complementary to the previous findings of the research which suggested that senior manager's feeling of responsibility toward their work and

organization was an inflectional motivating factor for their effectiveness. Interestingly, it is found that the managerial job is seen as a challenge for senior managers, thus many work related factors are considered very important for their effectiveness. Overall, taking together all these influences, it is clear that personal drive, determination and commitment, as well as, practical experience and hard work are seen as major factors for senior managers' effectiveness. However, interpersonal skills such as communication and the ability to understand and work with people in order to build a workable relationship based on mutual trust and respect still remain major factors for the effectiveness of senior managers.

6.12.2. Organizational factors

In close relation to the above question, the respondents were asked to name in order of priority to them three organizational factors that enhance their effective performance at work. Many organizational variables are reported which can influence a senior managers' degree of motivation and job satisfaction which ultimately may result in good performance. As shown in Table 6.18 a combination of organizational factors seems to account for senior managers' effectiveness.

Table 6.18: Organizational factors influencing senior managers' effectiveness

Organizational factors	Score
Informal relationships	48
Flexibility in decision making processes	48
Flat organizational structure	47
High degree of involvement in strategic decisions	45
MBO	36
Team work and participative environment	34
Friendly working environment	30
Efficient administrative issues	27
Effective implemented IT systems	25

Source: Data Analysis

Again the above results complement the previous findings of the research, where it was found that senior managers' perceptions about their superior and the quality of their work relationship were the most influential factors in their motivation. What these findings may seem to prove is that the quality of leadership and the level of competence of the top management team greatly influences the performance level of their immediate subordinate managers.

6.12.3. Environmental factors

In addition to personal and organizational variables, senior managers' effective performance is also influenced by existing factors in the environment. To explore these factors, senior managers were asked to indicate the environmental factors which have affected their performance in their job. As shown in Table 6.19 combinations of PESTEL (political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, environmental, and legal) factors are identified and prioritized by the senior managers.

Table 6.19: Environment Factors Affecting Performance

Various environmental factors	Priority
Political factors Good relationship with the other organizations Good reputation of the Muscat Municipality Taxation policy Social welfare policies Policy stability	1st
Economic factors GNP trends Interest rates Inflation Unemployment Labor market	2nd
Legal factors	3rd

Employment law Health and safety issues Rules and regulations Other legal factors	
Socio-cultural factors Population demographics Income distribution Lifestyle changes Level of education Culture	4th
Green environmental issues Environmental protection laws Energy consumption Waste disposal	5th
Technological factors Government spending on research New technology developments Speed of technology transfer Implications of IT	6th

Source: Data Analysis

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

Other factors, such as legal factors (ranked 3rd), socio-cultural factors (ranked 4th), green environmental issues (ranked 5th) and finally technological factors (ranked 6th) affected senior managers' effectiveness.

6.13. Leadership style

From the leadership literature there is an emerging consensus that there is no single prescription for effective performance. The relationship between the approach of leaders (or their leadership style) and the context in which they operate is seen to be important. This is by no means a new thought and is rooted in contingency theory or situational theory (Karami and Analoui, 2003). However, more recently the contextualization implied by the transformational school has moved from a largely internal leader-follower focus to a broader and often external one. In particular, there is an increasing focus on the efficacy of different leadership behaviors in differing contexts of change. In this research the respondents were asked to describe their own managerial leadership style. Six groups of factors have been categorized into a set of six propositions as follows:

- I demand compliance from employees and drive to achieve with self-control
- I believe in mobilizing people. I have self-confidence and am a change catalyst
- I believe in creating harmony. I have empathy and communicate well
- I believe in forging consensus, collaboration and team building
- I set high standards, initiate drive to achieve objectives
- I believe in developing people. I am self-aware and have empathy

Then the respondents were asked to express their perceptions of their leadership styles by rating the importance of each of those propositions using Likert scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The result of data analysis is shown in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20: Components of effective leadership

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
I believe in creating harmony. I have empathy and communicate well	48	2	5	4.13	.789	-.500	.343
I believe in developing people. I am self-aware and have empathy	48	2	5	4.12	.815	-.484	.343
I believe in forging consensus, collaboration and team building	48	1	5	4.06	1.040	-1.196	.343
I set high standards, initiate drive to achieve objectives	48	2	5	4.02	.934	-.697	.343
I believe in mobilising people. I have self-confidence and am a change catalyst	48	1	6	3.71	1.031	-.348	.343
I demand compliance from employees and drive to achieve with self-control	48	1	5	3.38	.640	-.524	.343
Valid N (listwise)	48						

Source: Data Analysis

The main objective of this section was to identify the leadership style of the respondents. As the literature review revealed, whilst a diverse range of behaviors is described within the literature, some researchers (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005) grouped leadership behavior into three broad categories.

Goal-oriented: A set of behaviors in which the leader sets direction and behaves in a way in which he/she plays a significant role in directing others to achieve the key goals required to attain the performance required. This is not to suggest an authoritarian approach but rather behaviors which are strongly leader-centric.

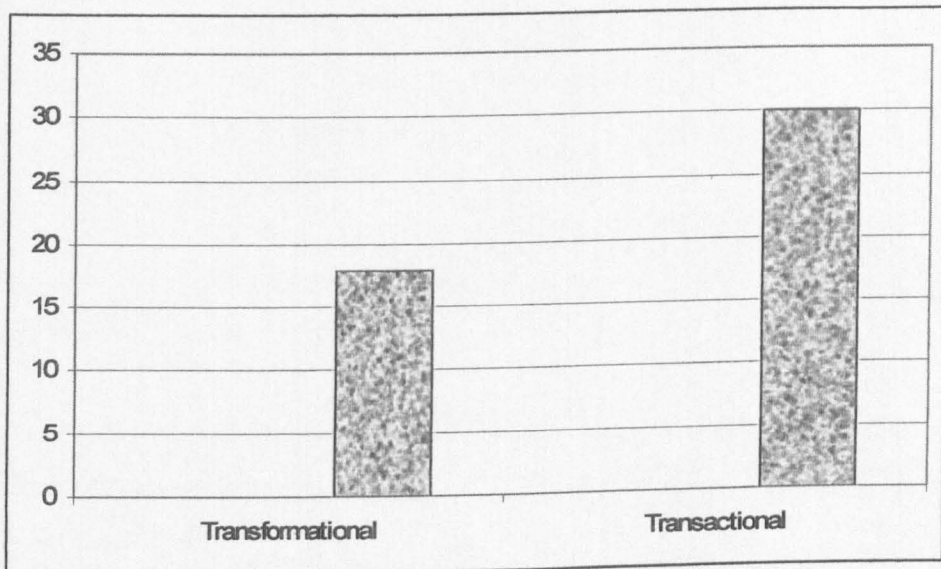
Involving: A somewhat less leader-centric set of behaviors. In this category the leaders' focus remains on providing a strong sense of direction. However, there is a more significant focus on involving others in both setting direction and, to a larger extent, in determining how goals will be achieved.

Engaging: Leader behaviors in this category are focused on facilitating others in achieving both the nature of the direction and the means of achieving the necessary

goals. The leader is more concerned with developing the capability of others to achieve than with the close direction of the enterprise.

However, turning to context and in particular the context of change, Bass (2006) identified two leadership styles namely 'Transformational' and 'Transactional' leadership. In this research the leadership style of the respondents were categorized to transformational and transactional style. Figure 6.8 shows the result of data analysis on leadership style.

Figure 6.8: Leadership styles of the respondents (Senior Management)



Source: Data Analysis

The respondents were also asked to express their opinions about how effective senior managers responded to the situations. The majority of the respondents believed that an effective leaders' responsiveness to situations and crises is high. The way in which they approach their work statistically is low and their planning and proactively measured response to situations is moderate. Transformational leaders develop their subordinates to create their own successors. The way they relate to people and empower them to give their best to programs and projects is very high. Transformational leaders do not strictly use rules and procedures to ensure people fulfill their contractual obligations. In contrast transactional leaders

do not enable their people to manage their own work. They do not see their people as a part of an effective team, but as part of a group.

6.14 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter the primary data regarding managerial and leadership effectiveness in Oman's public sector is analyzed. Managerial effectiveness is a complex multi-facet organizational phenomenon. The required abilities and competencies alone can not sufficiently explain the nature of managerial effectiveness. As shown here, there is also a need for consideration of other parameters such as individual and organizational criteria, the motivation and the constraints and demands which determine the choices of behaviors and degree of effectiveness in a particular context. It is evident that there is a need and necessity as well as scope and potential, for carrying out studies of this nature within the public sector in Oman. In developing countries where the public sector is held almost solely responsible for the realization of development and progress, it is vital that the management of these organizations, especially the effectiveness of its senior members, is made the focus of any serious analysis or intervention.

The most pertinent conclusion reached relates to the presence of eight managerial effectiveness parameters and identification of the behavioral and causal influences as their constituent components. These factors point to the significance of the role of the senior managers as individuals, the organizational context and dominant managerial philosophy in operation as well as the external socio-economic, cultural and political influences. The eight parameters of effectiveness within public sector organizations also point to a mirror image of the characteristics of each dimension. That is to suggest, what forms the motivation for greater effectiveness is also indicative of what the constraints and demands are which control, inhibit or reduce the manager's effectiveness drastically. The perception of the individual managers of their own and their colleagues' effectiveness is also related to the skills and abilities attributed to the effective manager. And, most important of all, the organization's expectation of its managers is reflected in the nature of the criteria for effectiveness which is held by the organization.

Inadequate 'hygiene' factors at work, namely the low salaries and inappropriate working environment, are difficult to address simply because their solution rests outside the organization and within the sphere of the authority and power of the policy makers and public sector governing body. Changes of attitudes and values are hard to achieve since it requires much planned intervention, long-term investment and commitment on the part of the policy makers, and executives and senior managers involved.

Chapter Seven: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

Since the eighties there has been a concerted effort to reform the public sector (Wright, 2007). This has resulted in the deregulation of major markets related to public utilities, such as energy and telecommunications; private financing has been encouraged for public investment projects and substantial market elements have been introduced to the institutional context that regulates public organizations' operations (Burgess, 2003). During the past twenty five years or so organizational research has moved from an investigation of organizational static to an investigation of organizational dynamics, much of it focused on strategic leadership. Therefore, following the recommendations of the previous researches (Badaracco, 2001; Analoui, 1999, 2007; Bryman, 1996), for further investigations of senior managers' perception and ways to increase their effectiveness within the public sector, this research is a first time attempt to shed light on the senior managers' perception of their own effectiveness in the Oman public sector.

Considering the objectives of the study, this chapter provides the discussion of the findings of the research, related to its main propositions, in separate but interlinked sections. This chapter also describes the findings of the research in the context of the Eight Identified Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness (Analoui, 1999, 2007), in particular the leadership effectiveness of the senior managers of the Muscat Municipality in Oman. To achieve this objective, the main research questions have been formulated earlier and are examined here in detail against the available quantitative and qualitative data mainly generated through the survey questionnaire.

The results point to the presence of factors which constitute 'parameters of managerial effectiveness at work' (Collin, 2001). It has been found, for example, that a better understanding of the subject requires attention being paid to the senior managers' 'choices' and 'meaningful actions', within an open system context (Analoui, 1999). In this respect, attempts were made to generate data and information from senior managers' cadre from all departments in the Muscat Municipality. The findings of this research supports the findings of the other major

researches in the field of managerial effectiveness (Gummesson, 1990; Dixit and Nalebuff, 1993) in particular the pioneering works of Drucker (1974) and Analoui (1999). The analysis of the data resulted in the identification of groups of causal and behavioral influences, independent as a category but interdependent on one another. Each revealed one aspect associated with managerial effectiveness which Analoui (1999) referred to as 'parameters' of managerial effectiveness.

Identification of these parameters and the influences arising from the context in which they have occurred constitute the major aim of this research. They pointed to individual but also internal and other external contextual factors which, by and large, determined the senior managers' effectiveness. This augment of factors and/or influences have been discussed below in some detail.

7.2 The senior managers' characteristics and organizational performance

The researchers in the field of managerial effectiveness seem to vary in the extent to which they adopt an adaptive or inertial view of strategic change, as the two perspectives can be viewed as opposing poles on the same continuum (Bennett et al, 1998). Those who argue for the predominance of strategic adaptation emphasize the role that managers play in monitoring organizational and environmental changes and modifying organizational strategy to better match environmental contingencies (Barry, 1998). Past researches have typically not empirically examined organizational effectiveness as a function of the combined effects of organizational performance and managerial characteristics. More importantly, it has been argued (Analoui, 2000) that managerial characteristics interact with organizational performance to create a context through which strategic changes become particularly likely. This section discusses the findings of the analyzed data in chapter 6 on managerial characteristics of the senior managers in the public sector in Oman.

7.2.1. Senior managers and decision making

Transformational leadership, initiated by Bass (1985) has become a very popular concept in recent years. Both researchers and practitioners have gravitated towards

the theory and have employed it in a variety of organizational settings. Similarly, the concept of servant leadership, has received substantial attention in the contemporary leadership field. A cursory glimpse of transformational leadership and servant leadership leaves the perception that the concepts are rather similar. Indeed, some individuals question whether there is any real difference between the concepts. Perhaps one similarity between these concepts is senior managers' involvement in decision making.

As it was discussed in the review of the literature, in previous studies it was suggested that, when undertaking strategic decisions, the organizations should form planning groups to oversee the process. Normally the notion of forming strategic planning groups is adopted by large private companies (Collis and Montgomery, 1997; Curran, 1996; Goodwin and Hodgett, 1991). Thus, in order to solicit the senior managers' opinions, respondents were asked: who or what groups are involved in the process of making strategic decisions within the public sector as the whole and the Muscat Municipality in particular? It was ascertained that there was little evidence that public sector organizations in general and of course Muscat Municipality at present use strategic planning groups for mapping out the terrains ahead (see Figure 6.4.). In addition, there was little support given to the suggestion that consultants are being frequently used. The use of consultants for preparing strategic plans in the organization appears to be very limited. In contrast, it is interesting to observe that the involvement of the senior management group in accepting responsibility for the process is very strong. The majority of the respondents reported that, senior or top management are involved in making strategic decisions in the studied organization. There was, however, little evidence of middle management being the initiators of the strategic decision making process. It is concluded that, in the Muscat Municipality senior management are mainly involved in preparing strategic and long term plans. This finding recalls the work of Goodwin and Hodgett (1991) who conclude from an empirical research in Australia that, senior managers are those who drive the process of strategic management and if changes to current practices are to be encouraged, it is this group that should be targeted rather than middle management.

7.2.2. Managerial characteristics and effectiveness

Some researchers suggest that a high level of management quality and managerial characteristics, measured in terms of capabilities, skills, expertise, and age and education is more common among successful than unsuccessful organizations (Leonidou, et al, 1998). In this section the role of senior managers in the management processes within the public sector in Oman will be explored. Consequently, the findings of this study in terms of managerial characteristics and their relationship to the organizational performance are discussed. Some of the managerial characteristics examined are: age, educational level and background, and the strategic awareness of the managers in the Muscat Municipality.

7.2.3. Respondents' age and organizational effectiveness

Age is expected to be inversely related to risk taking and to the value placed on risk. It is suggested that younger senior managers may pursue risky strategies (Hambrick and Mason 1984). Studies by Norburn and Birley (1988) indicate that younger managers show superior performance. Younger managers are also expected to be better educated and have more current technical knowledge (Bantel and Jackson, 1989). As flexibility decreases, rigidity and resistance to change increase, and risk-taking propensity is expected to decrease with age (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992). The age of managers has been proposed as a predictor of differences between organizations in terms of their performance. As discussed in chapter 6, there was no significant correlation between the age of respondents and pursuing a strategic orientation in the Muscat Municipality. In other words, the number of departments having a strategic orientation Muscat Municipality was not statistically different among the departments being run by younger managers and those departments run by older managers. A managers' age has also been perceived as being closely associated with the manager's level of risk tolerance (Roux, 1987). In other words, younger managers are likely to accept more risk than their older colleagues. So the risk acceptance behavior of the managers could impact on developing more aggressive strategies in the studied organization.

The contention here is to ask: whether or not there is any significant relationship between the age of senior managers and pursuing risky and innovative strategies in the public sector? One study investigating the impact of this variable produced no significant results, while other studies confirmed the positive relationship between age and risk tolerance (Gomez-Mejia, 1988). Thus, younger managers were also assumed to tend towards pursuing more risky strategies than older managers. In addition, it has been found that, the departments being run by young senior managers would be more likely to pursue riskier and more innovative strategies than would departments with older managers. In this context, managers in the public sector are expected to be more innovative, creative and willing to break away from the existing norms and patterns of behavior within the organization.

It has been posited that the organizational performance is related to the age of the senior managers. It has been assumed that, the departments being run by younger managers are more successful than the departments that are run by older managers. The correlation analysis of the data shows that there was no significant correlation between the age of the managers and performance of the studied departments. Organizational performance is not associated to the age of senior manager. Using analysis of variance technique, the above hypothesis has been rejected. It is notable that, accordingly, the above hypothesis was not strongly validated by the previous empirical researches (Kakabadse, 1999). The findings of this research support the findings of the recent research into managerial age and performance (Chan and Foster, 2001; Kakabadse, 1999).

Generally speaking it is concluded that, younger senior managers do not have a more complete view of the strategic orientation in managing the organization than older senior managers. But the departments that are being run by young senior managers would be more inclined to pursue more risky strategies than departments with older managers would.

Finally, the organizational performance is not significantly related to the age of the senior managers.

7.2.4. Professional experience

The professional experiences of the managers, in terms of previous occupations, technical expertise, or product knowledge (Darroch, 2003), have been associated with organizational performance. This is particularly important when professional experiences were attained in a strategy setting, through involvement in large scale projects in the Muscat Municipality. This was based on the assumption that senior managers with managerial work experiences place more weight on formal management methods than those senior managers who lack managerial work experiences. The data analysis shows that there is a strong and significant correlation between the professional expertise of the senior managers and emphasis on formal management style in the studied organization. In other words, senior managers with professional expertise and managerial work experiences put more emphasis on formal management styles than the senior managers without such work experiences.

Regarding the work experience of the senior managers and the organization performance, it has been assumed that there is a significant association between variables. Running correlation analysis, it has been found that the managerial work experiences of the managers within the studied organization significantly impacts on organizational performance. This result is very similar to the results of previous studies. By and large, it can be concluded that senior managers with managerial work experiences place more weight on formal management style than those senior managers who lack managerial work experiences. The departments that are run by managers with long term work experiences seem to be more successful than those run by managers who have shorter, or those who lack, work experiences.

7.2.5. Educational background

Both the level of formal education and the type of education (management or non-management) provide some measure -or an indication- of an individual's knowledge and skill-base (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). In the Muscat Municipality, senior managers with higher levels of education and with management degrees are expected to generate a wider range of creative solutions when faced with complex

problems. Educational achievement has been linked to organizational performance (Norburn and Birley, 1988).

The levels of formal education attained by managers and their educational background have been suggested as factors affecting managerial effectiveness. Some scholars have hypothesized that the better educated decision makers are the more likely they are to be open-minded (Garnier, 1982). Others have claimed that higher-level education is vital for success in overseas operations, since it enhances management knowledge and capabilities (Schlegelmilch et al, 1987). This managerial factor has received particular empirical attention in the extant literature.

In this research, it has been found that, departments whose senior managers have a management educational background are more inclined to develop strategic plans than those managers who do not have such an educational background. It has also been found that a significant correlation exists between managers' educational background and the emphasis placed on organizational effectiveness in the studied departments. Where the departments are run by senior managers without a management educational background, longer strategic plans are unlikely to be initiated within those departments. It also has been found that, senior managers with a management educational background place more weight on opportunities and less weight on threats than those managers in the public sector who have not had such an educational background.

Turning to the level of education, it has been hypothesized that, there is a significant relationship between the educational level of the managers and organizational performance in the public sector. In this regard the analysis of the data shows that, there was no significant difference between the departments, in terms of performance, regardless of whether they were run by a manager who had more and less education,

One explanation would be the relation between the age and education level of the respondents. As discussed in the data analysis chapter, older managers are likely to have a less formal education, while the younger managers are likely to benefit from a more formal education. In other words, managers with less industry experience are

younger and, very likely, to be better educated. They are therefore more knowledgeable and prepared to break away from their immediate circle to find appropriate information and/or solutions. In contrast, the managers with less education level seemed to be older.

The discussion in this section could be summarized as; organizational performance in the public sector is not significantly related to the educational level of managers. However, the trend seems to be one that places more emphasis on recruitment of the highly educated senior managers.

7.3. Managerial Perception

The first parameter in Analoui's (1999) managerial effectiveness model is concerned with the managers' own perception of their effectiveness. In this research the senior managers and officials are asked to consider, "How would you describe an effective manager?" This query is aimed at exploring the perception of the senior managers of their own effectiveness and at discovering what characteristics and qualities they think an effective manager should possess. The responses provided ranged from 'ability to supervise', 'being a good leader', to being concerned with 'deadlines', 'honest', 'experienced' and 'able to deliver goods on time'. The description provided also varied according the type of department the managers belong to. Such perceptions also represent the characteristics of a manager whom they often refer to as 'ideal'. In this respect the question is; do managers say something about themselves or do they describe an ideal manager? The data collected and analyzed, indicate that on the whole, managers have in mind an image of an effective manager whom they wish to be or more importantly who they wish their superiors to be.

It is particularly interesting to discover that in situations where the managerial control is complete and which leaves little room for expression of discontent, the managers use such occasions to describe how they feel about their organizations and their immediate superiors. The more senior the managers, the easier they find it to provide a description of who and what they think an effective manager should be. However, in this study, none of the respondent ever directly criticized their superior,

but suffixed their answers with comments such as “we could do with a few of these people in this organization”.

Analysis of the data, in the Muscat Municipality as the whole, indicated that ten groups of attributes, in their order of priority, were stressed as the most important qualities as shown in Table 6.4 in chapter six. On the whole, the qualities which were described portrayed a manager who is able to both carry out the task and deal with people at work. However, most emphasis seems to have been placed on the need to understand subordinates and motivate and lead people at work. It was also noted that managers felt that they ought to be able to perform tasks with little or no supervision all. When they were specifically asked whether this is their expectation from their subordinates; or whether they felt that they were constantly being supervised, most expressed the former rather than the latter.

Despite the impression given that effective managers require qualities which are more people related, the terminology used to describe these qualities, such as planning, organizing, and the like, are indicative of the functional image of the managers as described by early management theorists (Analoui, 1999). Managerial perception in this phase (first parameter), came to the conclusion that, ‘the impression given is that it is not enough to be able to get the job done, simply because managerial positions also require the ability to work with people’. The issue that most managers were critical of the way they were being managed or the way ‘things are done’ in their organization is indicative of their frustration and dismay with the present system within the public sector in Oman. As one senior manager explained, a more reformed public sector provides more opportunities for self-management and will place less emphasis on supervision. It was clear that senior managers in Oman are aware of the need for public sector reform and its implication for them, their effectiveness and their organization as the whole.

7.4 Managerial Skills

In order to explore that second parameter of the adapted model, senior managers in the Muscat Municipality were asked to choose between ten managerial skills, in order of priority to them, that in their view are essential for ensuring their increased

effectiveness. The responses collected were weighted according to their corresponding order of priority. A total of 25 levels of skills and expertise were identified. These skills depending on the priority assigned to them by the senior participants were then categorized and summarized into ten major skill categories.

Further analysis shows that from among the numerous skills, knowledge and abilities which have been reported to be essential for increased managerial effectiveness, the most important ones are associated with the people-related and analytical categories and not the task-related ones as shown in Figure 6.6 and Table 6.6 in chapter six. Skills such as 'managing change', 'effective communication', 'delegation', 'being a good planner', 'organizing ability', and 'good human relations and leadership' are indicating that, as expected, senior managers are more in need of 'interpersonal' and 'analytical skills' rather than 'informational' and 'decisional' ones as has been described in the available literature.

There also seems to be a similarity between the characteristics attributed to an effective manager and the skills which are required to remain effective. This consistency in the responses given has important implications for the way managers perceive themselves and others, in particular their superiors. People-related and analytical skills seem to be the most important skills required by managers for their effectiveness at work. While most skills tend to equip the managers to become more successful in their interaction with others, the self-related skills seem to be needed in order to compensate for the lack of attention and supervision expected by them.

Again the responses were partly expressing the managers' expectation of others, in particular the leadership of the organization, and partly providing what they thought were the main ingredients for being effective. Interviews held indicated that in most cases respondents felt that possession of these skills would 'hopefully' lead to more effectiveness at work but in reality they felt that the situation may never change. The responses provided largely concur with the findings of previous studies of the senior managers in developed and developing countries. Senior managers become more and more aware of the need and necessity for possession of skills which enable them to work with people; simply because the awareness is gained that one cannot be effective unless he or she can work with or through people, namely

colleagues, peers and subordinates. It is probably not surprising to report that senior managers require as much if not more 'management development' than 'management'.

7.4.1 Categories of Managerial Skills

Within the framework of the research one major objective of this investigation was to find out what categories of skills and knowledge were seen as necessary to perform the managerial roles and functions as well as the degree of influence which the respondents attached to these skills and knowledge as determinants and reasons of their effectiveness. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that the identified and perceived importance of the required categories of managerial skills, as the most essential attributes for the effectiveness of senior managers, differs and varies significantly according to the senior managers' position in the hierarchy of the organization. More specifically, it was assumed that senior managers view people-related and self-development categories of skills as more important for their increased effectiveness, and that the importance of these categories of skills increases as senior managers' move higher up the hierarchy.

As shown in Table 6.7 the result appears to demonstrate that the average importance of the three categories of managerial skills varies with respect to the senior managers' position in the hierarchy. Overall, the findings of the study support the notion put forward in the research that senior managers tend to place considerably more importance on the people-related, analytical and self-related categories of managerial skills for their effectiveness. This major finding is complemented by the results obtained from another part of the survey where senior managers were asked to name and accordingly rate the importance attached to factors which they thought have contributed to their satisfactory performance. Here again, senior managers, as a whole, perceived functional skills as being less important than human-related ones as determinant factors for achieving results at work. The finding supports the related research propositions that the categories of people-related skills is generally viewed, by senior managers, as the most important set of skills for increasing their effectiveness, more remarkably, regardless of their positions of seniority. This finding is complemented by further analysis of the results and also the importance

of the category of people-related skills emerged clearly as the most influential pattern of managerial skills required for the effectiveness of senior managers.

7.4.2 Perceived Hierarchy of Managerial Skills

How does the senior managers' position in the hierarchy affect the average degree of importance that is attached to the three identified categories of skills namely task, people and, self and analytical categories of skills? Results indicate that the average importance attributed to the three categories of skills varies depending on the senior managers' position in the hierarchy of the organization. The perceived hierarchy of managerial skills is discussed below.

7.4.2.1 Task-related skills

Analysis of the data revealed that although the task-related skills were generally ranked lower in comparison with the other two categories, their importance in terms of getting things done was still rated well above the mid-point by senior managers within the studied departments in the Muscat Municipality. The analysis of the data also suggests the presence of a hierarchy within the task-related category. Since the planning function was commonly seen as a more demanding aspect of a senior managers' job, it is interesting to discover that those relevant skills such as determining objectives, forecasting, evaluation and selection from amongst alternatives becomes the first skill priority in the task-related category.

Furthermore, impressions received from the senior managers during interviews clearly led to the understanding that the reason for attaching more importance to the task-related aspects by the senior managers was because they felt that in their positions as top management they were culturally obliged to express their views concerning issues, such as their advancement and career development, in modest terms.

Indeed, the analysis of qualitative data further supports the research hypothesis that task-related skills are generally perceived to be of the least importance to senior managers from amongst the three main categories of managerial skills required for their effectiveness at work. These findings are in agreement with other researchers'

(Bryman, 1996; Katz, 1974) arguments that as managers move to higher positions in the organization, technical skills become relatively less important to them and managerial effectiveness will depend largely on human and conceptual skills. These results also complement the findings of Analoui's (1995, 1997 and 1999) research which reported that the participant senior managers in the Indian Railways, 22 organizations in Zimbabwe and those in Ghana placed less importance on their need for task-related skills as they moved higher up in the hierarchy. In addition the survey results support the theory that demand for technical skills decreases as the managers' rise through the hierarchy of the organization.

7.4.2.2 People-related category of skills

Additionally the survey results support the theory that demand for technical skills decreases as managers rise through the hierarchy of the organization, the results of this research indicate that the need for people skills remains generally higher than task-related skills for senior managers at different levels of the hierarchy. It has already been learnt, from other studies, that most of a senior manager's time is spent in contact with other people (Analoui and Karami, 2003; Bryman, 1996), and that managing people is being increasingly considered as constituting a more significant aspect of any senior manager's job (Margerison, et al. 1987). These findings are also in line with the results of other studies which are reported from developing countries (Analoui, 1990, 1995, 1997 and 1999) involving and implying that the senior manager's effectiveness is, to a lesser or greater extent, a function of competence shown in working with people and that people-related skills, such as communication, interpersonal skills, leadership and conflict resolution are perhaps the most vital attributes for their success.

The analysis of qualitative data generally supports the view that the higher the position senior managers occupy the more they need to be able to deal with the political processes which are inherited in their job and consequently the greater need for improving their interactive, interpersonal and decisional skills (Kakabadse, et al, 1987).

The findings and results also indicate that in comparison with the other categories of skills, the mean value of the people-related category holds the highest value across

the Muscat Municipality. This result is also complemented by the other findings of the research, where senior managers were asked to rate the importance of their training needs in the area of people-related skills such as communication, coordination and employees evaluation. Again, training for people-related skills was regarded by respondents as more significant and essential for the increased effectiveness of senior managers in the studied organization.

7.4.2.3. Analytical and career development skills

The results of this study indicate that the senior managers in the studied organization attached different degrees of importance, depending on their level and position of seniority, to the category of analytical and career development skills. Self development is considered to be an important part of a manager's job and one which requires knowledge and a specific set of new skills. Thus, there seems to be an ever increasing awareness among managers that their effectiveness is largely dependent on their ability and desire for their own personal growth and development. Although the felt need for analytical and self-related skills and knowledge was high among all the respondents, it was evident that the need for acquisition of these skills was emphasized more at the lower levels of the managerial hierarchy than the higher ones. Data analysis revealed that, the overall picture suggests that at the higher level of the organization, the tendency seems to be more towards a desire, on their part, for the achievement of a balanced range of skills from amongst the identified categories while naturally the emphasis is placed more on the people-related ones.

As Analoui and Karami (2003) discussed, although the grouping of the skills into three predetermined categories may seem arbitrary, nevertheless, it appears that the people-related skills together with the analytical and self and career development-related categories of skills are generally perceived as more important than that of the task-related ones.

Overall, the findings of this research so far provide support for Analoui's model of management development which suggests the presence of a hierarchy amongst the categories of managerial skills (Analoui, 1993). This study suggests that senior managers in the lower level of the organization tend to have a greater need for the

task-related skills in order to perform their job effectively. This does not, however, suggest that the task-related aspects of the job of senior managers in higher positions hold little or no importance for their effectiveness.

7.5 Organizational (Departmental) Criteria

Managers are asked about the criteria for effectiveness (Chauvel and Depres, 2002), in their departments within the Muscat Municipality. As expected, in each department a list of factors are produced which are not exactly the same as those from the other departments. Evidently, each department because of its specifications derived from the nature of the work, its' size and the like, tend to support the basis for a particular way of working and standard with which effectiveness has been measured.

Most senior managers expressed the opinion that the most important indicator to them of their effectiveness was that their staff were achieving their set targets. However, it became clear that targets were often 'set' for the superiors, with little degree of involvement in the setting of those targets on the part of the employees concerned. The relevant findings of the data can be seen in chapter six Table 6.8. In spite of the difficulties, demands and constraints with which managers were faced, the organization expectation is the ability on the part of the employee to 'get on with it' and 'get the job done'. A large part of the senior managers' work which is carried out in these departments is related to projects and development programs, therefore, the ability to prepare the research report and providing it in time were seen as being of the most importance.

Further data analysis revealed that managers are expected to plan, self-motivate and achieve targets. These were expectations very similar to the characteristic used by the managers to describe an effective manager. It could be argued that all managers were aware of what was expected from them and that their views and opinions concerning managerial effectiveness has been partly, or even to a large extent in some cases, formed by the dominant value system of the organization.

Top management, as shown in the literature review, are generally concerned with a tendency on the part of the senior managers to identify with the core values of the organization and from the observations made in the Muscat Municipality, both as a participant and as an impartial researcher, this is the case there also.

7.6 Motivation and leadership effectiveness

Motivation to work is one of the most intensively studied topics in the social sciences. According to Selden and Watkins (2001) scholars have devoted substantial efforts to developing a master theory of motivation, trying to incorporate various characteristics into the concept. In the main, in the fields of human resource management and organizational behavior, motivation is often described as being 'intrinsic' or 'extrinsic' in nature (Hertzberg, et al., 1959). Extrinsic motivation occurs " when employees are able to satisfy their needs indirectly, most importantly through monetary compensation" (Osterloh et al, 2002, p. 64). In contrast, intrinsic motivation is apparent when individuals' behavior is oriented towards the satisfaction of innate psychological needs rather than to obtain material rewards (Osterlo, et al, 2002).

As suggested earlier in chapter six, in order to better understand the factors associated with managerial effectiveness, attention has to be paid to all parameters of the phenomenon, in particular the motive behind the actions undertaken by managers (Analoui and Kakbadse, 2000; Crewson, 1997). The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data revealed, not surprisingly, that most motivators were intrinsic in nature and the hygiene factors, such as level of remuneration stipulated by the legislations, were viewed as satisfactory. According to Analoui (2003) 'all managers [in public sector] reported that their effectiveness is adversely affected by the low level of remuneration. This reveals that at times top management feel unable to exercise control over the reward system which has already been decided by legislative means.

Considering the findings of this research (see Table 6.10) on average, it has been reported that the remuneration is one of the major concerns within the public sector

as the whole. The forthcoming reform will undoubtedly have to deal with the issue of the reward system and its parity with the private sector. Overall, it was observed that senior managers in Muscat Municipality are motivated intrinsically.

It has been discussed by Crewson (1997) that one of the most interesting points, however, is one which goes beyond 'remuneration' or in this case the lack of it. Motivators such as 'recognition from superiors' seem to play important roles. As one senior manager mentioned "the fact the citizens and the big boss appreciate what we do is a great comfort". It was observed that achievement of targets too added to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acted as a motivator in their work (Crosson, et al, 2001). Other factors such as 'job satisfaction' and 'training and self-development' have been reported as the main motivating factors towards effectiveness. Thus, these and other remaining factors such as 'promotion' and 'good teamwork' seem to be symptomatic of the following issues:

The reward system within the Oman public sector, as noted above, does not act as a motivator and indeed to some extent adversely affects senior managers' effectiveness at work. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work found the challenge to be a motivating factor for their increased effectiveness and the main reason for their effective performance at work (Crewson, 1997). Provision of resources and teamwork will be suggested to work as motivators. It was interesting to note that what was expressed as the motivators were indeed the areas of concern and the main sources of discontent and frustration on the part of the senior managers. Not surprisingly, these findings are similar to the findings of the other researches in this field.

7.7 The Degree of 'Demands' and 'Constraints'

As discussed in the literature review chapter, it is difficult if not impossible to deal with the issue of effectiveness at work without considering the 'constraints and demands' with which managers are faced. Realistically, managers are not free floating agents, allowed to do what they desire. In almost all organizations, there are inhibiting forces which slow down the progress and need to be managed, removed or negotiated. In line with an open system approach towards understanding

managers, their works and effectiveness, the managers are asked to report the obstacles, difficulties, demands and constraints at work. Analysis of the data (see Table 6.13 in chapter six) provided a list of factors which were reported as having an adverse effect on the effectiveness of the managers.

Analysis of the data revealed that lack of communication, shortage of appropriate staff, unrealistic targets (crisis resulting from natural disasters), lack of teamwork, lack of resources, and lack of/inappropriate training, are considered as the major constraints and demands in the studied organization. Despite the differences between the departments and the difference between the degrees of emphasis placed on the identified factor, a cluster of factors tended to be shared between the studied departments within the Muscat Municipality. These difficulties are: shortage of appropriate staff and lack of/inappropriate training, poor remuneration, lack of motivation and lack of teamwork. The constraints and demands, whether those already identified and briefly introduced or those which will never be mentioned, at an individual, organizational and/or a wider social level, limit the managers' ability to determine and increase their own level of effectiveness.

7.8 Presence of 'Choices' and 'Opportunities' for Effectiveness

It is suggested here that a notion of a leader inspiring followers to a shared vision represents only one way of thinking about leadership and may not be of much assistance to those concerned with the teaching of leadership. Choices open to managers in order to be effective at work are primarily determined by the degree of demand placed on them and the constraints in their job. According to Analoui's work (1999, p. 380), he argues that 'a total of 35 factors related to the choices available have been identified, from which the ten most important ones are listed as follow:

- training (self)
- on-the-job training
- part-time study
- necessary resources/equipment

- teamwork/co-operation
- better remuneration
- funding
- more appropriate staff
- visit other units/establishments
- effective/regular communication
- relevant literature/library

The responses of the senior managers in Muscat Municipality point to solutions and ways of dealing with the present situation in order to become more effective. As one explained, "...more training and development would enable the managers to increase their effectiveness and achieve more". Almost all senior managers considered training as one of the most important factors for increased effectiveness. This was particularly evident in the departments where the main proportions of the staff were top management. It was interesting to see that most senior managers enjoyed the provision of seminars but felt that a more planned program would be more beneficial. It was evident, from semi structured interviews and the through daily observations that senior managers preferred a series of short but intensive workshops to those which required them to travel abroad. As one explained, "... the dilemma is not unique to senior manager here at the Municipality. Being charge of operations and being responsible for high profile projects do not allow managers to leave your post for long...I think the solution is in short, high quality workshops here in Muscat". However, most senior managers also valued the opportunities to attend occasional seminars abroad to share experience, gain knowledge and improve their effectiveness.

There were two other major factors which were regarded as opportunities for improving effectiveness: one was referred to as resources, better working conditions and equipment, and the other was referred to as the organizational and managerial processes (Croxson, et al, 2001). Most senior managers, especially those in the top management team in the Muscat Municipality in Oman, felt that 'their effectiveness could be almost double, if they had more resources'. The point which was frequently mentioned was that a more equitable distribution of resources could

improve the work of the Muscat Municipality and the effectiveness of its staff. This point again relates to the distribution of resources amongst the ministries within the public sector and the unique position of the Municipality as an agent for improving the quality of life for the citizens of Oman. However, all managers agreed that considering the public sectors usual constraints they “have managed to achieve a great deal”.

Organizational and leadership processes such as, communication, delegation, incentives (Croxon, et al, 2001), team management (Herzberg, 2003) and the like were mentioned as solutions rather than opportunity. ‘If only we could...’ suffixed most such suggestions. Wherever, there was a discussion concerning effectiveness, training and availability of opportunities, it was repeatedly mentioned that: “Those who really need the training for increased effectiveness are the top management - not the head of the Muscat Municipality”. “They are the policy makers, strategic decision makers...” a point which some top management agreed with and some resented strongly.

The opportunities are in a sense related to demands and constraints. As one senior manager explained, it appears that the presence of the constraints and demands will force the younger managers to think of a ‘way out’. Working in the private sector is attractive and many do think of moving across. This is a national dilemma which is also impacting on the effectiveness of the senior managers in the Municipality. In most cases the younger managers seek opportunities such as full-time secondment, visits abroad including attending seminars and conferences in order to move up and move away. Ultimately, as senior managers commented, this will indirectly and adversely affect the senior managers’ effectiveness. As one mentioned, “when you can’t keep the good staff because you can’t reward them like in the private sector they leave and leave a hole in their respective teams”. It is clear that the presence of a ‘role-culture’ in the public sector as the whole and a lack of sufficient monetary rewards ‘have forced’ some managers ‘to think of themselves’. Therefore, the exploration of choices perceived as being available to them (specially the younger managers) indirectly showed the presence of a strong belief in what can only be regarded as the main reason for the ‘person-cultures’ in some departments in the Muscat Municipality.

7.9 Nature of Inter-Organizational Relationships

Implicit and explicit remarks will be frequently made where the overall subject of managerial effectiveness is being discussed. All respondents saw their effectiveness as being affected, if not determined, by the overall effectiveness of the organization. It was evident that the respondents were aware that there is a two-way relationship between their effectiveness and the organization that was determined partly by their organization's relationship with other organizations and agencies, both nationally and internationally.

In the Muscat Municipality, coordinating large projects seems to be the focus of attention for senior managers from other organizations. It was generally believed that for a variety of reasons, the strategy in the Muscat Municipality tends to influence the potential for effectiveness of the other organizations in the public sector in Oman. Interestingly, amongst the organizations in the public sector in Oman, there seemed to be little problem in terms of identification of the level of the desired action, but it was the procedure and bureaucracy that caused delays and other related problems discussed in chapter six, there was a significant relationship between changes in the environmental factors and managerial effectiveness in the studied organization. For instance, increasing uncertainty and ambiguity on governmental policies positively decreased the managerial effectiveness in the studied organization.

7.10 Dominant Managerial (leadership) Philosophy

Philosophy, it is said, is the study of abstract problems detached from the challenges of everyday life. Others say that there is no widely accepted definition of 'philosophy' first appearing in the writings of Herodotus and Thucydides (fifth century BC). It was loosely translated then as 'the pursuit of knowledge'. Philosophy aims to provide not knowledge, but understanding; and its history shows how difficult it has been, even for the very greatest minds, to develop a complete and coherent vision.

It has been established that the dominant managerial philosophy in an organization does influence the operations which are carried out in it and the roles performed by its employees in particular the senior managers, and generally it influences the flow of information and the informal and structured relationships among the people in the organization. The leadership of the organization provides the very standard for the patterns of behavior and therefore has proven to be a decisive factor in determining the effectiveness of the managers in the organization (Herzberg, 2003). The data, whether in qualitative or quantitative form, have been tainted by the presence of this influence of the managerial philosophy and style of top management team of the Muscat Municipality and its related departments.

The traditional preference for 'politically correct administration', an aspect or characteristic dominant in the public sector as the whole, as opposed to management, has resulted in many instances in the ineffectiveness of the individual managers (Herzberg, 2003) and the organizations as a whole. This issue ought to be seen in context. There seems to be a tendency on the part of management for centralization, top-down management, overemphasis on control and managerial decision making. In most cases it was observed that senior managers did not delegate as often as they should and therefore in their absence major decisions could not be made, there were some exceptions to this general rule among the senior managers. Ultimately, the degree to which the senior managers will adhere to traditional management, or to correct administration principles varies from one department to another. The results of this research in this respect supports the findings of Analoui who reported that, "apart from a few top senior managers and senior managers who did feel that there is a need for change of attitude and policy, the others seemed to remain insistent that being at the top justifies the lack of need for management training and the adoption of the participatory approaches to their management of task and people at work" (1999, p. 386).

It can therefore be safely concluded that, the eight parameters of effectiveness within the Muscat Municipality in Oman and public sector organizations, also point to a mirror image of the characteristics of each dimension. That is to suggest, what forms motivation for greater effectiveness is also reflected in the constraints and demands which control, inhabit or completely paralyze the individual concerned.

The perception of the individual managers (Herzberg, 2003) of their own and their colleagues' effectiveness is also related to the skills and abilities attributed to the effective managers. And, most important of all, the organization's expectation of its managers is reflected in the nature of the criteria for effectiveness which is held by the organization. Because the findings of this research support the related research hypothesis and the findings of other studies (Analoui, 1997 and 1999) it therefore suggests that the relative importance of the parameters of effectiveness also vary with respect to the positions of senior managers in the hierarchy of the organization.

7.11 Contextual factors: do they matter?

In this section, following Analoui's (1999) model, three main variables including self development skills and personal attributes; importance of organizational factors; and finally the importance of environmental (contextual) factors are discussed.

7.11.1. Self development skills and personal attributions

Self understanding is a prerequisite for leading and managing others effectively, responsibly and respectably. The findings of this study suggest that personal factors such as improving one's own performance and developing one's own potential being considered as some of the most important for effective managers. It has been argued (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) that as an important part of any manager's job, self development requires that managers learn new skills, knowledge and attitudes in order to perform their jobs effectively. It is increasingly a responsibility for today's managers to develop themselves through gaining insight into their own strengths, and by gaining the required skills and experience on the job, as well as searching for opportunities which lead to greater contribution and superior performance (Analoui, 1999).

Effective managers' interaction systems and managing the financial aspects of the work, as well as the ability to manage the work with the use of information technology, have been perceived as of equal importance by senior managers across the Muscat Municipality. Technical skills appear to be equally important across all

three levels of management; top, middle and junior and even lower in rank. For the senior managers, as a whole, these managerial skills are perceived and distinguished as the least important contributing factors to their increased effectiveness although, notably, some were perceived as more important than others.

As discussed in chapter six, overall, the comparative analysis of the mean score rankings of the rated importance of the total number of 21 skills which are identified as being required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers supports the first general assumption of the research that senior managers tend to rate the importance of each set of skills differently according to the managerial position they hold at various levels of organizational hierarchy. Almost all senior managers who participated in the interviews believed that the perceived importance of each individual skill varies not only with respect to specific managerial positions but it also differs considerably with the demands of particular situations. The findings of this research support the findings of other studies (Herzberg, 2003; Analoui, 1999) by suggesting that the relative importance attributed to managerial skills also vary with respect to the positions of senior managers and their location on the hierarchy of the organization.

7.11.2. Importance of organizational factors

In order to see the impact of organizational factors on organizational and managerial effectiveness within the Muscat Municipality, the respondents were asked to rate its impact on the research variables such as informal relationship, flexibility in decision making process, organizational structure, management by objectives (MBO), team working and the like. The result of the study has been illustrated in Table 6.18 in chapter six. It was discussed that, the success of organizations in the public sector under globalization depends largely on the senior managers' awareness of the environment (Roy and Dugal, 1999; Miles and Snow 1978). Data analysis shows that, the impact of internal organizational factors on adapting to environmental changes is significantly important. Using environmental (external and internal) analysis as a basic management tool, senior managers can recognize its strengths and weaknesses, alongside the opportunities and threats of the public sector, in order to manage the organization effectively.

Strategic decision-making is an important part of managing the direction of an organization and measuring its success (Waring, 2001). The recent works focus on the development of the strategic decision making as a management tool, and explores various analytical techniques to measure the performance of an organization (Karami, 2007). The development of such a model requires more effective use of the strategic management approach in the public sector in Oman. In this research, the result of data analysis reveals that, establishing a strategic management approach, would significantly impact on the operational decision making in the Muscat Municipality.

7.11.3 Importance of the environmental factors

Theoretically, through environmental analysis, the key economic, political, social and technological trends, green environment issues, and legal factors can be correlated and identified with opportunities, strengths, threats and weaknesses in order to determine the necessary strategies for the future development of the organizations (Analoui and Karami, 2003). Senior managers cannot build an effective strategic plan if they do not know where the organization has been or where it is likely to go. More specifically, this issue is becoming more crucial in the public sector. In this regard it has been assumed that environmental factors such as technology significantly impact upon the decision making process and leadership effectiveness in the public sector in Oman. Therefore, the respondents were asked to indicate to what extent internal and external environment factors affect their performance.

The findings show that the respondents ranked the degree of impacts of environmental factors on their effectiveness as follows. 1st priority: political factors; 2nd priority: economic factors; 3rd priority: legal factors; 4th priority: social and cultural trends; 5th priority: green environment issues; and finally 6th priority: technological factors (see Table 6.19 in chapter six). In other words, 91 percent of the respondents believed that, the political factors of the country have an impact on their effectiveness within their organizations. In contrast, technological

factors (45%) seem to affect the leadership effectiveness and decision-making process far less than the other factors.

7.12 Leadership effectiveness

The character of leadership is something which is often taken for granted. It is expected that good leaders should be strong in character, that is, to have a moral imperative to their actions. Bass and Avolio (1994) asserted that “in leadership, character counts [...] leadership provides a moral compass and, over the long term, both personal development and the common good are best served by a moral compass that reads true” (p.125). They commented that “leadership is about how to be, not how to do [...] it is about character” (p. 126). Barker (2005) identified seven virtues by which Australian executives could be identified. These are:

- humility
- courage
- integrity
- compassion
- humor
- passion
- wisdom

The present study reaches some conclusions which appear to demonstrate that, amongst other things, a combination of different managerial knowledge and skills are perceived as essential requirements for the increased effectiveness of senior managers. The identified hierarchy of managerial skills also indicates that the prime responsibility of management is to create an organizational climate in which people work willingly and effectively. This overall competency is considered to be the cornerstone of managerial effectiveness and is the key to increased managerial effectiveness and improved organizational performance which at the same time reflects the capabilities of management to perform the job as effectively as possible (Mintzberg, 1973).

It was interesting therefore, to discover that senior managers ranked this ability as the most important overall competency in relation to their increased effectiveness. These results furthermore, indicate that the senior managers in the Muscat Municipality were highly aware of their managerial responsibilities and of the presence of the factors which were affecting their effectiveness at work. These were:

- effective organizational communication,
- individualized consideration
- intellectual stimulation
- inspirational motivation

7.12.1 Effective Organizational Communication

As previously mentioned in the literature review chapter, cohesion is critical for effective team performance, and as such, is a key area that could be addressed when investigating the transformational leadership's potential relationship with team performance. Transformational leadership has been empirically linked to cohesion in the past. Specifically, Bass et al (2003) found that cohesion mediated a transformational leadership relationship with financial performance. A similar finding has been reported where group potency mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and creative outcomes of teams interacting through computer networks. Additionally, using a military sample, Bass et al, (2003) found support for the mediating role of group potency on a transformational leadership/platoon performance relationship.

As noted earlier in chapter six, the analysis of the mean ranked comparison of important managerial skills across managerial levels pointed out that team building and communication skill holds high importance in terms of increasing senior managers' effectiveness irrespective of their position in the hierarchy. The results of the study clearly indicate that although the importance of communication for all the senior managers involved in the study is ranked second, next to time management, the senior managers at various positions in the hierarchy have rated communication

skills quite highly in the range of 4.13 (see Table 6.20 in chapter 6) on a five point scale. This again appears to support the view that communication plays an important part in increasing the effectiveness of all senior managers irrespective of their level in the hierarchy at which they perform.

The findings of this study support other researcher's findings (Margerison, 1983) and their contention regarding the high importance of communication skills for increasing the effectiveness of senior managers. For example, in a 1984 study of 711 chief executive officers (CEOs) conducted by Margerison (1985), the senior managers emphasized communication skills as the most important personal factor that they had to learn to be successful and they thought that the management of other people was the most difficult aspect of their job. Analoui's (1997) research also revealed and opened up the view that communication was one of the most important skills for increased effectiveness of the senior managers involved in this study.

It is interesting to note that, in all published works in the field of managerial skills, team working and communication are those behavioral skills that every researcher has placed emphasis on their vital importance for increased effectiveness. Above all other attributes they are considered necessary for managerial success. Thus, it has been argued that management is about people and communication; the key to bringing out the best in people. Managing people is considered to be the most demanding aspect of the managerial job and one which involves abilities such as communicating, delegating, handling conflict and developing people (Margerison, 1985).

In addition to different literary evidence which appears to support the high degree of importance of communication for the effectiveness of senior managers, in this study the results already presented in the previous chapter indicated that senior managers were certain about the importance of communication for the satisfactory discharge of their responsibilities. Those results showed that none of the respondents attached low importance to communication. Overall, the research indicates that communication is a key element in effective management. Senior managers are therefore, expected to demonstrate a high degree of competence in communicating

effectively with other people while carrying out different managerial functions and performing various roles and responsibilities at any given time in their jobs.

7.12.2. Individualized consideration

As previously mentioned, increased listening, prompt feedback and openness to suggestions from the team are necessary for effective performance. Individualized consideration encompasses attentive listening, consideration of individuals as having different needs, abilities and aspirations, and time spent in coaching and teaching (Bass 1990). The individually considerate leader is responsible for constructing a one-to-one relationship with each team member, listening to concerns and addressing individual needs (Bass, 1994). As such, the transformational leadership dimension of individualized consideration may be an appropriate precursor to effective team communication.

The results of this study on the relative perceived importance of 'mobilizing people', 'creating new learning opportunities', 'time management' and 'drive to achieve objectives' across various levels of senior management again may be taken as evidence that individualized consideration always remains an essential criterion for managerial effectiveness. As one of the most important attributes of self-discipline creating learning opportunities is the first essential practice that distinguishes effective senior managers from ineffective ones.

Mintzberg (1980) describes time management as part of the resource allocation role which he believes is the heart of the strategy-making system in the organization, played by managers in partial fulfillment of their decisional roles. At the same time senior managers are well aware of how important this is to their effectiveness. Based on the findings of this study, it is the researcher's belief that efficient management of organizational resources is probably the most important ingredient and element for self management and therefore, is a vital practice for increasing the effectiveness of managers in general and senior managers in particular. The implications for management development here is that, for senior managers to be effective, they should specifically be able to control and effectively utilize their time by keeping track and making every possible effort to avoid its waste. They should

be able to attend to individual needs for growth and achievement. The senior managers should be able to act as coach or mentor, create new learning opportunities, accept individual differences, and avoid close monitoring.

7.12.3 Intellectual stimulation

Constructive conflict management is viewed as a management tool, where a team benefits from conflict in that the team develops a quality solution and strengthens relationships. As previously mentioned, effective conflict management can lead to better team performance, as a team is not dragged down by infighting and indecision. Research suggests that conflict, particularly cognitive or task-oriented conflict, can be an important antecedent to team effectiveness and performance.

Intellectual stimulation and creative problem solving may be considered attributes which are universally accepted as the cornerstone and foundation of managerial effectiveness (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007). In the present study the results indicate that reframing problems, decision making, and encouraging creativity and innovation are considered as some of the most important skills for the increased effectiveness of all the senior managers. However, for some senior managers, 'problem solving' and creativity do not hold the same level of importance as the acquisition of decision making skills. This result is in agreement with the findings of Margerison (1985) who found that personal factors such as communication, delegation, decision making and self-discipline were considered by the senior managers to be far more important for their success.

Furthermore, they have to understand the various costs and benefits, as well as the risks involved in their decisions. As far as the decision making skill is concerned the findings of this research supports the above conclusion. Effective managers not only take responsibility for the effectiveness of their own decision making process but also ensure that their subordinates are effectively utilizing their problem solving skills whenever it is required.

Indeed, further analysis of the qualitative data suggests that for senior managers in higher positions intellectual stimulation is more along the lines of strategic thinking

in terms of the issues which concern the present and future operation of the organization. The results of this research indicate that the effective senior managers should be able to stimulate their team members, approach old issues in new ways, and encourage creativity and innovation and finally, manage change in the public sector. The findings of this research also supports the Buchanan and Badham (1999) results from a survey of middle and senior managers carried out to investigate organizational change. They found that:

- Over 90 percent of managers agree that change management knowledge and skills are relevant to people at all levels in the organization
- Over 90 percent agreed that all managers require a good understanding of change management principles and practice.
- Only 2 percent agreed that change management is a specialized area of expertise which should be left to full-time professionals.

Nevertheless, the importance of decision making skills remains relatively higher than that of problem solving skills for all levels except for senior managers in the fourth level where problem solving and creativity becomes more important to the execution of daily operations, apparently because of the demands and constraints of the job especially those relating to projects and programs.

7.12.4 Inspirational motivation and interpersonal skills

The senior managers in this study felt that understanding people's needs and providing them with the right kind of motivations are important requirements for the effective management of people. One essential requirement of any effective manager is the ability to handle people effectively. It can be said that, an effective manager knows that only motivated human resources are able to productively carry out the organizational tasks toward the accomplishment of the organizational goals. To fulfill this task, an effective manager does not entirely depend on the formal reward and punishment system in order to motivate people, but also seeks and attempts to provide opportunities for the organizational members to satisfy their different needs in the organization. It is therefore, an increasingly important task for

management to ensure job satisfaction for people through their achievements in the work place. This requires the enhancement of the positive aspects of motivation as well as the elimination of those factors which are deterrents to work satisfaction.

It is commonly believed that the job of management is to get things done through other people (Daft, 2007). This involves the effective management of human resources. For effective managers this is the most demanding aspect of their job that increasingly requires the learning of interpersonal and leadership skills in order to work with and through people. The senior managers in the Muscat Municipality believed that their success in bringing out the best in people relied mainly on their ability to develop successful teams and to motivate people.

Managers should realize that organizational objectives can only be achieved if people are willing and capable of carrying out their work and that getting other people to work effectively requires interpersonal and leadership skills (Kakabadse et al., 1987). Effective managers therefore, know how to create an organizational climate which is conducive to team work and participation. They are also well aware of the issue that conflicts and disputes always hinder opportunities for team building and limit their efforts to influence their associates towards the desired behaviors and performance. According to Mintzberg (1980), conflict resolution skills enable a manager to act as a mediator between individuals in conflict. Skills in handling disputes and arguments are important at all levels however, there are speculations in the literature which suggest that they may be especially important at senior management levels where strategies and policies are to be determined.

Ultimately, the findings of the research indicate that senior managers hold similar views about the importance of these skills, irrespective of their level in the hierarchy. The implications of these findings are that senior managers are expected to acquire a high level of competence in dealing with a variety of people in and outside of their work environment and that they ought to be able to exert positive power to influence the behavior of these people for the sake of achieving organizational objectives. An effective leader motivates and inspires his/her people by providing meaning and challenge (Bass 1994), raising the level of team spirit,

showing enthusiasm and optimism, communicating expectations and finally, demonstrating commitment.

7.12.5 Transformational leadership

As discussed in the previous sections, the foundation of transformational leadership rests on what Bass and Avolio (1994) refer to as the four I's of transformational leadership, which comprise three factors (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002; Bass, 1994) idealized influence/inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Idealized influence/inspirational motivation are related to the formulation and articulation of vision and/or challenging goals (Atwater and Bass, 1994). Behaviors related to idealized influence/inspirational motivation includes instilling pride in others for being associated with the leader, inducing followers to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group, providing reassurance that obstacles will be overcome, promotion of confidence in achievement and execution of goals and tasks, talking optimistically about the future, articulating a compelling vision for the future and providing an exciting image of organizational change (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Intellectual stimulation promotes intelligence, rationality and careful problem-solving. Behaviors related to intellectual stimulation include seeking differing perspectives when solving problems, suggesting new ways of examining how to complete assignments and encouraging re-thinking of ideas that have not been questioned in the past (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Finally, individualized consideration is directed at treating the followers as individuals and not just members of a group. Behaviors related to individualized consideration include spending time in teaching and coaching, helping others develop their strengths and listening attentively to others' concerns (Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Transformational leadership (i.e. the four I's) may be mapped to critical teamwork process factors in such a way as to possibly develop team communication and conflict management skills, and promote team cohesion.

Interestingly, the senior managers reported that the top leadership of the organization tends to apply a mix of both transformational and transactional leadership style dependent on the circumstances and the context in which the Municipality is situated. On the whole, the senior managers felt that the top leadership displays leadership qualities which are worthy of transformational

leaders rather than a transactional one and as such the Minister provides role model leadership for the top team to follow.

7.13 Chapter Summary

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

One interesting issue which has emerged from all this is that in reality the identified managerial skills are so overlapping that it is difficult to make a clear-cut distinction between the three categories, the line of differentiation can only be drawn theoretically and only for the ease of analytical purposes. Furthermore, there is clear indication that senior manager irrespective of their seniority, require a comprehensive range of advanced managerial skills for their increased effectiveness.

In this research, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the Muscat Municipality in the realization of the growth and development of the senior managers in the public sector in Oman. Analoui's eight parameters framework has been employed to study the managerial effectiveness and management development issues in the Muscat Municipality in Oman. The aim and analysis of the eight parameters of managerial effectiveness is to identify the causal and behavioral influences which determine the managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the Muscat Municipality. The results point to the presence of factors which constitute 'parameters' of effectiveness at work. There is also a need for consideration of other factors such as individual and organizational criteria, motivation, and the constraints and demands which determine the choices of behaviors and the degree of effectiveness in a particular context.

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

It concludes that better understanding of the subject requires attention being paid to the senior managers' 'choice' and 'meaningful action', within the studied organization. This is certainly very much related to the core of the research that seeks explanation for the development of senior managers. The explanatory framework which was discussed in detail in chapter four is in line with the above recent theoretical development in this field.

The results clearly showed that the degree of importance attached to each set of skills and parameters tended to vary according to the position of the managers in the hierarchy of the organization. Nevertheless, generalization about managerial activities is likely to be at least partially incorrect for any particular manager or group of managers. Managers in the Muscat Municipality are likely to have a different perception of the importance of such skills, parameters and their interaction for their increased effectiveness and development as a whole. For the development of senior managers, the implications of these findings are many. These are to be presented and dealt with in the concluding chapter.

In the next chapter therefore, attempts will be made to draw relevant conclusions based on the findings of the research and hence explore the likely implications for future research and its application within the Muscat Municipality in Oman.

Chapter Eight: Summary and Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

This first time study has aimed to explore the senior managers' effectiveness and leadership in the Muscat Municipality in Oman. In the introductory chapter the topic, the research propositions and interests of the author were presented. Chapter two examined the development of the concept of managerial effectiveness, the views of authors who provided the main influence and offered an overview of the major works in the field of management. Chapter three analyzed, in some depth, the theoretical framework of the research. This chapter provides a synthesis of the literature in management and effectiveness, and provides the framework of the study. Chapter four explores the characteristics of Oman and the state of the public sector as the whole. Also in this chapter, socio-economic management systems and political issues in Oman are discussed. Chapter five described how the research design was developed and in doing so it brought together all the preceding chapters. Chapter five explains how, why and when the research was carried out. The resulting conceptual framework provided a basis upon which the research propositions of the study were further refined into detailed research objectives and research questions. Following on from this, an appropriate research methodology was developed to meet the objectives of the study. Chapter six provided the descriptive analysis of the data. This chapter introduced the descriptive characteristics of the collected data such as means and standard deviations. Chapter seven introduced the major findings of the research in connection with the research propositions. It attempted to interpret the research findings within the provided conceptual framework by using the social, organizational meanings and the existing academic theories. Finally, chapter eight summarizes the thesis.

In this chapter first, the major findings of the research are highlighted. Then the theoretical contribution of the research with respect to the existing theory in managerial effectiveness is discussed. In the next section, the contribution of this research with respect to government policy-making and managerial implications is discussed. In the last section the limitations of this study are assessed and suggestions for further research in this field are proposed.

8.2. Revisiting the objectives of the research

There has been relatively little empirical research examining the relationship between senior management, effective leadership and project success. The centrality of the Muscat Municipality and its role, visibility and importance in terms of the development and modernization of Oman has meant that clarification of the processes which lead to increased effectiveness of the leadership in this organization will have paramount implications for the modernization and reform of the public sector as the whole. To reiterate, the main objectives of this research are to explore;

- The dimensions (parameters) of managerial and leadership effectiveness of senior officials (managers) and executives who work in the Muscat Municipality and are in charge of the development projects. As it has been shown all identified eight parameters and related contexts are identical to those which were discovered by Analoui (1999).
- The extent to which senior managers' (officials) effectiveness can be attributed to their transformational and/or transactional managerial and leadership styles adopted when discharging their daily duties, including implementation of the Municipality's capital intensive large development projects. This particular objective proved to be a challenge since it was difficult to relate the respondents' effectiveness entirely to their adopted leadership style. This, however, is not surprising since as we have shown earlier a myriad of factors and influences have impact on leaders and their styles.
- The relevance of identifying the major effectiveness dimensions for an improved performance of the senior management (leadership) of the Muscat Municipality, in particular, and the leadership of the public sector as the whole.

In order to achieve these main objectives of the research, the researcher has adapted the "Eight Parameters of Managerial Effectiveness" model originally

developed by Analoui (1999) in his study of senior managers' effectiveness in the public sector. It is worth while noting that, as we will be shown in the next section, the identified parameters have relevance for the improved performance of the leadership. This however, has to be considered in relation to a particular context in which the leadership operates.

8.3 The major findings of the research

It has been concluded that for senior managers and leaders in the public sector to be effective it is not sufficient to provide only for their additional education and experience through occasional training. It is rather important to approach the issue of management development strategically and on a planned basis. Thus, it is imperative for all public sector organizations including the Municipality to establish an environment where transformational leadership at organizational and team levels is fostered and encouraged. This study considers that paying attention to the eight parameters of managerial effectiveness ought to be considered as an integral part of the process of organizational development. Moreover, and indeed more importantly, the present study aimed to explore the proposed parameters for effectiveness within the context of Muscat Municipality and Oman as the whole.

It has been suggested that the organizational performance is related to the age of the senior managers. The correlation analysis of the data shows that, there were no significant correlation between age of the managers and the performance of the studied departments. Organizational performance is not associated to the age of senior manager.

The data analysis shows that, there is a strong and significant correlation between the professional expertise of the senior managers and the emphasis placed on their formal management position in the studied departments. In other words, senior managers with professional expertise and managerial work experience put more emphasis on formal management positions than do the senior managers' without such work experiences.

It has been hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between the educational level of the managers and organizational performance in the public sector. The analysis of the data shows that there was no significant difference between the departments, regardless of the level of education of the managers, in terms of performance. One explanation would be the relationship between the age and education level of the respondents. As discussed in the data analysis chapter, older managers are likely to benefit from less formal education, while the younger managers are likely to benefit from a higher level of education.

The most pertinent and relevant conclusion reached relates to the presence of eight parameters of managerial effectiveness which was analyzed through this research, and identification of the behavioral and causal influences as their constituent and essential components. The awareness of senior managers and leaders in the public sector has become increasingly significant in terms of improving their own managerial effectiveness. The results of this research will lead to improving leadership styles, delegation and human relations, and the increased effectiveness of the organization as the whole.

Managerial work is complex and requires the managers to master the knowledge, skills and competencies which enable them to deal effectively with the various aspects of their job under, at times, difficult circumstances. However, the study reaches some conclusions which suggest that the demanding aspects of the managerial job are contingent upon the managerial position in the hierarchy, and the functional requirements of the job as well as the situational factors.

With reference to the work of senior managers, managerial effectiveness is predominately seen as involving both managing task and people. The study showed that the effective management of people is also a key to the effective management of task and that effective management of people plays an important role toward increasing the effectiveness of the organization. Indeed, managing people remains at the heart of the leadership style.

Senior managers in the Muscat Municipality of Oman, regardless of the nature of their job, their formal qualifications and the position in which they operate felt that

they could benefit from increased managerial effectiveness, and a more regular management training and development program. Senior managers definitely believed that with the ever increasing changes in the job and its environment, managerial effectiveness, and management training and development is an inevitable requirement for their sustained effectiveness. It is believed that systematic managerial effectiveness and management training programs which specifically cater for a balanced combination of managerial knowledge and skills are vital for their increased effectiveness. Studies on 'Managerial Effectiveness', over the last three - four decades have brought to light the importance of considering leadership beyond organizational arrangements and the need for considering leadership maturity. It is argued that although the above qualities have profound influence on the achievement of the goals of the organization, they do not always account for the differences between effective and not so effective leadership.

The conclusion reached in this research goes further to suggest that managerial effectiveness, must be regarded as a continuous process which is not only concerned with increasing the effectiveness of all managers, but with the improvement of organizational effectiveness too.

For many years it has been clear that one of the main barriers to improving managerial performance has been inadequate communication (Kakabadse, et al., 1987). This is in no way surprising given that in even a small managerial group of managers there are many potential two-way communication channels. It has been reported that a communication system based on the expectations approach and capable of handling both the volume of communication and the complexity of communication channels which are used in the managerial groups of large organizations was developed in 1973 (Hargie et al., 2004). This study reaches some conclusions with regard to the importance of communication. These conclusions suggest that in any position of management or seniority, the satisfactory discharge of managerial responsibilities and the smooth operation of managerial effectiveness in their work depend largely on the ability of the managers to communicate effectively with others. Communication as a function of managerial effectiveness and managerial skill and competencies are seen as key for effective management in its whole diversity.

Managerial effectiveness and management training programs which place more emphasis on the people-related aspects of the managers training and development needs are generally viewed as more suitable for senior managers and are highly valued for their increased effectiveness in the public sector. The content of managerial effectiveness, and management training and development programs must be designed in such a way as to familiarize the senior managers with modern management concepts, theories, functions and techniques. The identified categories which are considered most useful for the increased effectiveness of all senior managers are: strategic management; human resource management; human resource development; human relations; leadership and effective communication.

Much of the discussion in the management literature is clearly written from the perspective that the learning organization can be designed and managed effectively to produce positive outcomes for the organization. Many commentators have attempted to specify what the learning organization culture should consist of. It is a culture which supports shared learning from experience. The creation of an organizational environment in which people work willingly and effectively is the most important factor by which senior manager's effectiveness may be assessed. The senior managers within the Muscat Municipality in Oman chose from a series of managerial skills which were presented to them, four in particular were considered as being the most important for their increased effectiveness. These are (1) the ability to communicate effectively with other people, (2) the ability to manage one's own time and use it effectively, (3) the ability to make decisions and resolve work related problems; and (4) the ability to lead and motivate employees at work.

This research revealed that senior managers in the Muscat Municipality would expect future management training programs to result in self-development and the acquisition of people-related and task-related knowledge and skills. There is a continual need for the development of organizational members, managers and senior managers in particular. In order to ensure the overall effectiveness of organizational members, a clear managerial effectiveness and management

development policy, which is based on a true and up to date assessment of individuals, group and organizational development needs, must be adopted.

It is concluded, based on the data available, that the presence of obstacles such as an inappropriate appraisal system, pressure of work, inappropriate human development policies, lack of career planning, the low priority which is given to increased managerial effectiveness, management training programs and development activities in the organizations are the main blockages to management development in their organizations. These findings should have important implications for the managerial effectiveness and management development in the public sector in Oman.

What are the types of managerial skills, another parameter for effectiveness, required by the senior managers in public sector in Oman? This research revealed that the most crucial set of managerial skills which is required for the increased effectiveness of senior managers, is a combination of 'analytical and self development', and 'people and task related' skills. Senior managers are expected to demonstrate a high level of competence in various skills, although people skills have emerged as a more decisive influence for their effectiveness at work. The relative degree of importance attached to each set of managerial skills varies with respect to the senior managers' position and may also be contingent upon other circumstances in which senior managers find themselves. The results of analysis, therefore, should be taken to be most relevant to the Muscat Municipality.

The question of interrelationships between these managerial skills becomes a matter of importance. This however, suggests that managerial skills should be viewed as a system and examined in the context of the organization. The classification of various managerial skills into different categories may be valid to some extent. It is noted however, that the identified skills are overlapping in many instances. Given consideration to the three aspects of managerial work and responsibilities, it may be concluded that managers need to acquire a mix of three categories of skills for their effectiveness at work namely 'people-related', 'analytical and self-related', and 'task-related' skills. However, the research results clearly show that the degree of

importance attached to the above skills may vary according to the position of the managers and the demands of their particular jobs.

Managing people is being increasingly considered as constituting a significant aspect of any senior manager's job and is viewed as a function of their competence and effectiveness, therefore, people-related skills, such as communication, interpersonal skills, leadership and managing conflict are the most vital attributes for their success. It can be claimed that the people-related category of skills is relatively the most important category for the increased effectiveness of senior managers, irrespective of their position in the hierarchy. Basically, because, senior managers are expected to acquire a high level of competence in dealing with a variety of people in and outside of their work environment, they ought to be able to influence the behavior of others for the sake of achieving organizational objectives.

The findings of the research provide a great deal of support for Analoui's eight parameters of managerial effectiveness model of management (see chapters two and three) development and show that the notion of a hierarchy of skills holds some validity, suggesting that as senior managers move higher up in the organization, they tend to have greater need for people-related, analytical and self-related skills in order to perform their job effectively. This does not, however, suggest that the task related aspects of the job of senior managers in higher positions holds little or no importance for their effectiveness.

Further data analysis revealed that managers are expected to plan, self-motivate and achieve targets. These expectations were very similar to the characteristic used by the managers to describe an effective manager. It could be argued that all managers were aware of what was expected from them and that their views and opinions concerning managerial effectiveness has been partly, or even to a large extent in some cases, formed by the dominant value system of the organization.

The reward system within the Muscat Municipality in Oman acts as a de-motivator and adversely affects managers' effectiveness at work. Achievement of targets set added to a sense of job satisfaction and thus acted as motivator in their work. It has been reported that concern for the level of remuneration was the first top priority for

senior managers in the studied departments in Muscat Municipality. Those managers who were responsible for challenging work, found the challenges confronted to be motivating and the main reason for their effectiveness at work.

Almost all senior managers who participated in the interviews believed that the perceived importance of each individual skill varies not only with respect to specific managerial positions but it also differs considerably with the demands of particular situations. The findings of this research also support the findings of other studies. Thus, it is suggested that the relative importance of managerial skills also varies with respect to the positions of senior managers in the hierarchy of the organization.

The recent works focus on the development of the strategic decision making as a management tool, and explores various analytical techniques to measure the performance of an organization (Karami, 2007). The development of such a model would require a more effective use of a strategic management approach in the public sector in Oman. In this research, the result of the data analysis reveals that, establishing a strategic management approach, would significantly impact on the operational decision making in the Muscat Municipality.

The findings show that the respondents ranked the degree of impact of environmental (external as opposed to internal) factors on their effectiveness as follows. 1st priority: political factors; 2nd priority: economic factors; 3rd priority: legal factors; 4th priority: social and cultural trends; 5th priority: green environment issues; and finally 6th priority: technological factors. In this research, attention has been drawn to the importance of the role of the Muscat Municipality to the realization of the growth and development of the senior managers in the public sector in Oman. The results point to the presence of factors which constitute 'parameters' of effectiveness at work. There is also a need for consideration of other parameters such as individual and organizational criteria, motivation, and the constraints and demands which determine the choices of behaviors and degree of effectiveness in a particular context.

8.4. The research contribution to theory and knowledge

This research has contributed to the field of managerial effectiveness and management development in two ways; namely its theoretical contribution, and in practical terms. Its practical contribution - policy implication and managerial implications will be discussed. Each of these sections are discussed below.

8.4.1. Theoretical contribution of the research

How effective are managers? How effective can they become? These are two basic questions which go to the heart of some of the most serious challenges facing developing countries in general and the Arab world in particular. The problems and issues underlying them demand to be probed and researched; their sensitivity and complexity demand to be respected. The notion of managerial effectiveness has always been an important part of managerial thought and action, but in recent years a dramatic increase has been seen in the pressures and constraints on managers, and on what they are expected to achieve. The individual findings associated with each of the research questions and objectives have been discussed in a previous section. The interpretation of these findings in relation to existing academic theories has been proposed in chapter seven. Some of the findings yield support for the work of other scholars and researchers, some modify and further elaborate existing concepts proposed in the literature. As such it contributes to the limited empirical evidence available in the field of managerial effectiveness.

In this research an attempt has been made to discuss the findings of the study and to answer the research questions. The concept of managerial effectiveness specifically remains one of the main topics of the interest to management scholars, researchers and practitioners. It is believed that there is little agreement on the ideal approach for defining or measuring management effectiveness. Nevertheless, a need for continual research into managerial effectiveness is deemed essential. The research benefits from the 'eight parameters framework' on managerial effectiveness developed by Analoui (1999, 2007). Theoretically this research builds on this framework and explores the implications of the model in the public sector in Oman. The framework may be viewed as a diagnostic model, with the merit of being

grounded in the perceptions of the senior managers themselves and as such is a reflection of their reality. The concept of effectiveness has to be viewed in relation to possible differences in context and may vary according to the individual manager, the nature and characteristics of his or her specialty, the personal characteristics of the workforce, the organization, and the demands and constraints in the environment.

Effectiveness, therefore, is a multi-dimensional concept and it should also be noted that its definition is open to different interpretations, that is, it is to a large extent a subjective concept. Attempts have been made to investigate an interesting and worthwhile set of issues. Much has been written about the importance of managerial effectiveness and managerial skills, but there are still relatively few thorough studies which consider the real needs of managers for increasing their effectiveness. However, one reality seems to persist - that there is no general agreement on the relative degree of importance attached to the various managerial effectiveness and managerial skills. It is likely that their importance may change with respect to circumstances.

8.4.2 Policy Implications

There is an increasing realization that management development can result in increasing managerial effectiveness, and management skills can be acquired by ways other than experience. In Oman the demand for better quality managerial competence and performance has been recognized as an important objective along with the overall aim of socio-economic development of the country. It is however, evident that the impact of management development on the overall development of the Muscat Municipality is underestimated. It was found that the development strategy for Muscat Municipality in Oman was formulated with little attention paid to management training and development. As a consequence, the development strategy at organizational level was also formulated without any attention being paid to enhancing the senior managers' development and increasing their effectiveness as a result. Based on the conclusions reached, the following implications for the Muscat Municipality and the Omani government are worthy of consideration.

In the view of the findings of this study, it is strongly recommended that the government ought to lay down a clear national strategy and policy for management development in the public sector in general and Muscat Municipality in particular. Such a policy should reflect the recognition of the imperative nature of management development for this sector on the part of government. Such a management development policy should then be integrated into the overall strategic human resource planning and development policies and strategies of the Muscat Municipality. The development and growth of senior managers must also be given a high degree of priority in the formulation of human resource development policy.

The absence of strategic human resource development and management development at the organizational level is apparent. Management development does not seem to be considered as a matter of concern. The findings show that managerial strategy at organizational level should support the HR practices. This would help the Muscat Municipality to formulate and implement its human resource development and management development strategies on a regular basis. Without explicit, deliberate and realistic strategic planning for developing managers in general and senior managers, in particular, the smooth operation and realisation of the organizational plans and strategies would be seriously hampered and consequently impede the development of organizations and the public sector in Oman as a whole.

This research highlighted the relationship between the functional areas of the public sector and human resources by analyzing the senior managers' perceptions of what constitutes effective leadership. This study also presents how human resource management practices are aligned to business strategies based on cost reduction, management quality and delivery performance. Therefore at the organizational level management development must be linked systematically to the other activities of human resource management to form an integral part of the total organizational effort to improve managerial and organizational effectiveness. Management development efforts should be backed up by an effective system of selection and appraisal, career planning, organizational planning and structure, and the presence of an improved management information system.

The commitment of the organizations to management development is seen as an essential element for the overall success of the organizational performance. It is therefore, important that the necessary resources are allocated and that top management support for the management development programs is ensured.

The findings and conclusions of this study might well provide the scholars and practitioners in Oman with an insight into the area of leadership effectiveness and management development in the Muscat Municipality and similar organizations in Oman. In terms of managerial implications, this research provides for managerial effectiveness, a clearer direction as to the effective delivery of the appropriate skills required for managers in the Muscat Municipality. It will also help the organizations to develop an appropriate human resource strategy for the development of their senior managers.

Finally, the findings of this research firmly suggests that there seems to be a perceived need amongst senior managers for more people-related, analytical and self-related skills which are vital for increasing the effectiveness of senior managers. Furthermore, it points to a real need for a balance of knowledge and skills based on management development programs in order to cope with the ever increasing complex demands of organizational problems in developing countries.

8.5. Limitations of the study

Generally speaking, like any other empirical work, the research suffers from some limitations. There are two main identifiable limitations. The first main limitation of the research is the focus of the study. The focus of this research is upon the Muscat Municipality in Oman. Therefore, it is recognized that the findings of this study, whilst relevant to the Municipality, may not be generalized to the wider population of public sector organizations in Oman. However, throughout the empirical research, care was taken to ensure that the findings reported were statistically robust. In particular, a sub-sample of senior managers was chosen for interview purposes to ensure that confidence could be placed in the validity and generalization of the research findings.

The second limitation of the study is a methodological limitation. As discussed previously, each research methodology has its own advantages and disadvantages. In chapter five, the advantages and disadvantages of alternative research techniques were highlighted and the researcher sought to counterbalance the inherent weaknesses of any specific procedure by combining methodological approaches. Such methodological triangulation was judged to enhance the validity, reliability and generalization of research findings. In spite of this, some limitations of the research methodology are noted. As both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered by means of survey techniques, the research suffers from the possibility of non-response bias, however much effort was made to reduce the possibility of non-response bias. During the primary data collection process, the researcher was dependent upon the vagaries of interpretation, self-observation and the eagerness of the respondents to please. While every effort was made to ensure the validity and reliability of the data through meticulous research design, it is unrealistic to assume that all of these problems can be avoided.

8.6. Suggestions for further research

Considering the research findings and limitations of the study, some of the further research possibilities are suggested below.

First, as it has been mentioned in the research limitations, this research focused on the Muscat Municipality sector. In order to eliminate this limitation, a replication of this research encompassing a sample from a wider organizational base, would be valuable. This could be carried out to explore further the notion of how management development strategies can be formulated.

Second, this research focused on exploring the senior managers' perception of the managerial effectiveness and management development in the Muscat Municipality in Oman. Accordingly, further research could be carried out to investigate the nature and methods of management development at an international level.

Further investigations could be carried out to study the integration of human resource strategies and practices with the organizational strategy in the public sector in Oman.

Since the study concentrated on the senior management and their perception of effectiveness, it would be interesting to extend the future studies to include heads of departments to see the consistency or otherwise of the results.

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APPENDIX: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey aims to explore the perception and development of the senior management regarding a) the parameters of their effectiveness, and b) their leadership behaviour, role and style in managing large-scale projects in Muscat. The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Please indicate your job title:

Gender: Male Female

Please indicate your age category:

Less than 30 30-39
40-49 50 and above

Please indicate your total years of service in Muscat Municipality:

Less than 2 2-5
5-10 10-15
15-20 20 and above

Please indicate your total years of service in public sector as the whole:

Less than 2 2-5
 5-10 10-15
 15-20 20 and above

Please indicate the highest level of your education:

Middle-school certificate High-school certificate
 Bachelor degree Master degree
 MBA Doctoral degree
 Other (please specify)

Do you have a professional qualification? Yes

SECTION B: SENIOR MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND PERCEPTION

Do you see yourself as one of the key individuals in the management of large scale programmes? Yes No Do know

Please name (up to four) major projects you have been associated with and/or leading in the last five years (Please tick):

Project names: Associated Involved Both

	with	in/leading	
a.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

How would you describe an effective leader/manager? (please rank your top THREE)

- | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| A good motivator | <input type="checkbox"/> | Ability to supervise/lead | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Allocate resources efficiently | <input type="checkbox"/> | Inspire people to perform beyond their contractual responsibilities | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Making people work to their contract | <input type="checkbox"/> | Meet deadlines | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Perform tasks satisfactorily | <input type="checkbox"/> | Responsible, conscientious and focused | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Solve problems | <input type="checkbox"/> | Teamwork/participation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

In your opinion, a senior manager/leader should:

- | | | | |
|---|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| have the right personality, appearance and attitude | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know <input type="checkbox"/> |
| be caring, inspirational, visionary and ethical | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know <input type="checkbox"/> |
| take risks and create opportunities | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know <input type="checkbox"/> |
| be able to adopt a leadership style suitable for dealing with hostile and ever changing environment | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know <input type="checkbox"/> |

motivate knowledge workers and develop learning organization Yes No Don't know

What managerial skills are essential for ensuring your effectiveness? (please tick as many as apply)

- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| Managing people (e.g. leadership, motivation, communication) | <input type="checkbox"/> | Managing tasks (e.g. finance, IT, information, strategic planning) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Analytical and career development skills (e.g. decision making, problem solving, career planning) | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

What motivates you towards your managerial/leadership effectiveness? (please rank your top THREE)

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Achieving set goals/targets | <input type="checkbox"/> | Achievement | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Good teamwork | <input type="checkbox"/> | Job satisfaction | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Promotion | <input type="checkbox"/> | Recognition from superiors | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Remuneration | <input type="checkbox"/> | Reward for hard work | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Training/self-development | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

What do you believe to be the criteria for effectiveness in your organisation especially in relation to management/leadership of large scale programmes ? (please tick as many as apply)

- | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Being competitive | <input type="checkbox"/> | Compliance with rules and regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Increased productivity | <input type="checkbox"/> | Meeting targets | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Planning abilities | <input type="checkbox"/> | Self-motivation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Time management | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

What prevents you from being effective in your company? (please tick as many as apply)

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| Inappropriate training | <input type="checkbox"/> | Ineffective leadership of the organization | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of communication | <input type="checkbox"/> | Lack of relevant people skills | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of relevant task skills and competences | <input type="checkbox"/> | Lack of motivation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of resources | <input type="checkbox"/> | Lack of teamwork | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Shortage of appropriate staff | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unrealistic targets | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

Which of the following choices do you believe would improve senior management effectiveness? (please tick as many as apply)

- | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Achievable targets | <input type="checkbox"/> | Appropriate motivation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Appropriate staff | <input type="checkbox"/> | Being able to set my own targets | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Career succession plan | <input type="checkbox"/> | Effective communication | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Necessary resources | <input type="checkbox"/> | Teamwork | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Training & development | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> |

.....

What is your view on the following statements?

Do you believe that your effectiveness is influenced by the overall effectiveness of your organization? Yes No Don't know

Is your effectiveness influenced by the degree of intra-connection with other departments in your organization? Yes No Don't know

Is your effectiveness influenced by the company's degree of connection with other organizations nationally and internationally? Yes No Don't know

Do you believe that your effectiveness is influenced by your relationship with others outside your organization? Yes No Don't know

SECTION C: CONTEXTUAL INFLUENCES AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

1. Which one of the following contexts influences your effectiveness the most?
(Please rank from 1-3 in order of importance to you (1 being the most and 3 being the least important)).

Personal circumstances such as skills, competences, experience,
family etc

The organisational circumstances such as structure, culture, overall
management and leadership.

The socio-economic, cultural and political circumstances in which my
organisation and I operate.

How would you describe your own managerial/ leadership style(s)? Please use the following Scale:

Little		So-So		Very
1	2	3	4	5

I demand compliance from employees and drive to achieve with
self-control

I believe in mobilising people. I have self-confidence and am a
change catalyst

I believe in creating harmony. I have empathy and communicate well

I believe in forging consensus, collaboration and team building

I set high standards, initiate drive to achieve objectives

I believe in developing people. I am self-aware and have empathy

In your position, how would you describe an effective leader? Please use the following Scale:

Little

So-So

Very

1

2

3

4

5

An effective leader maintains a relationship with employees in terms of trade, negotiation, bargaining based on their contract (employment agreement)

An effective leader is charismatic, inspire and motivate others to perform beyond their employment contract.

In your opinion, how would your organisation describe an effective leader? Please use the following Scale:

Little		So-So		Very
1	2	3	4	5

An effective leader should maintain a relationship with employees in terms of trade, negotiation, bargaining based on their contract (employment agreement)

An effective leader ought to be charismatic, inspire and motivate others to perform beyond their employment contract.

In my opinion the effectiveness of the leaders evolves around; please use the following Scale:

Little		So-So		Very
1	2	3	4	5

Their responsiveness to the situations and crisis

The way they approach their work statistically

Their planning and proactive measured response to situations

Developing their sub-ordinates to create their own successors

Their degree of competitiveness

The way they relate to people and empowering them to give their best to programmes and projects

- The way rules and procedures are used to ensure people fulfil the contractual obligations
- The freedom to manage their own work
- To work as a part of an effective team
- The way they emotionally relate to client (colleagues and public) with or for whom they work

SECTION D: FEEDBACK

1. Would you like to know the findings of the survey? Yes No
2. Would you be available to participate in the next stage of this research, for example, an interview? Yes No

If yes to either of the above, please complete your details below:

Your name/company name and address.....

.....

Tel.:

Email:

.....

Thank you very much for your contribution

Please return this form to Director of Training and Development.