

**Dedicated to my beloved parents,  
brothers, and sisters.**

## ABSTRACT

i.

An analytical study of the organizational climate and managerial thinking in the Sudan sugar industry by M.O. IBRAHIM.

The aims of this thesis may be summarized as follows: (1) to investigate organizational climate of Sudan sugar industry; (2) to examine and understand managerial thinking of top and middle managers; (3) to compare perceptions of managers within the sugar industry; and (4) to compare data from this investigation with those produced by similar studies in other countries.

The basis upon which conclusions of this study were drawn was Haire **et al**'s study (1966) the task of which was to find an empirical answer to the question of similarities and differences in managers' attitudes. The authors note that there is a very strong tendency for managers to express similar beliefs about what they do as managers. The Haire **et al** Questionnaire was used with some appropriate alterations and additions including some scales of the revised L. & S.O.C.Q. The main focus was (i) perceptions of managers about selected organizational climate dimensions; (ii) attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices; (iii) managerial motivations and satisfactions; and (iv) managers' perceptions of the role and practices of the manager. The questionnaire was distributed to all persons holding senior posts in the sugar organizations and was supplemented with interviews.

Results of the study showed that managers tend to reflect diverse attitudes about organizational climates of their organizations. However, despite the general trend of dissatisfaction about various dimensions particularly the structural aspects and terms of employment, managers still expressed great sense of belonging and loyalty to their organizations.

Sudanese managers, like their counterparts in developing countries, hold negative attitudes, toward participative management though they indicated favourable opinion of their subordinates as individuals and placed great emphasis on personal relationships at work. They regard power as the best thing of being a manager and consider authority and information as personal possession necessary to retain status and influence.

They reported relatively low perceived levels of need fulfilment at work and expressed the highest degree of dissatisfaction in all areas especially in the need area of security followed by Self-Actualization category and, like the general pattern of all countries' managers in Haire's study, they place the Self-Actualization need as most important.

There is common concern among them about their relationships with immediate superiors particularly about the autocratic style of leadership and the conduct of top management in general.

In general terms, however, the findings showed that the profile of Sudanese managers is most similar to that of their counterparts from the three developing countries in Haire **et al**'s study, and that they, like all managers of that study, shared similarities in many managerial aspects and indicated differences in others with managers across the various countries. Therefore the study findings provide more evidence to Haire **et al**'s conclusions that, 'Cross cultural studies of managers are fiendishly complex; no single explanation for similarities and differences is likely to be adequate; the emergence of a world-wide "culture" of industrial organization, the influence of national cultures, and the stage of economic development are not alternatives, but inter-connected influences of managerial thinking behaviour'.



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". . . What refines man, is work.

What kills man before his death, is despair.

What is better than knowledge, is experience.

What brings man honour and esteem, is modesty.

What is more cherished when he is old, is a  
friend.

What gives man tranquility, is the avoidance  
of envy.

What is indeed more profitable than wealth is  
wisdom.

What is indeed short, however long it may seem,  
is life.

What is indeed too many, however few of it there  
may be, is enemy.

What is indeed too little, however much of it  
one may have, is faith.

What is more horrific than all forms of lone-  
liness, is selfishness.

What is sturdier than all other shelters, is  
the avoidance of sins. . ."

Imam Ali

**PART I**  
**INTRODUCTION**



## INTRODUCTION

1. Purpose and Aims of the Study.
  2. Significance of the Study and choice of the Sugar Industry.
  3. Methodology and Sources of Research.
  4. Design of the Study.
- 

This introductory part presents background information about the study which will be useful to the reader, particularly in the early chapters which deal with wider aspects. The aim is to briefly describe the influences that led to undertaking the study, its purpose, aims and its focus. The intention is also to demonstrate the importance of the problem under investigation, explain the methodology of research, and outline the structure for the thesis.

### **1. PURPOSE AND AIMS OF THE STUDY:**

... There is ... strong feeling among developing countries that the political independence and equality which they have gained and established for themselves is inadequate and meaningless without a sound and viable economic base. All these countries find themselves under strong pressure to do something and do it quickly to exploit and use their material and human potentials in the optimum way... All this involves a high degree of painful change in traditional relationships, in institutions, and in attitudes of mind and way of thinking.<sup>1</sup>

- 
1. Hamza Mirghani (former Minister of Finance & Economics in Sudan), 'Public Administration in Developing Countries: The Multi-lateral Approach' in Burton A. Baker (ed.), Public Administration: A Key Development (U.S., 1963), p.27.

Like other countries of the developing world, to accelerate its socio-economic development, the Sudan used the device of public enterprises, particularly in the form of public corporations. The idea of the public corporation attracts the developing countries partly because of its acceptability to a wide range of political opinion, partly because of its potential organizational and managerial effectiveness and practical achievements. For the socialist and more extreme left, the public corporation is the starting point in bringing natural resources under public control for the benefit of the whole population. For more private enterprise-oriented people, the public corporation is the guarantee that activities are carried out more effectively in a 'business-like' way by expert and skilled professionals in accordance with sound commercial standards. The aim is to pursue public goals by private methods: government control and goal setting to be achieved by the flexibility and initiative of private enterprise. It is characterised by systems of management and control that distinguish it from the bureaucracy serving the more traditional government functions. The public corporation has even been regarded as the cure for many administrative and managerial problems, hence many departmental enterprises in Sudan have been converted into corporations. Ironically, however, people recently seem to be extremely disappointed and conceive that some of the public corporations have themselves become a problem after they failed to achieve their objectives and become a burden on the economy.

Thus various studies, investigations and inquiries have been undertaken by both local and international committees and other bodies, in attempts to trace the problem and suggest possible actions to be



taken in order to rectify the difficulties of these corporations and help achieve their objectives. However, all these contributions are mostly dealing with isolated variables and factors mainly related to the interest and/or the specific areas of speciality of the individual or body conducting the study. The efforts of those who tried to tackle the problem from the managerial angle, however, are sparse, scattered and fragmented and none of them has tapped the area of organizational climate and managerial thinking as such to investigate in any comprehensive manner issues like managers' attitudes, motivations and satisfactions that affect managerial practices and behaviour. Therefore, from his previous experience in the Management of the Sugar Industry as one of the largest public enterprises in Sudan and his current position as a teacher of management at the Sudan Academy for Administrative Sciences, the main training institution of the country, the researcher considered undertaking this study, approaching the problem from a different and hence new angle, which will augment existing data and provide researchers and practitioners of management with important information on the subject.

- **Aims of the Study:**

- i) To investigate organizational climate of the Sudan Sugar Industry as perceived by its top and middle managers;
- ii) To examine and understand managerial thinking of top and middle managers of the sugar industry, i.e. what management principles and assumptions they hold and what approach (classical or modern) they adopt;
- iii) To compare perceptions of managers within the sugar industry; and
- iv) To compare data from this investigation with those produced by similar studies in other countries.



- **Specific focus of the Study**

Investigations of this study will mainly focus on:

A. Perceptions of managers on items of selected organizational climate dimensions namely:

1. Structure - which indicates the feeling that employees have about the constraints in the group, how many rules, regulations, procedures there are; is there an emphasis on 'red tape' and going through channels, or is there a loose and informal atmosphere?
2. Responsibility - the feeling of being your own boss; not having to double-check all your decisions; when you have a job to do, knowing that it is your job.
3. Reward/Terms of employment - the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done; emphasizing positive rewards rather than punishments; perceived fairness of the pay and promotion policies.
4. Identity - the feeling that you belong to a working team; the importance placed on this kind of spirit.
5. Warmth - the feeling of general good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; the emphasis on being well liked; the prevalence of friendly and informal social groups.

B. Leadership, Motivations and Satisfactions:

1. Attitudes and Assumptions underlying management practices.
2. Managerial motivations and satisfactions.
3. Managerial Activities and experiences of respondents.

## 2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY AND CHOICE OF THE SUGAR INDUSTRY

The importance of this area of investigation stems from various significant factors:

- Interest in the utilization of public enterprise in the Sudan as a key instrument of national development and the special place given to the sugar corporation in the country's development plans as a strategic sector in the economy;
- The sugar industry is the largest agricultural industry in the country;
- It can be used as representative of a category of public corporations, which attempt to combine profit making and social roles, and its managers may represent or at least throw light on the managerial thinking and behaviour of all Sudanese managers.
- Managers are seen as having a critically important role to play in development and nation building and in coping with scarcity of resources and insufficiency of infrastructure in a developing country like Sudan, great skills of management and organization will be imperative. This study provides an opportunity to understand the managerial thinking and behaviour and assess managerial capabilities and skills of Sudanese managers. This study, as far as the researcher is concerned, is the first of its kind in Sudan and thus it will add to the literature of public administration in Sudan and enable researchers, policy-makers, and administrators to look into it for research and training purposes.
- As international organizations are expanding and becoming more and more multi-national in character and more frequently various organizations from different parts of the world are engaged with one another, there is a compelling need for understanding managerial thinking of managers across the world.
- Moreover, findings of this study can add to the knowledge related to cross-cultural theories especially those relating to the ongoing debate concerning the appropriateness of transferring management principles and practices, and similarities and differences in managers' viewpoints across the world.

A prominent study in comparative management is the one reported by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter in their book Managerial Thinking : An International Study (1966). Haire **et al**'s study, which was about attitudes of managers in various countries, asks the questions: When managers think about managing, are their ideas all pretty much the same, or does managerial thinking differ from country to country? From their data about 3,641 managers from 14 countries they note that there is a very high degree of similarity among managers' attitudes in all the countries studied. Findings of their study provide supporting evidence to the belief in the universality of managerial philosophy. However, of all the differences observed among managers, about 25 percent of the variations were associated with national differences.

### 3. METHODOLOGY AND SOURCES OF RESEARCH

To investigate organizational climate of the Sugar Industry and examine managerial thinking of its managers, the researcher used the following as main sources to obtain the necessary data:

1. Literature review - from references, comparative studies and international experience which primarily included the Haire **et al** study (1966) for the comparative focus.
2. Relevant previous studies in sugar industry and other public enterprises of Sudan.
3. Official documents and reports prepared by both national and international experts and consultants.
4. Acts, memoranda and Articles of Association of the Sugar Industry, and organizational structures of the factories.



5. Working conditions of the industry.
6. Records of performance of the factories.
7. Occasional papers, proceedings of conferences and symposiums.
8. Questionnaire based on the Haire **et al** questionnaire for the comparative focus of the study which also utilized some scales of the revised Litwin and Stringer Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B).  
  
It will be described in detail in the Methodology chapter.
9. Semi-structured focused interviews with a sample of managers.
10. Observation by researcher.

All primary data and a great deal of secondary data necessitated a field trip to Sudan where all managers and organizations studied are located. Our investigation involved directly the following organizations:

1. The headquarters of the Sugar Corporation (currently Sugar-coordinating office);
2. Guneid Sugar Factory;
3. New Halfa Sugar Factory;
4. Sennar Sugar Factory;
5. Assalaya Sugar Factory;
6. Kenana Sugar Factory;
7. The Ministry of Industry; and
8. Sugar Project Implementation Committee (SPIC).



## 4. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

### Part I

#### Introduction

This part describes influences leading to the undertaking of the study, its purpose, and its focus. It demonstrates the importance of the problem under investigation, explains the methodology of research, and outlines the structure of the thesis.

### Part II

#### Theoretical Concepts and Literature Review

##### Chapter 1

In this chapter some definitions of organizational climate are given, theories and research on the subject are reviewed, and measurements are explained. Some selected dimensions of organizational climate of the sugar industry are included in both questionnaire and interview questions of the study.

##### Chapter 2

This chapter surveys the role of management, functions of management, and what managers do.

It reviews some relevant classical and modern organizational and management theories which presented organizational structures and underlying assumptions about human nature - which are the focus of this investigation.

##### Chapter 3

This chapter deals with management in an international context and presents in some detail the findings of Haire **et al's** study (1966) with which results of this investigation are compared.

### **Part III**

#### Background to Case Study and Research Methodology

##### Chapter 4

To give the reader sufficient acquaintance with Sudan Sugar Industry and the Sudanese context, this chapter looks into aspects relating to the Sudan and to its public corporations starting with the roles of public enterprise in general, the creation and development of public corporations in Sudan, and then concentrates solely on the sugar industry investigating its producing units, establishment, organization and management, performance and so on.

##### Chapter 5

This chapter outlines methods and techniques generally used to collect data and describes in detail the methodology adopted by this study in its empirical investigation of the issues in focus.

### **Part IV**

#### Survey of Empirical Data and Conclusions

##### Chapter 6

In this chapter research data are analysed, direct comparisons are made with data from Haire **et al's** study, and findings are summarized.

##### Chapter 7

Finally, our study conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for training and future research which bring the thesis to an end, are presented in this chapter.

PART II  
THEORETICAL CONCEPTS AND  
LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 1  
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE  
(CONCEPTS AND MEASUREMENTS)

- 1.1 Introduction.
  - 1.2 Some Definitions.
  - 1.3 A Review of Some Theories and Research.
    - 1.3.1 Multiple Measurement - Organizational Attribute Approach.
    - 1.3.2 Perceptual Measurement - Organizational Attribute Approach.
    - 1.3.3 Perceptual Measurement - Individual Attribute Approach.
  - 1.4 The Importance of Lewin's Theory of Motivation for Managers.
  - 1.5 Dimensions of Organizational Climate.
  - 1.6 Subsystem Climates in Organizations.
  - 1.7 Characteristics of Organizational Climate.
  - 1.8 Summary.
- 

To understand the attitudes and managerial thinking of managers, it is important to understand the organizational climate within which the managers work. Therefore, one of the aims of this study is to investigate the organizational climate of the Sudan Sugar Industry.

This chapter is intended to introduce the concept of organizational climate and survey some theories and research on the subject, indicating its importance for managers and presenting some dimensions for its measurement.



## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Surveys of organizational climate have emerged in recent years as a means of delineating the subjective environmental factors that affect organizational performance. The assumption underlying such studies is that by thoroughly understanding the positive or negative impact of his practices, a manager can take specific actions to improve the climate and thereby raise the level of motivation and performance within his organizational unit.

This concept was developed in the late 1960s by George A. Litwin and his associates in the research division of the Harvard Business School. They wrote in 'Motivation and Organizational Climate' that: 'effective management depends upon an understanding of human motivation that goes beyond the "common sense" of conventional wisdom', and thus necessitates a systematic method of gathering this information. Climate surveys resulted.

During the last decade organizational climate has become an important theoretical and empirical issue in the study of organizations. Extensive reviews of the organizational climate literature are provided by Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970, pp.385-414). Hellriegel and Slocum (1974); James and Jones (1974); Payne and Pugh (1976, pp.1125-1173); and Woodman and King (1978). In spite of the extensive organizational climate literature, there remains serious problems of conceptualization and operationalization.

Johannesson (1973) suggests that operational definitions of organizational climate may be generally classified as either objective or perceptual. Objective definitions of organization climate focus on characteristics of the organization, such as size, levels of authority,

or complexity. It is assumed that these reliably measured environmental characteristics are perceived directly or indirectly by organizational members and thus influence their attitudes and behaviours (Sims & LaFollette, 1975).

Perceptual operationalizations of climate focus directly on the attitudes held by individuals in the organization concerning such salient aspects of the organization as structure, reward, and warmth. This approach treats organizational climate as a variable which necessarily intervenes between the objective organizational characteristics and the individual's job-related motivations and resultant behaviours (Sim & LaFollette, 1975).

## 1.2 SOME DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

In the Litwin and Stringer Organizational Climate Questionnaire (LSOCQ, 1968), which is a perceptual measure of organizational climate, the term 'organizational climate' refers to:

a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour.

(1968, p.1).

The LSOCQ was developed to ascertain organization members'

perceptions and subjective responses to the organizational environment. The climate of an organization could then be defined operationally as the sum of the perceptions of the individuals working in that organization.

(Litwin & Stringer, 1968, p.66).



According to Richard W. Woodman<sup>1</sup> and Donald C. King,<sup>2</sup> possibly the earliest definition of organizational climate to gain wide acceptance (as reflected by the frequency with which it has been cited) comes from Forehand and Gilmer.<sup>3</sup> To them, organization climate means:

... The set of characteristics that describe an organization and that

- (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations;
- (b) are relatively enduring over time; and
- (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organization.

(p. 362).

Tagiuri and Litwin considered this definition deficient in terms of individual perceptions, noting that the climate of an organization is interpreted by its members in ways which impact their attitudes and motivation and thus proposed the following definition:

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that -

- (a) is experienced by its members;
- (b) influences their behaviour; and
- (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization.

(1965, p.27)

Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick<sup>4</sup> focused on the properties of climate and offered a definition based upon a review of the factors

1. Assistant Professor of Management at Texas A. & M. University.
2. Professor of Administrative Sciences & Management at Purdue University.
3. G.A. Forehand and B. Gilmer, 'Environmental Variation in Studies of Organizational Behaviour', Psychological Bulletin, Vol.62 (1964).
4. J. Campbell, M.D. Dunnette, E.E. Lawler and K.E. Weick, Managerial Behaviour, Performance and Effectiveness (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1976).



that might contribute to climate in an organization:

... we might define climate as a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way that organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within the organization, climate takes the form of a set of attributes and expectancies which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behaviour-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies.

(p.390).

These definitions have some common elements. Organizational climate is usually considered to be a molar concept in the same sense that personality is a molar concept. The climate of a particular organization, while certainly not unchanging, nevertheless has an air of permanence or at least some continuity over time. Phenomenologically, climate is external to the individual, yet cognitively the climate is internal to the extent that it is affected by individual perceptions. Climate is reality-based and thus is capable of being shared in the sense that observers or participants may agree upon the climate of an organization or group, although this consensus may be constrained by individual differences in perceptions. This 'commonality of perceptions' is considered by some to differentiate climate from other organizational variables such as satisfaction. The climate of an organization potentially impacts the behaviour of people in the system. Thus, it is natural that we want to know more about climates we experience daily in organizations so we can apply our knowledge to managing and understanding Organizations.

### **1.3 A REVIEW OF SOME THEORIES AND RESEARCH - Lawrence R. James and Allan P. Jones**

The authors review the subject through what seems to be three separate but not mutually exclusive approaches to defining and measuring organizational climate. They have designated these approaches as the 'multiple measurement organizational attribute approach' which regards organizational climate exclusively as a set of organizational attributes or main effects measurable by a variety of methods; the 'perceptual measurement organizational attribute approach' which views organizational climate as (1) a set of perceptual variables which are still seen as organizational main effects; and (2) the 'perceptual measurement individual attribute approach' which views organizational climate as perceptual and as an individual attribute.

#### **1.3.1 Multiple Measurement Organizational Attribute Approach**

Forehand and Gilmer postulated that the effect of organizational climate on individual behaviour could be demonstrated in terms of the definition of stimuli presented to individual members, the constraints placed upon the individual's freedom of choice regarding behaviour, and the reward or punishment process. Dimensions of organizational climate were: size, structure, systems, complexity, leadership style, and goal directions.

The major components of situational variance in an organizational model could include the organizational context, structure, system values and norms, process, and physical environment as well as the various subsystem (e.g. department) and subgroup (e.g. workgroup). A

full organizational model would also include the socio-cultural environment and individual characteristics.

Frederiksen conducted a laboratory experiment on middle management in which the proposed climate variables of 'closeness of supervision' and 'rules and regulations' were varied. Results of the study demonstrated that:

- (a) performance was more predictable for subjects in an innovative climate;
- (b) performance was higher for subjects in consistent climates (e.g. innovation and autonomy or rules and close supervision; and
- (c) subjects in different climates used different methods to solve problems.

From a more general standpoint, studies which may be included under the multiple measurement organizational attribute approach are determined simply by one's definition of organizational climate. In fact almost any study focusing on organizational or group characteristics would be included in the general area of organizational climate. In this respect the authors concluded that:

Organizational climate appears synonymous with organizational situation and seems to offer little more than a semantically appealing but 'catch-all-term'.



### 1.3.2 Perceptual Measurements - Organizational Attribute Approach

Campbell **et al** (1970) identified four general categories of the organizational situation, which are:-

- (a) structural properties;
- (b) environmental characteristics;
- (c) organizational climate; and
- (d) formal role characteristics.

Of particular interest in Campbell **et al**'s (1970) review was that while the authors stated that the critical elements of organizational climate were individual perceptions of the organization and that it was these perceptions which governed his behaviour, climate itself was viewed as a situational variable or organizational main effect. In a later paper, Campbell and Beaty stressed that organizational climate was a description of the organizational situation and as such must contain a significant portion of the between-group variance.

Campbell **et al** (1970), in a review of synthesis of four studies (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal, 1946; Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Schneider & Bartlett, 1968), identified the following dimensions of organizational climate and the factors or variables on which they were based:

1. Individual autonomy - based on the factors of individual responsibility, agent independence, rules orientation and opportunities for exercising individual initiative.

2. The degree of structure imposed upon the position, based on the factors of structure, managerial structure, and closeness of supervision.
3. Reward orientation - based on the factors of reward, general satisfaction, promotion achievement orientation, and being profit minded and sales oriented.
4. Consideration, warmth and support - based on the factors of managerial support, nurturance of subordinates and warmth and support.

As pointed out by the authors, the similarity of items in the studies and the resulting few factors probably indicated that the list of dimensions was still incomplete, with many factors of organizational climate still to be determined.

An organizational climate study of salaried personnel in a manufacturing plant indicated that:

- (a) Subjects had more finely differentiated perceptions of their job climate than of their total organization's climate;
- (b) a significant portion of climate variance was attributable to subunit differences (rather than individual differences in perceptions); and
- (c) climate perceptions were significantly, but not highly related to measure of work group performance.

Seven dimensions of organizational climate that were common to both overall organization and the work group were:

- task structure
- reward/performance relationship
- decision centralization
- achievement emphasis
- training and development emphasis
- security versus risk, and
- openness versus defensiveness.

Pritchard and Karasick used a portion of Campbell's organizational climate questionnaire to study the climate perceptions of seventy-six Managers from two organizations. Results demonstrated that perceptions of organizational climate were influenced by both the overall organization and its subunits, that climate scores correlated with individual satisfaction and subunit performance (but not individual performance), and that some dimensions of organizational climate moderated the individual characteristics - performance and satisfaction relationships. Perceived organizational climate was defined as:

a description of the current organizational state vis-à-vis some facet of the situation.

e.g. (the general level of financial rewards in this organization is about the same as for similar organizations).



Job satisfaction was differentiated from both of the above and was described as:

a comparison of the degree of attainment of some job outcome with the individual's need for it.

Schneider also differentiated between organizational climate and job satisfaction, seeing organizational climate as the beliefs people hold about an organization, while job satisfaction was conceived as an evaluative reaction to the organization (e.g. satisfied/not satisfied, good/bad, just/unjust) based upon an interaction between the job environment and personal needs and values.

### **1.3.3 Perceptual Measurement - Individual Attribute Approach**

Many of the features identifying this approach were presented by Schneider and his associates (Schneider, 1972, 1973; Schneider & Bartlett, 1968, 1970; Schneider & Hall, 1972).

Schneider & Hall (1972) described organizational climate as a set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their organizational environment. These summary perceptions reflected an interaction between personal and organizational characteristics, in which the individual by forming climate perceptions -

acts as an information processor, using inputs from -

- (a) the objective events in and characteristics of the organization; and
- (b) characteristics (e.g. values and needs) of the perceiver.

(p. 447).

Climate was further conceptualized as an 'intervening variable' because it was caused by discrete experiences (both organizational and

individual) and in turn caused later behaviours. Second and of major importance, organizational climate was seen as an individual attribute:

What is psychologically important to the individual must be how he perceives his work environment, not how others might choose to describe it.

(Schneider, 1973, p.254).

The authors concluded from their survey of organizational climate definitions and the results demonstrated by other authors' studies on climate perceptions of members of some organizations that - 'as a first step in reconceptualization, it is recommended that a differentiation be made between climate regarded as an organizational attribute and climate regarded as an individual attribute'. When regarded as an organizational attribute, the term organizational climate appears appropriate. When regarded as an individual attribute, it is recommended that a new designation such as 'psychological climate' be employed.

The first explicit studies of psychological climate were initiated by Kurt Lewin in the 1930s. (This will be reviewed later in this chapter.)

In The Human Side of Enterprise, Douglas McGregor has also developed what he calls the 'managerial climate' defined in terms of the manifestations of the assumptions of management:

The day-by-day behaviour of the immediate superior and of other significant people in the managerial organization communicates something about their assumptions concerning management which is of fundamental significance. Many behavioural manifestations of managerial attitudes create what is often referred to as the psychological climate of the relationship.

(McGregor, 1960, pp.133-34).

He goes on to state:

... the climate is more significant than the type of leadership or the personal 'style' of the superior. The boss can be autocratic or democratic, warm and outgoing or remote and introverted, easy or tough, but these personal characteristics are of less significance than the deeper attitudes to which his subordinates respond.

(McGregor, 1960, p.134).

Blake and Mouton, in The Managerial Grid, also see the need for a general concept of organizational climate. They use the term 'organizational culture', stating that:

When a manager sees his responsibility as that of managing a culture rather than just managing people to get work out of them, the basic unit of development is no longer the individual considered separately and alone.

(Blake and Mouton, 1964, p.169).

#### **1.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF LEWIN'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION & OTHER STUDIES ON HUMAN BEHAVIOUR FOR MANAGERS.**

It has been previously stated that the first explicit studies of psychological climate were initiated by Kurt Lewin in the 1930s. In seeking to describe the essential dynamics that linked human behaviour to generalized environmental stimuli, he states:

To characterise properly the psychological field, one has to take into account such specific items as particular goals stimuli needs, social relations as well as more general



characteristics of the field as the atmosphere (for instance, the friendly, tense, or hostile atmosphere) or the amount of freedom. These characteristics of the field as a whole are as important in psychology as, for instance, the field of gravity for the explanation of events in classical physics. Psychological atmospheres are empirical realities and are scientifically describable facts.

(Lewin, 1951, p.241).

Lewin, Lippitt and White attempted to study climate as an 'empirical reality' in an experiment involving the behavioural effects of three different leader-induced atmospheres: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. The authors reported:

The adult-leader role was found to be a very strong determiner of the pattern of social interaction and emotional development of the group. Four clear-cut types of social atmosphere emerged, in spite of great member differences in social expectation and reaction tendency due to previous adult-leader (parent, teacher) relationships.

(Lippitt and White, 1958, p.510).

In other words, the climate itself proved more powerful than previously 'acquired' behaviour tendencies, and it was able to change the observed behaviour patterns of the group members.

They go on to state:

It was clear that previous group history (i.e. preceding social climates) had an important effect in determining the social perception on leader behaviour and reaction to it by club members. A club which had passively accepted an authoritarian leader in the beginning of its club history, for example, was much more frustrated and resistive to a second authoritarian leader after it had experienced a democratic leader than a club without such a history.

(Lippitt and White, 1958, pp.510-11).

According to Lewin's theory of motivation, the concept of atmosphere or climate was an essential functional link between the person (**P**) and the environment (**E**). He was convinced that climates were 'scientifically desirable facts' and 'empirical realities'.

Among other several attempts at climate theory building made, is the interpersonal organization theory proposed by Kahn and his associates (1964), which was called Role-set Theory. The organization is pictured as a vast set of overlapping and interlocking role-sets (some of which transcend the boundaries of the organization).

In some ways, this theory represents an alternative to the climate model which can be distinguished from it in at least the following significant ways:

1. The role set theory implies that organizational influences are largely limited to the specific subgroup with whom the member has contact. On the other hand, the climate model suggests that organizational/environmental influences are more general and diffuse. Further the climate model suggests that certain factors such as history and tradition, leadership style, spatial arrangements etc. do influence through climate, the motivation and behaviour of individuals.

2. The role-set theory is somewhat more rational in emphasis and in method of measurement. Climate on the other hand may have many non-rational components e.g. no person in the organization may consciously hold a certain view, yet that view might have become part of the climate. Individuals may be completely unconscious of the effect climate is having on them and others.
3. The expectations of the role-set are assumed by Kahn to have some reasonable stability, at least as long as the role-set itself is stable. Climate conditions, on the other hand, are assumed to show properties of cyclical change, time decay and fairly rapid temporary shifts.
4. The role-set theory rests on molecular analysis. It would be difficult to assess the total sum of role-set expectations in a large complex organization. Such a sum requires an extremely detailed body of data on individuals and groups; while the climate model utilizes a molar level of analysis. It would be somewhat easier to describe climate in a large organization, though the same amount of precise data about individual role behaviour would not be available.
5. Finally, a manager would go about influencing climate and role-set expectations quite differently. He could change the influence of the role-set by changing members or by directly influencing expectations through training. In trying to influence climate he has to take a lot of factors into consideration. He might have to look at the physical plant, the geographic location, the procedures and practices and his own leadership style and that of others.



A manager has, furthermore, only a limited number of ways of affecting role-set expectations, but he has a much wider range of alternative approaches to changing the climate. He could begin with any of the factors mentioned above, depending on which were most accessible or manageable.

Litwin & Stringer stated that if the concept of organizational climate is to demonstrate real value in the understanding and explanation of behaviour in organizations, it must be integrated with the kinds of theories of organizational behaviour that have evolved and are in current use. Therefore, as an attempt to create an integrated model of organizational behaviour, they presented the two figures below. In this model the concept of organizational climate is used as an intervening variable, mediating between organizational system factors and motivation tendencies. The perceptions and subjective responses which comprise the organizational climate are seen as stemming from a variety of factors like the patterns of leadership and management practices (such as expectations of management praise, rewards, and punishments). Others are related in their development more to the formal systems and structure of the organization (such as the knowledge of monetary incentive plans or regular promotions). Others are the result of the behaviour of co-workers (such as the anticipations and feelings about social support and rewards resulting from the activities, interactions, and sentiments that build up in the group).

FIGURE 1.1

A Motivation and Climate Model of  
Organizational Behaviour

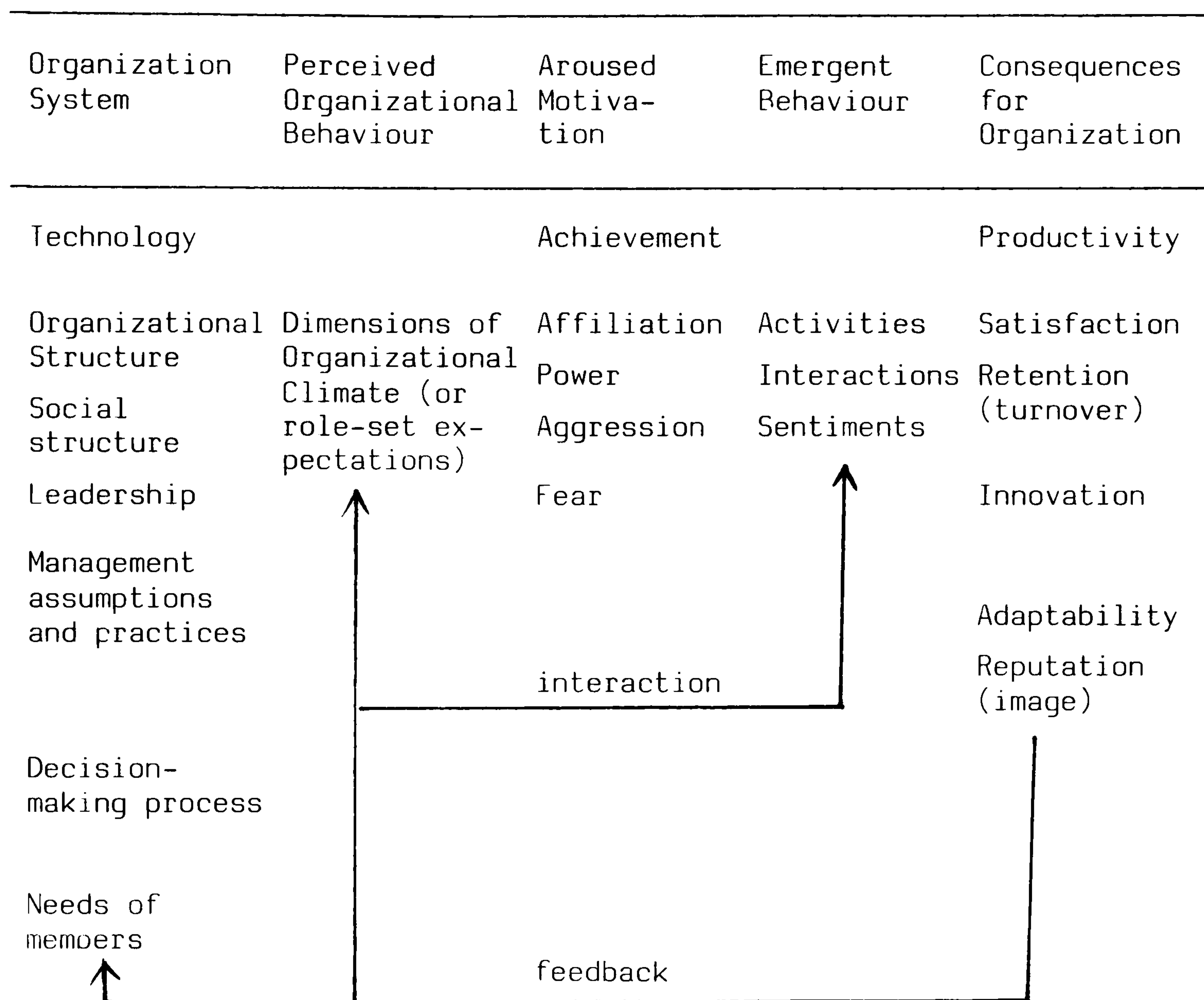
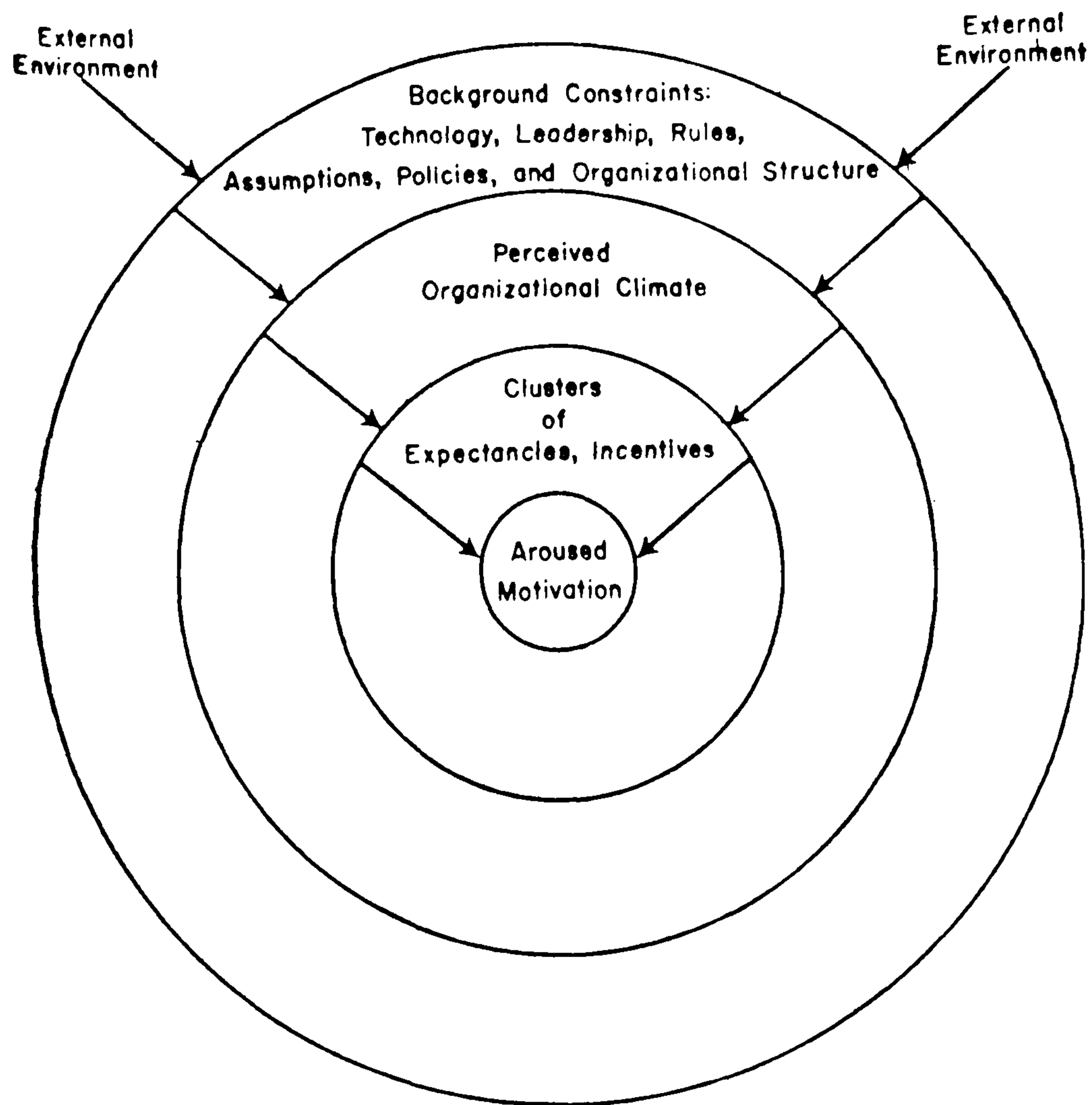


Figure 1.1 is an attempt to outline an input-output systems model. The organization features are seen as generating an organizational climate, which in turn arouses (or suppresses) particular motivational tendencies. The patterns of motivated behaviour that result are seen as determining a variety of consequences for the organization, including productivity, satisfaction, retention (or turnover), adaptability, and reputation. In this model Kahn's role-set expectations are viewed as equivalent to organizational climate, though a number of differences between these concepts have already been discussed.

FIGURE 1.2

A Subjective Model of The Determinants of  
Motivated Behaviour in Organizations



Source : Motivation and Organizational Climate,  
Litwin and Stringer (1968)

Figure 1.2 attempts to clarify the nature of the perceptions involved. It outlines a subjective model of the determinants of motivated behaviour in organizations. The two inner circles represent the person, the intermediate one represents the direct determinants of the person's motivation, and the outer sphere represents the more indirect influences on motivation (which are the direct determinants of climate).



The authors stated that just as climate provides theorists with a conceptual link between the elements of the organizational system and the determinants of individual behaviour, it provides managers with a link between their organization's procedures and practices and the concerns and needs of individual workers. Managers must know how different procedures and practices will stimulate (or fail to stimulate) these workers needs and how worker motivation can be enhanced. To gain this understanding managers must study the dynamics of their own working climates so that they will learn to appreciate the relationships between their own managerial behaviours and motivated behaviour of their work force (for climate represents the direct determinants of motivation).

### 1.5 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The authors explained that the relevant meaning of the word 'dimension' as used in this context is the definition that comes in Webster's Third New International Dictionary i.e.

the particular set of ... environmental factors  
... with reference to which something is viewed  
...;... one of the aspects of a cultural  
phenomenon.

The cultural phenomenon of which it represents an aspect is the climate produced in an organizational setting. No matter how we speak of specific dimensions, whether we say they are convenient clusters because of their suitability for measurement, or we speak of them as if they are direct measures of the situational determinants which actually arouse the motives we are studying, etc. What is significant is that the dimensions are suitable for measurement. They serve to

describe an organizational situation and simultaneously differentiate between any such situations. A manager would not act directly upon the attitudes which comprise the dimension, but rather upon the organizational elements to which the dimensions are related - he adjusts rewards and punishments directly, not the people's attitudes about rewards and punishments. Thus, he is interested in three things:

- (1) That the dimensions allow him to describe the situation accurately.
- (2) That they allow him to relate the dimensions to specific motivations and motivated behaviour; and
- (3) That they allow him to measure changes in the situation.

Some of the dimensions that will satisfy these three needs according to the authors are summarized in the following:-

#### Structure & Constraint

Situational structure was isolated as a climate dimension by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) and there are several major studies of business organizations that suggest that structure is an important variable affecting individual and group behaviour (Lorsch, 1964, 1966; Hall, 1962; Burns and Stalker, 1961; and Woodward, 1958). McGregor (1960) emphasizes the inefficiency and 'demotivation' effects of the traditional organizational environment, with its reliance on high structure, authoritarian control and strict job definitions. Fleishman and Harris (1962) point out that employee absenteeism, accidents and turnover are directly related to what we are calling structure. Directive leadership is described by these authors as leading to high structure and high grievance and turnover rates, particularly when conditions of mutual trust and respect are poor. This point is also



made by Likert (1961) who emphasizes the need for a new 'management system' of overlapping, participative groups at all levels of the organization. Also, Argyris (1964) describes some of the effects an organization's formal and informal structure can have on the interpersonal relationships and task behaviour of the members of the organization:

If followed completely, the organizational structure, with its values about effective interpersonal relationships, would tend to create a managerial world in which there is -

- (1) an increase in not owning, not being open, not taking risks;
- (2) an increase in conformity, dependence, external commitment; and
- (3) an increase in organizational defences, inter-departmental rivalries, and less effective decision-making.

(Argyris, 1964, p.109).

#### Emphasis on Individual Responsibility

Argyris' ideas about dependence and commitment lead to the isolation of another climate dimension. Logically associated with the structure of an organization is the degree of emphasis placed on individual responsibility. Empirical studies by Horowitz (1961) show that subjects with a high need for achievement prefer jobs which allow them more personal responsibility for their behaviour and its consequences. In a number of business games, it was noticed that high achievers consistently chose to work in the situations where the results depended on their own efforts rather than on pure chance, even though the probabilities of success were the same in both situations.



The authors claimed that this finding is consistent with their theory of achievement motivation, which they defined as concern for success in competition with some standard of excellence. They explained that effective concern for setting such high standards implies that an individual will seek to control the means of attaining his achievement goal. It also implies that he will desire concrete feedback on his progress in relation to his standard.

Situations involving pure chance or severe restrictions on individual accountability do not induce the expectations and incentives which arouse the achievement motive. Results of the study demonstrated that such expectations and incentives are products of past successful performances in situations where there was personal accountability, and the individual did feel responsible for the outcome of his task behaviour. Furthermore, when the situation becomes constrained, so that success is not his success, the incentive value of succeeding at the task is greatly reduced.

Achievement motivation, then, is nurtured in a climate that allows individuals to assume a good deal of responsibility. If the climate of responsibility is such that the status differentiation is made salient i.e. if the climate emphasizes the importance and status of 'being your own boss', rather than emphasizing the freedom and feedback aspects of personal responsibility, then power motivation may also be influenced by this dimension. Uleman (1966) points out that a salient aspect of Power is the defensive posture of the motive. He

cites Veroff, who reports that -

... all the work seems to point to the measure (i.e.  $n$  Power) as a diagnosis of fear of being influenced.

(Uleman, 1966, p.2).

A climate that emphasizes individual responsibility may arouse  $n$  Power. Individuals would seek control of the means of influence because of their fear of being influenced if they did not.

Studies of business organizations emphasizing the importance of individual responsibility include those by Zalegnik (1958), Whyte (1955), Likert (1961), Vroom (1962), and Kornhauser (1964). Zalegnik speaks of the depressing and demotivating effects of 'indifferent psychological environments' which leave the workers out of the decision-making process. He makes the hypothesis that 'frozen groups' are created by such climates, and workers seem neither to want nor to need opportunities to grow. Whyte, Vroom, and Kornhauser report that job satisfaction, mental health, and level of performance are all directly related to the opportunities for 'self expression', 'self control', 'participation' and 'individual freedom and responsibility' presented by the worker's environment. Argyris (1964) also emphasizes this climate dimension as crucial in integrating the individual and the organization.

The main thrust of Likert's new management system is to enlarge the individual responsibilities of every work group member. Given the proper group climate, Likert states that an emphasis on individual responsibility will lead to higher group loyalty, higher group flexibility, and higher group performance standards (Likert, 1961, pp.39-

43, 119-139, 166-169). He concludes that, there would be little opportunity for, and little reward and recognition of, personal attempts to attain secure status positions at the expense of the other members of the group.

### Warmth and Support

Warmth and emotional support have long been thought to be an important influence in human development. Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) found that the amount of warmth and support provided by fathers was an important determinant of the need for achievement of their sons. By observing father and son interactions during block building and ring toss games, three kinds of measures were obtained:

- = a measure of the standards a father set for his son;
- = a measure of the warmth and support a father exhibited (how he helped his son during the game);
- = and a measure of a father's dominance.

It was found that the fathers of boys with a high need for achievement set consistently higher standards for their sons than did fathers of boys with a low need for achievement. Fathers of the 'highs' also tended to exhibit more warmth and support, more 'happy anxiety-relieving, laughing-joking behaviour'. Finally, the fathers of the high achievers showed less dominating behaviour than did the fathers of the 'lows'. The latter showed a greater tendency to give their sons more specific directions as to how they should approach their work. This last finding suggests that high structure (meaning more specific direction) is associated with low levels of warmth and support. The authors state that, although Rosen and D'Andrade isolated a general dimension of warmth and support, the



theory of achievement motivation leads them to believe that the support and encouragement, rather than the warmth and friendliness, present in a situation is more important for the arousal of achievement.

Litwin and Stringer think that field studies do not generally differentiate between the supportive aspects of organizational situations and the warmth and friendliness that is provided. They claim, however, that there is much evidence that, taken together or separately, they have striking effects on motivated behaviour. McGregor (1960) views employee-centred warmth and support as a necessary condition in 'Theory Y' management. Vroom (1964) labels it 'consideration' and cites it as a major determinant of job satisfaction. Kahn and Katz (1960), Halpin and Winer (1957), Fleishman (1957 a, b), and Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, and Floor (1951) state that the employee-oriented supervisor established a supportive personal relationship with his subordinates by being understanding and taking a personal interest in them. Halpin and Winter (1957) discuss the long-term behavioural effects of 'inconsiderate supervisory practices' and advocate supervisory behaviour 'indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth'. Likert (1961) states that the most important pre-requisite for the establishment of his ideal organizational system is the creation of a 'supportive atmosphere'. There should be 'favourable, co-operative attitudes throughout the organization with mutual trust and confidence' (Likert, 1961, p.225).

### Reward and Punishment, Approval and Disapproval

Another property of the business environment, which is intimately related to the degree of warmth and support, is the perceived emphasis on reward versus punishment. It has been previously described that a climate oriented toward giving reward, rather than dealing out punishment, is more likely to arouse expectancies of achievement and affiliation and to reduce the expectancies of fear of failure. Two kinds of reward dimensions have been isolated by Litwin and Stringer:

- = a dimension of performance-based reward versus punishment and more general dimension;
- = of approval versus disapproval (for task and non task behaviours).

It is obvious that different kinds of rewarding climates may affect different kinds of motivation. If it is perceived that the reward system is 'objective', specific, prompt, and performance-oriented, then the achievement motive will be aroused. Rewards for excellent performance and 'fair appraisal' of all performance stimulate individuals high in *n* Achievement to strive for these rewards as symbols of their success and personal achievement.

A performance-based reward climate would not be expected to arouse the affiliation motive. The individual high in *n* Affiliation will be stimulated only when he perceives that his strivings will lead to warm, close interpersonal relationships.

Both Veroff (1955) and Uleman (1966) point out that personal recognition and approval legitimize the goals of power-motivated individuals and thus increase the salience of the power motive syndrome.

Industrial studies have emphasized the importance of incentives, rewards, and punishments. Both Whyte (1959) and McGregor (1960) point out the inherent fallacy of relying on monetary rewards to genuinely 'reward' members of the organization.

In R.J. Grey and George C. Gordon's work<sup>1</sup> - which they mentioned, it stemmed from A.H. Maslow's hierarchical theory -, they stated that:

In applying this theory to business, L.W. Porter ignored the physiological needs and described an additional need - the need for autonomy...

which he placed between that for self-esteem and self-actualization and stated that the higher one stands in the hierarchy, the more likely he is to be motivated by the higher needs. From a series of management climate studies which they have been conducting, they noticed that executives described their organizations in terms of such things as clarity of direction, decision-making, and organizational integration. They were convinced that a better understanding would be gained if they knew more about the motivations of those who were reporting on their perceptions:

The saying (people see and hear what they want to) has more than just a grain of truth,

they stated.

Following the concepts of Maslow and Porter, they created a questionnaire to measure five need levels. They realized that their results did not conform to the hierarchical concept, but one aspect of the results, they said, was highly consistent. They noticed that people who expressed strong needs for autonomy expressed low needs for security.

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1. Hay Associates' Research for Management.



### Conflict and Tolerance for Conflict

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) feel that the resolution of conflict is one of the important processes involved in differentiation and integration of organizational functions. Blake and Mouton (1964) believe that: 'Getting conflict into the open constitutes the most valid approach to its management'. Argyris (1964) believes that the most efficient way to handle conflict is by confrontation, from the point of view of both the organization's productivity and the worker's 'mental health'.

According to Litwin and Stringer, the theory of motivation suggests that confrontation of conflict may serve to arouse achievement motivation in several ways:

First, direct confrontation of conflict tends to increase the flow of relevant information. More realistic performance standards are possible when more information is available.

Second, confrontation of conflict may increase the promptness and concreteness of performance feedback

The alternatives for action and the constraints to achievement are often made explicit, and the individual will be in a better position to judge how well he is progressing.

The authors' hypothesize that tolerance for conflict would not lead to arousal of the affiliation motive, but would lead to arousal of the power motive. They assume that confrontation and acceptance of conflicts would tend to threaten the stability of the warm, friendly relationships so important to the individual high in  $n$  Affiliation, though they claim that recent evidence shows that closer interpersonal relationships can develop in a situation that allows confrontation.

They explained that the individual whose personality is dominated by the affiliation motive will tend to shy away from organizational conflict.

A person motivated primarily by  $n$  Power will see confrontation of conflict as a direct means of influencing other people. Veroff (1955) and McKeachie (1961) found that  $n$  Power was positively related to 'argumentativeness' and 'trying to convince others'. Uleman summarizes Berlew's findings by saying:

It may be that those high in Veroff's  $n$  Power are assertive only when there is some environmental pressure to do so, or when they stand to gain something by such behaviour.

(Uleman, 1966, p.24).

Litwin and Stringer conclude that this statement implies that organizational climate characterized by confrontation and tolerance for conflict will arouse  $n$  Power only where the person feels he is a regular, long term member of the organization; and where his status and influence are related to his ability to deal with and confront conflict.

#### Organizational Identity and Group Loyalty

In formal organizations, the individual member is not only working in the presence of other members, but he is also working with them to achieve a common objective. This individual identification with the group goal, which has been recognised as an important determinant of organizational climate, is referred to by Litwin and Stringer as group identity or group loyalty. They stated that Berkowitz and Levy (1956), Berkowitz, Levy, and Harvey (1957), Pryer and Bass (1959), Hall (1957), and Zander and Wolfe (1964) have all studied the effects of different kinds of feedback patterns on individual performance, interpersonal orientation (such as feelings of trust, openness),



worker satisfaction and group cohesiveness. From these studies it was found that emphasizing group loyalty and group goals (i.e. only providing feedback of how the group was doing) increased group identity and led to improved performance, less concern about personal rewards, more mutual trust, and less strain in interpersonal relations. On the other hand, de-emphasizing group goals (giving only individual feedback) led to more withdrawal from interpersonal interaction, less desire to achieve a good score, and less mutual trust. When both personal and group goals were emphasized, there was the greatest increase in personal performance, interpersonal sensitivity was increased, and task organization (division of labour) was most prevalent.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) stated that Likert's organizational studies emphasize the importance of building group loyalty, and many of the studies of participative management' rest their case on the positive effects of developing strong group loyalties and a group identity. Gellerman's discussion of leadership (1963), according to them, revolves largely around the effective utilization of group loyalties. Some of the assumptions that underlie his argument can be appreciated from his stating that -

The effective leader also benefits from group loyalties. These operate to enhance productivity, rather than restrict it, because his men achieve their productivity by themselves and therefore take pride in it. ... A good production record is a very flattering form of feedback for men who can build their egos by working well together ...

(Gellerman, 1963, p.223).



## 1.6 SUBSYSTEM CLIMATES IN ORGANIZATIONS

As its name suggests, organizational climate has nearly always been regarded as a property of the organization. The previous definition by Forehand and Gilmer stated that Organizational Climate is -

the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that

- (a) distinguish it from other organizations;
- (b) are relatively enduring over time; and
- (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organization.

(p.362).<sup>1</sup>

Tagiuri<sup>2</sup> added that organizational climate refers to the quality of the organization's environment as experienced by its members and can be described in terms of values or the meaning of a particular set of characteristics of the environment. Thus climate in his view represents the organization as seen by people in a holistic, subjective sense.

Payne and Pugh based climate solely on perceptions of organizational members; they defined organizational climate as the characteristic behavioural processes in an organization at one point in time, reflecting the members' attitudes, beliefs and values, measured either objectively or subjectively. But they recognized that:

Organizational climate is influenced by organization members' individual perceptions and is, thus, relatively subjective.<sup>3</sup>

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1. B. Forehand and B. Von Gilmer, 'Environmental Variation in Studies of Organizational Behaviour', Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 55 (1971).
  2. R. Tagiuri, 'The Concept of Organizational Climate' in R. Tagiuri and G.H. Litwin (eds), Organizational Climate : Explorations of a Concept (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1968).
  3. R.L. Payne and D.S. Pugh, 'Organization Structure and Organization Climate' in M.D. Dunnette (ed.), Handbook of Industrial-Organizational Psychology (Chicago: Rand McNelly, 1976).

According to Gary N. Powell and D. Anthony Butterfield,<sup>1</sup> Payne **et al** made the most elaborate attempt to end the confusion created by the different approaches of defining and measuring organizational climate. They identified three criteria which could be used to distinguish between various concepts pertaining to climate and satisfaction:

1. The unit of analysis - individual or organization (social collectivity).
2. The element of analysis - job or group/organization;
3. The nature of measurement - descriptive or affective.

When the element of analysis is specified as the organization and the nature of the measurement as descriptive, the two concepts which emerge are organizational climate for the organizational unit of analysis and perceived organizational characteristics for the individual unit of analysis.

Gary and Butterfield suggested that Proposals by James and Jones<sup>2</sup> and Payne **et al**<sup>3</sup> settled the controversy in a sense. Rather than saying that climate is a property of either the organization or the individual, they say that it can be both. In a given study, its definition depends on the goals of the researcher.

Some studies, Gary Powell and D. Butterfield stated, implicitly support the existence of subsystem climates by favouring the climate perceptions of managerial employees. Schneider and Bartlett developed

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1. Gary N. Powell is Assistant Professor of Management and Administrative Sciences at the University of Connecticut, Storrs. D. Anthony Butterfield is Associate Professor of Management at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.
  2. L.R. James and A.P. Jones, 'Organizational Climate : A review of Theory and Research', Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 81 (1974).
  3. R.L. Payne, S. Fineman and T.D. Wall, 'Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction : A conceptual Synthesis', Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, Vol. 16 (1976).



independent factors of organizational climate from managerial perceptions alone:

based on the feeling that managerial personnel in most organizations probably contribute more to what the climate is than do others in that system.

Presumably, the managers were better able to perceive the organizational climate than others because of their greater contribution to it. Peterson<sup>1</sup> used similar reasoning to justify limiting his sample to professional, technical, and managerial personnel.

Managers' perceptions of the organizational climate may have been considered more accurate than other employees' perceptions, or perhaps managers' perceptions were considered representative of all employees' perceptions. This position would support the existence of universal organizational climate rather than distinct managerial and non-managerial climates.

Studies demonstrating differences in perceived climate within organizations also support the existence of subsystem climates. Differences have been found between the climate perceptions of employees grouped by:

1. Level in organizational hierarchy.
2. Line of staff position.
3. Department/subunit.
4. Biographical influences.
5. Personality characteristics interacting with structural perceptions.
6. Personality characteristics: activity/passivity, task orientation.
7. Length of service : first/second generation.

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1. R.B. Peterson 'The Interaction of Technological Process and Perceived Organizational Climate in Norwegian Firms', Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 18 (1975).



In addition to the climate studies cited, Powell and Butterfield<sup>1</sup> suggested that, the existence of climate at the subsystem level is supported by consideration of the processes which affect perceptual responses. Perceptions are significantly affected by that part of the environment most immediately experienced by the employee, such as department, work group, hierarchical level, or reference group.

They went on to verify that, because they do not have access to all its parts, it is difficult for employees to have global perceptions of the entire organization. But some employees may have perceptions based on a more global view than others. Employees who have been members of the organization longer, who are at higher levels in the organization, or whose jobs are boundary-spanning in nature and call for frequent interaction with members of other departments are more likely to recognize the organizational climate. The more departments in which employees have worked, the more they have an idea of the general climate of the organization beyond the individual department.

### **1.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE**

Though, as we have seen from the above definitions, the correct definition of climate depends upon one's own purposes, climates have a number of common distinguishing characteristics:

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1. Gary N. Powell and D. Anthony Butterfield, 'The Case for Sub-system Climates in Organizations', Academy of Management Review, January 1978.

First, whether we speak of an organization's climate or the climate of a division or subgroup of the organization, all climates are ultimately perceptual and psychological in nature. Thus when we speak of an individual, group or organization climate, we are referring to the perceptions held by members of social units. The climate of an organization could then be defined operationally as the sum of the perceptions of the individuals working in that organization.

Secondly, all climates are abstract. Individuals absorb information about other individuals and events to form summary climate perceptions. In effect when we ask individuals to report on their climates we are asking them to sum up their experiences and their sense of others' experiences and form a cognitive map of the organization. Specific actions (e.g. following regulations, dispensing rewards) are not themselves climates, although they represent the informational base from which climates are constructed.

Third, because climates are perceptual and abstracts they are subject to the same principles of perceptions as other psychological concepts. When these principles are applied to perceptions of work settings, a multidimensional description results. Consequently, it is over-simplistic to consider characteristics of climate without considering the patterns of interactions among such characteristics.

Finally, climates are predominantly descriptive rather than evaluative

(cf. Schneider, 1975; Newman, 1977).

In summary, climate can be defined as a summary perception of the organizational environment. These perceptions are theoretically, non-evaluative and multidimensional.

Climates gain meaning to the extent that they affect job performance and satisfaction, or to the degree that they arise from particular organizational structures.



## 1.8 SUMMARY

Most executives strive hard to establish the right working environment or climate. It is one of their key concerns. Despite this, there is no commonly held concept of exactly what 'climate' is, nor is there much agreement on what climate is best. Organizational climate refers to a set of attributes about a particular organization i.e. the unique combination of policies, structures, and systems that serve to guide management behaviour. Not just the management style of an organization and certainly not merely morale, climate is a number of elements that - in sum - define an organization's need character. It is based on the assumption that individuals within a given organization, or subunit of that organization, will have similar perceptions about their climate. According to Forehand and Gilmer (1964), this set of characteristics distinguishes it from other organizations and remains relatively enduring over time in influencing the behaviour of the people within the organization. Litwin and Stringer (1966) added the important notion that the properties are the results of the perceptions of the people within the organization and that climate reflects the 'patterns of expectations and incentive values that impinge on, and are created by, a group of people that live and work together' (p.7). It is a derivative of the combined effect of the people in the organization, the organization's 'character', policies and operating procedures and style of management, and the reactions of the people within the organization as a whole. It has, however, been suggested that 'there are potentially as many climates as there are people in the organization' (Johnnesson, 1971, p.38).



Litwin and Stringer (1966) developed a questionnaire to measure organizational perceptions in six differing areas:

- . Structure : perceptions of the extent of organizational constraints, rules, regulations, 'red tape' and so on;
- . Individual responsibility : feeling of autonomy and of being one's own boss;
- . Rewards : feeling related to being confident of adequate and appropriate rewards - pay, praise, special dispensations, etc. - for doing the job well;
- . Risk and Risk-taking : perception of the degree of challenge and risk in the work situation;
- . Warmth and support : feelings of general good fellowship and helpfulness prevailing in the work setting;
- . Tolerance and Conflict : degree of confidence that the climate can tolerate differing opinions.

The questionnaire used in our present study utilized part of Litwin and Stringer's Organizational Climate Questionnaire to investigate the organizational climate of Sudan Sugar Industry as perceived by its Managers. Dimensions selected to measure organizational perceptions and the research method are described in detail in Chapter 5 of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL THEORIES

- 2.1 The Role of Management in Contemporary Society.
  - 2.2 The Managerial Functions.
  - 2.3 Managerial Effectiveness.
  - 2.4 Review of Some History and Contemporary Management and Organizational Theories.
    - 2.4.1 Historical Management Theory (Pre-1900).
    - 2.4.2 Frederick W. Taylor (Individually-centred structure).
    - 2.4.3 Henri Fayol (Organizationally-centred structure).
    - 2.4.4 Max Weber (Organizationally and societally-centred structure).
    - 2.4.5 Douglas McGregor (Individually-centred Behavioural Science).
    - 2.4.6 Rensis Likert (Organizationally-centred Behavioural Science).
  - 2.5 Summary.
- 

As our study is about managerial thinking and attitudes of managers, it is imperative at the outset to introduce the philosophy of management; what management is about; its importance; its principles and its functions.

This chapter, therefore, surveys the role and functions of management and what managers universally do. It reviews some relevant classical and modern organizational and management theories related to the issues under investigation especially those relating to organizational structures and underlying assumptions about human nature (the focus of the study).

## 2.1 THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

Awareness of management practice is becoming more widespread because of the impact of either poor or good management on the lives of many people, as well as on the national economic situation.

Attention was more consciously first given on a wide scale to the possibility of the serious study of management principles and practice as a means of contributing to professional performance.

Management is the 'common' concept in the industrial, the commercial, or the economic world and there are many different features by which widespread interest can be evidenced. This widespread interest can be found repeated in every industrial country and it can be found reflected, too, within the framework of the international bodies devoted to the development of the less developed countries.

In any individual country and broadly throughout the world as a whole, there is today a ready recognition of a basic fact; that national and international progress on the economic and social plans depends very largely on the competence of the managers. Technology or science alone will achieve nothing without support by finance, and without these basic forces being brought together by the skills of the manager.

Another important feature which has gained widespread concurrence of opinion is the comparable significance of the management process within the public sector of industry as much as within private enterprise. The director has become a role rather than an element in society; he may still at times be an owner, or the representative of an owner, but he is now very much more a person with a function to



fulfil by virtue of his office rather than specifically an individual entrepreneur.

One of the distinct features of the contemporary scene is the complexity which has begun to invade the management process itself. Especially in recent years, there has been a considerable development of practices and techniques largely based upon the applications of scientific method. The management of a present-day industrial society is specifically different from what has gone on in previous decades and there is every likelihood that this extensive complexity will increase rather than disappear. These complexities are, however, only changes in method, basically the management process has continued to have much the same objectives as might have been found in earlier times.

Undoubtedly, the management role has been exercised back over decades or centuries, in fact, throughout all the time that economic activity has been pursued in any community, but under present-day conditions economic factors have again become of greater importance in practically every country. The main consequence of Taylor's 'scientific management' experience has been a systematic approach to the practice of management; that is to say, the emphasis on the importance of the facts of a situation and the need to have these facts reviewed and assessed before decisions are taken about their further development. As contemporary societies are severely faced with problems of scarcity and competition, successful management is the one that manages to make best use of the resources available at the lowest cost possible. To adapt variables to suit a particular society's environment or situation is a direction that all managers should follow if

they want to reach success.

## **2.2 THE MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS:**

Management can briefly be described as 'Planning, motivating, and regulating the activities of persons towards the effective and economical accomplishment of a given common task' (E. Brech, 1967, p.16). Planning is the first function of any manager. It is that managerial function which consists of determining the goals, policies, procedures, and other plans needed to achieve the objectives of an organization. Planning means thinking before acting; it is looking ahead and preparing for the future, laying out in advance the road to be followed; thinking about what and how the job should be done. The central core of the meaning remains the establishment of relationships between means and ends with the object of achieving the latter in the most efficient use of the former.

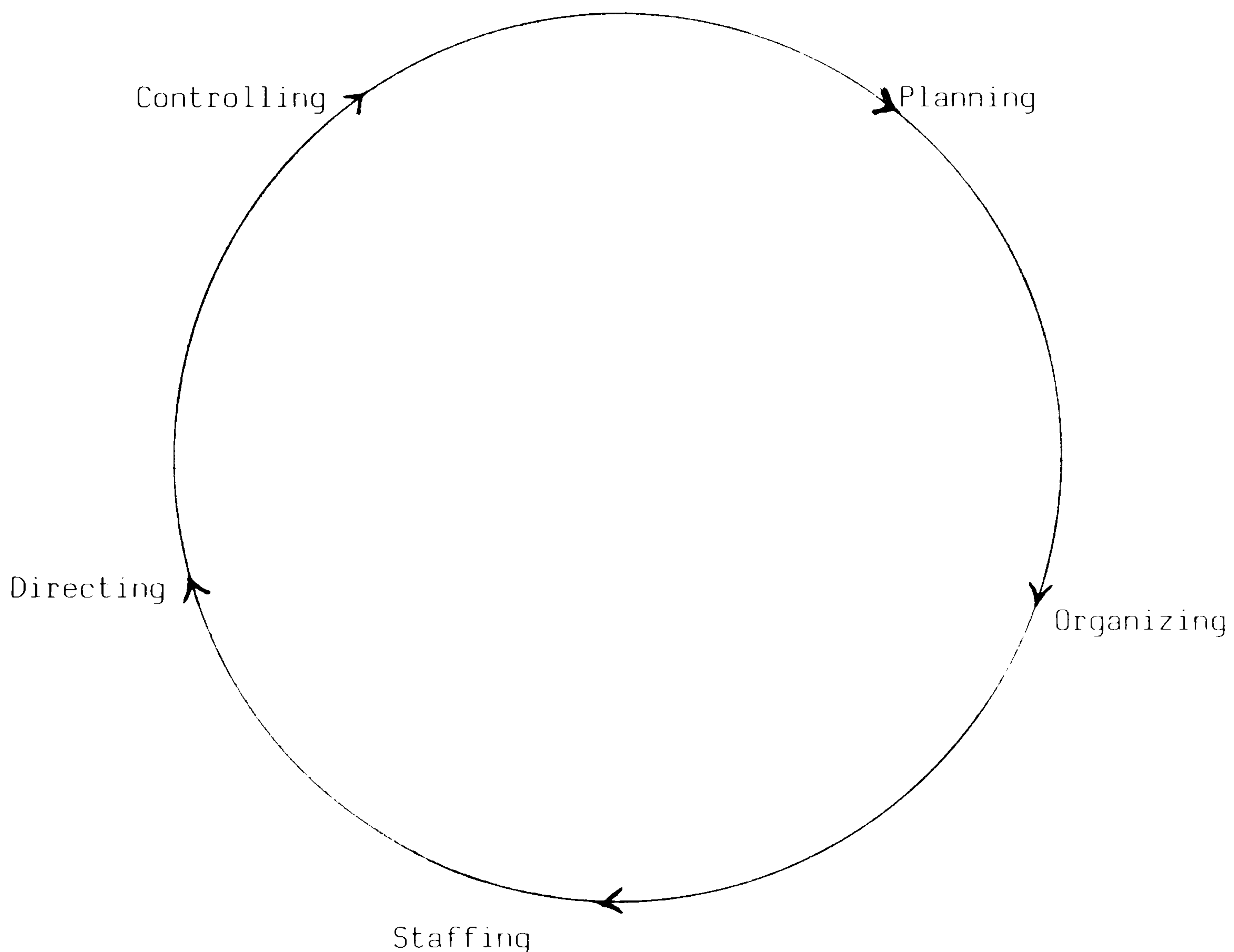
Motivating means getting the members of the team to pull their weight effectively to give their loyalty to the group to carry out properly the tasks they have accepted and generally to play an effective part in the job that the group has undertaken. For efficient utilization of the available resources, persons through whom things are done should appropriately and effectively be motivated. To achieve this objective in contemporary societies there is a cry for management by participation which will ensure commitment and create a sense of belonging. People will not give the best of themselves unless they know what is expected of them. They should be involved, somehow, and fairly satisfactorily when appropriate from the stage of decision-making till the output is distributed if enthusiasm is to be expected from them.

Though there is no one set of functions of managing, depending on circumstances, it is generally acknowledged that all managers perform certain basic managerial functions, which are universal regardless of their level in the hierarchy.

If the managerial process is considered as a circular flow consisting of the five basic functions; as illustrated by Figure 2.1 below, we see that the functions flow continuously into each other. At times there is no clear line to make where one function ends and the other function begins.

FIGURE 2.1

The Circular Concept of Managerial Functions

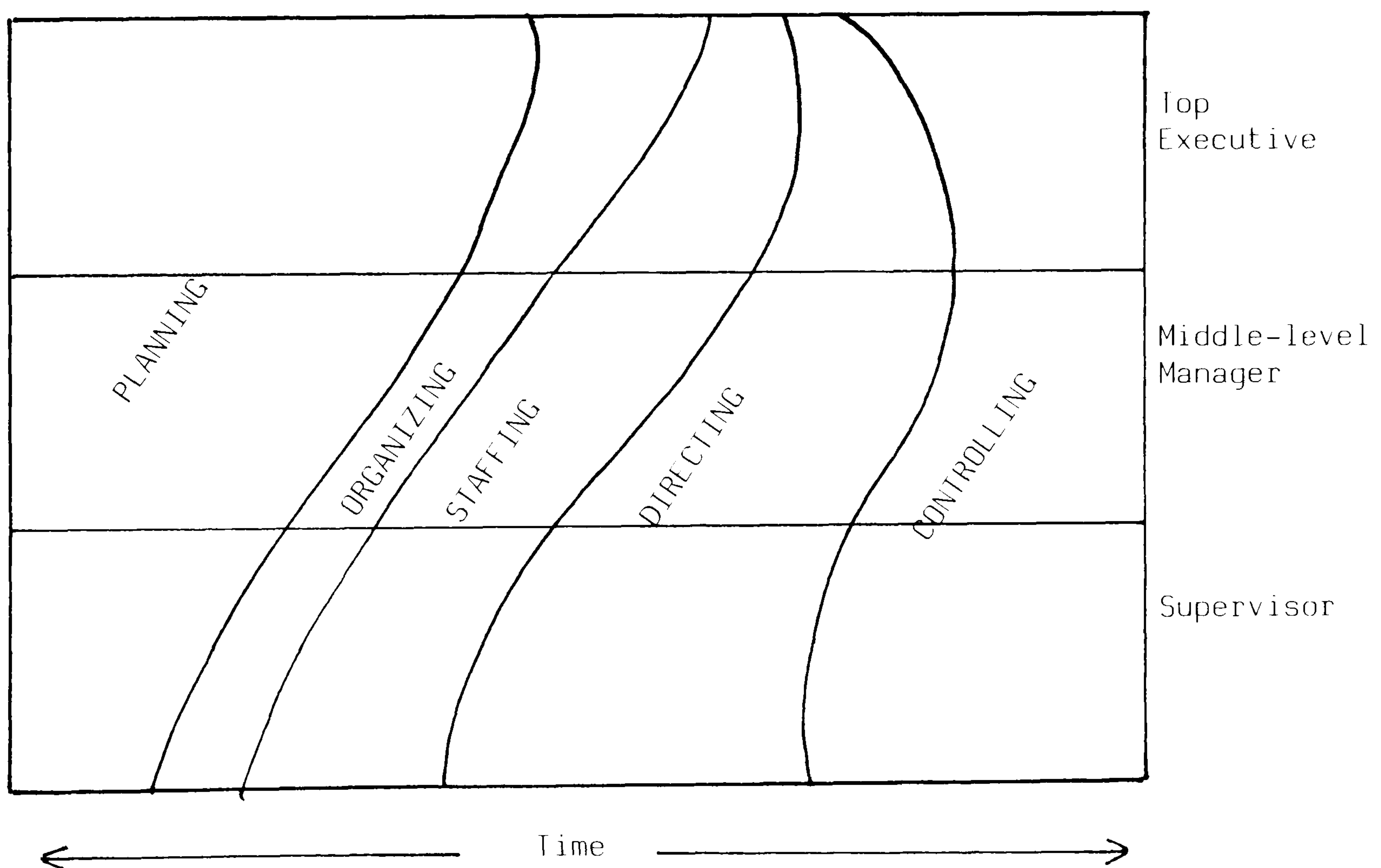




Also, it is not possible for any supervisor to set aside a certain amount of time for one or another function, since the effort spent in each function will vary as the conditions and circumstances change. The time and effort involved in each of these functions will depend on the management level on which the manager finds himself. This is illustrated in Figure 2.2. By the same token, it should not be forgotten that unless a supervisor performs all of these management functions, he is not fulfilling his role as manager.

FIGURE 2.2

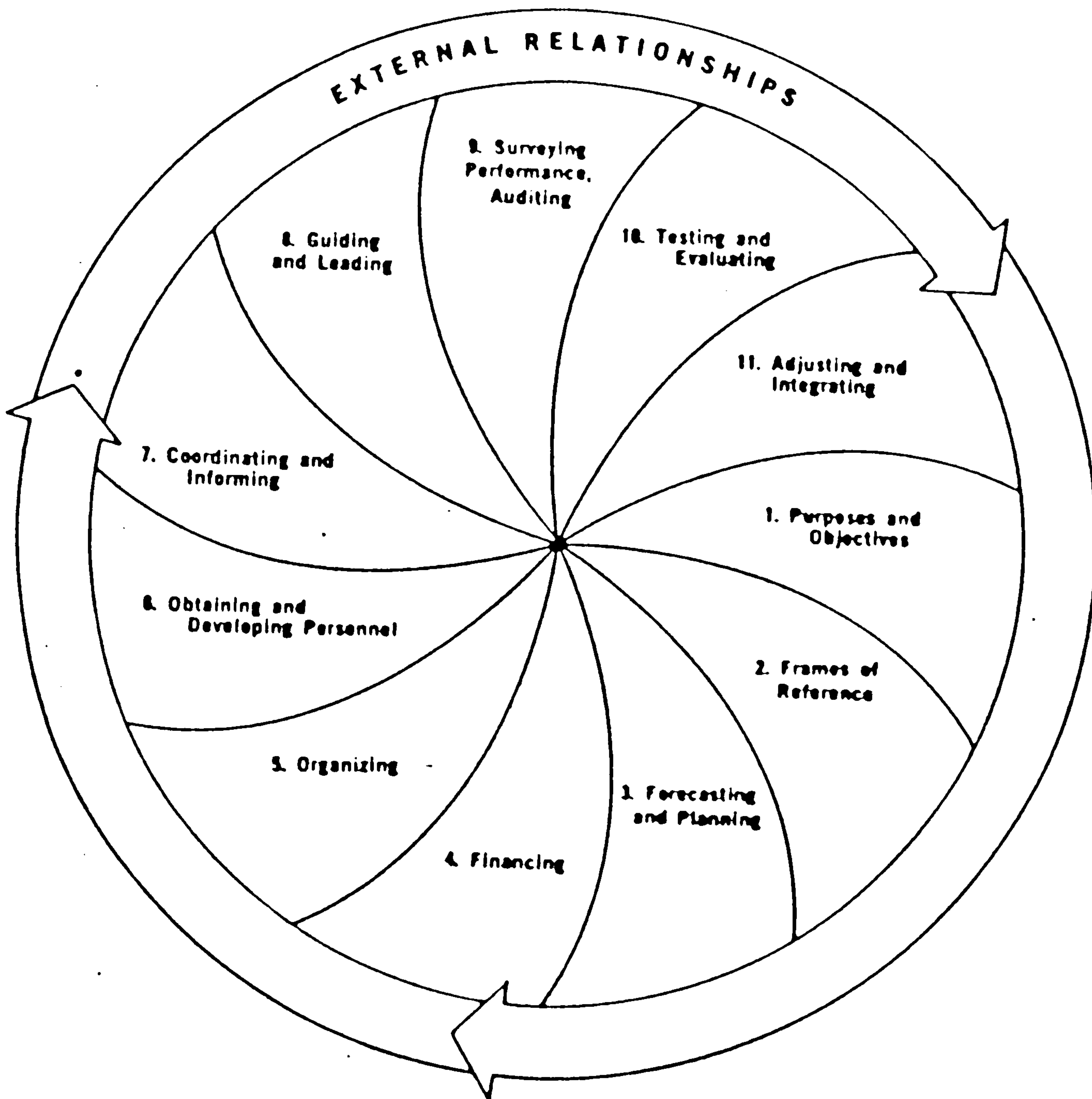
Time Spent and Management Levels



Professor David S. Brown of George Washington University produced a further breakdown of the managerial functions (Figure 2.3 below).

FIGURE 2.3

Twelve Functions of Managing



He anticipated that -

The Manager in the years ahead will be less a producer than he has traditionally been and more of an innovator, a developer, a negotiator, an arbitrator and a conservator. He and his associates must be able to deal with a variety of problems in a highly complex society.

### 2.3 MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS:

There are two fundamentally different meanings associated with organizational effectiveness depending on how one views the organization - from inside or from outside. The perspective that views the organization from within is a typically managerial one. Are the invested organizational resources being used efficiently and productively? This perspective tends to measure organizational effectiveness by return on investment.

In the other radically different perspective, the organization is viewed from the outside - in its relationship to the larger society. From this perspective, a cost-benefit analysis would be the most appropriate (the efficient resource utilization perspective and the social utility perspective).

Therefore, judging from these different approaches, it seems that managerial effectiveness can seldom be obtained by achieving a single objective, no matter how broad it is written. Profit, for instance, may be obtained at the risk of losing customers or by sacrificing human resources. Thus, managerial effectiveness, unlike efficiency which means optimizing the yield from available resources, has to do with allocating one's resources and efforts to the best ends. It is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position. Peter Drucker succinctly phrases it -

Efficiency is concerned with doing things right.  
Effectiveness is doing the right things.

Effectiveness, in other words, includes efficiency. It is not so much what a manager does, because some managers let the in-basket define the nature of their potential contribution and the clock its limit, but what he achieves.



In fact a manager or department could easily be 100% efficient and 0% effective, once efficiency emphasises only on the ratio of output to input which means efficiency could still be 100% even if both input and output are low. The efficient manager usually prefers to -

Do things right	rather than do right things
Solve problems	" " produce creative alternatives
Safeguard resources	" " optimize resource utilization
Discharge duties	" " obtain results

Chester Barnard viewed the subject from still another perspective. Activities of an individual in an organization aimed at achieving ends sought by the organization he defined as effective while the behaviour of an individual in an organization directed to the satisfaction of personal goals be considered efficient. Thus, activities that take place in organizations should, from this viewpoint, be judged by two distinct criteria - effectiveness (the degree to which organizational goals are attained at least cost) and efficiency (the individual's personal satisfaction derived from the activity).

#### **2.4 REVIEW OF SOME HISTORY AND CONTEMPORARY MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL THEORIES:**

Management thought as we know it today is in some respects a twentieth-century concept. It has attained its position, however, through the efforts of a host of men working in its behalf over the centuries (Claude S. George, 1972).

Most texts cover the details of various management theories reasonably well, explaining the nature of Taylor's 'Scientific Management' and Fayol's 'basic functions' of management, defining Weber's elements of bureaucracy, and so on. However, it is possible to really understand what a theory is all about only if one has some understanding of the individual who produced it. So, although it is not possible to fully describe or explore the creative, complex people who developed the theories and approaches which are going to be discussed in this brief review, it will be instructive to look at what they said, how they behaved, and the consistency, or lack of it, between each individual's thoughts and actions. Actions of an individual, according to Argyris (1976), tell much about the person. This comparison will be made in the context of the historical periods in which these various individuals lived and worked and will focus on the periods of their greatest influence.

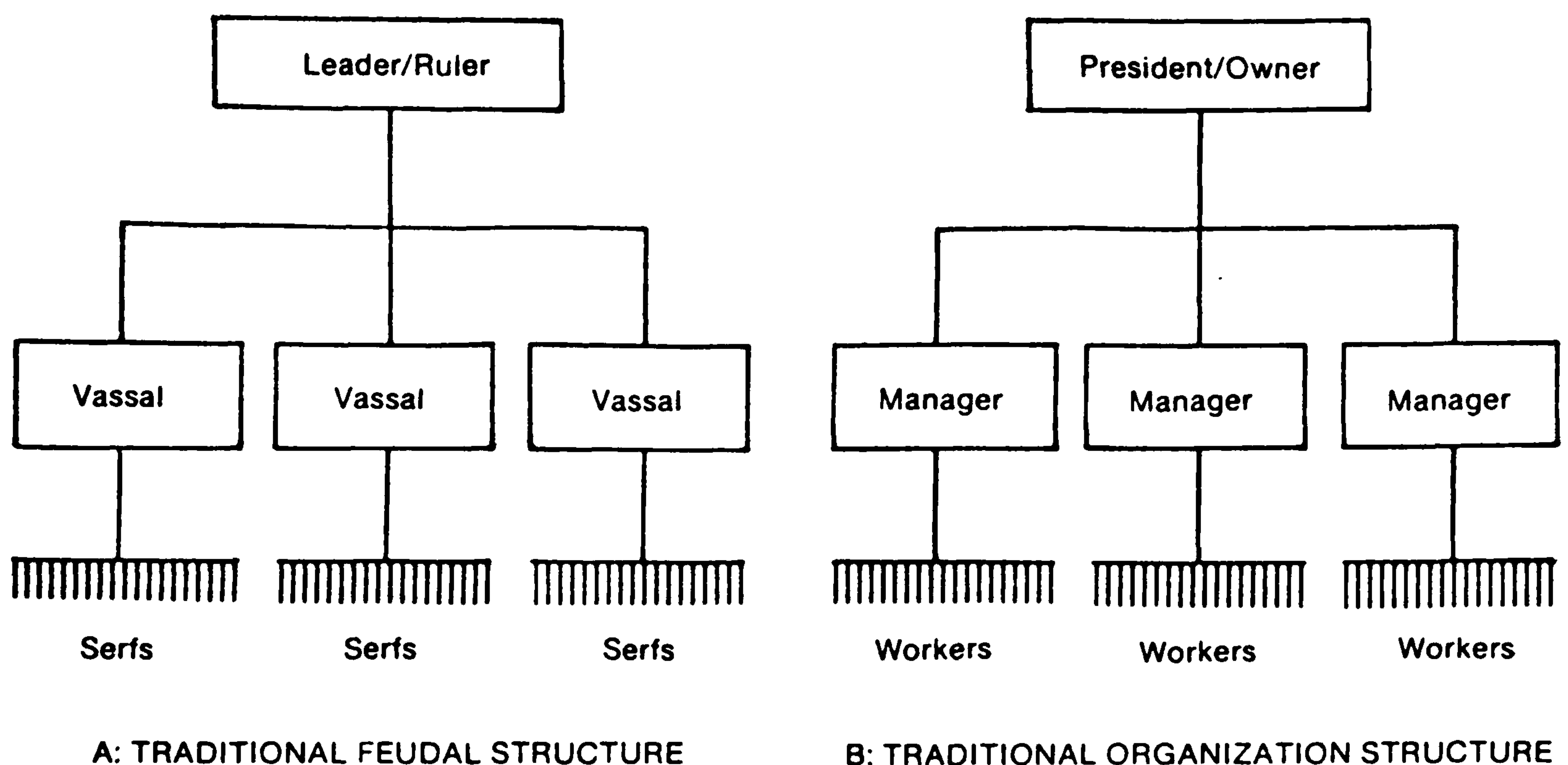
#### **2.4.1 HISTORICAL MANAGEMENT THEORY (Pre-1900)**

Ancient organizations were considerably more simple than those in which we live and work today. The archetype is the tribe, ruled by a religious leader-authority figure who is obeyed by all. Such a system becomes unwieldy when: (a) the group size increases beyond a dozen or so and (b) the work to be done becomes more complicated than

the most primitive of tasks (foraging for food, setting up shelters, etc.). During the past few centuries, and even in the last century, a typical small factory was organized like a feudal estate. Figure 2.4 shows this similarity.

FIGURE 2.4

Traditional Structures



As the world changed, the traditional form of organizational hierarchy began to malfunction because of problems that it was not designed to handle. It could not accommodate the complex interdependencies with which organizations were confronted as technology advanced. Well before 1900, it was clear that most organizations could not operate effectively within this framework.<sup>1</sup> It was around the turn of the

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1. Marshall Sashkin, 'An Overview of Ten Management and Organizational Theorists', The 1981 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, Pub: University Associates, San Diego, California.



century that Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol and Max Weber developed modifications of the traditional structure in an effort to aid organizational functioning.

#### **2.4.2 FREDERICK W. TAYLOR: Individually Centred Structure**

Taylor was the founder of the movement known as 'scientific management' -

'The principal object of management,' he states, 'should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity of each employee'

For the employer, 'maximum prosperity' means not just large profits in the short term but the development of all aspects of the enterprise to a state of permanent prosperity. For the employee, 'maximum prosperity' means not just immediate higher wages, but his development so that he may perform efficiently in the highest grade of work for which his natural abilities fit him. This mutual interdependence of management and workers, and the necessity of their working together towards the common aim of increased prosperity for all led Taylor to ask: Why is there so much antagonism and inefficiency?

He suggests three causes:

1. The fallacious belief of the workers that any increase in output would inevitably result in unemployment;
2. The defective systems of management which make it necessary for each worker to restrict his output in order to protect his interest;
3. Inefficient rule-of-thumb effort-wasting methods of work.

Taylor conceived it to be the aim of 'scientific management' to overcome these obstacles. He said:

... What the workmen want from their employers beyond anything else is high wages and what employers want from their workmen most of all is low labour cost of manufacture ... the existence or absence of these two elements forms the best index to either good or bad management.

To reach this situation, the father of 'scientific management' suggested what he called 'great underlying principles of management':

- (a) The development of a true science of work where daily tasks are established so that each worker should know what is expected of him and should be paid according to performance.
- (b) The scientific selection and progressive development of the workman to ensure that he possesses the physical and intellectual qualities to enable him to achieve the output.
- (c) The bringing together of the science of work and the scientifically selected and trained men.
- (d) The constant and intimate co-operation of management and men -

'There is hardly a single act... done by any workman in the shop which is not preceded by and followed by some act on the part of the men in management'.

With this closed personal co-operation, Taylor believes that the opportunities for conflict are almost eliminated, since the operation of this authority is not arbitrary.

Taylor's methods have been followed by many others who developed his thinking into what is now called work study, or industrial engineering. But even in his lifetime Taylor's ideas led to bitter controversy over the alleged inhumanity of his system, which was said

to reduce men to the level of efficiently functioning machines.

### 2.4.3 HENRI FAYOL:

#### **Organizationally Centred Structure**

Fayol can be described as being concerned with the structure of the organization - large-scale structure - as opposed to a focus on task design or small-scale structure. It was argued that he was concerned only with industrial management, whereas his own preface, in one of his works, claims that -

Management plays a very important part in the government of undertakings; of all undertakings, large or small, industrial, commercial, political, religious or any other.

Fayol suggests that:

All activities to which industrial undertakings give rise can be divided into six groups; technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting, and managerial activities.

Most of these six groups of activities will be present in most jobs, but in varying measures, with the managerial element in particular being greatest in senior jobs and least or absent in direct production or lower clerical tasks. Managerial activities are specially emphasized as being universal to organizations. In his contribution to answering the question 'What is management?', Fayol suggested that management can be defined as comprising five elements:

1. To forecast and plan: 'Examining the future and drawing up the plan of action.'
2. To organize : 'Building up the structure, material and human, of the undertaking'.



3. To command : 'Maintaining activity among the personnel.'
4. To co-ordinate : 'Binding together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and effort.'
5. To control : 'Seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command.'

For Fayol, managing means looking ahead, which makes the process of forecasting and planning a central business activity. Management 'must assess the future and make provision for it'. To function adequately a business organization needs a plan which has the characteristics of : 'unity, continuity, flexibility and precision'. The problems of planning which management must overcome are:

Making sure that the objectives of each part of the organization are securely welded together (unity); using both short- and long-term forecasting (continuity); being able to adapt the plan in the light of changing circumstances (flexibility); and attempting to accurately predict courses of action (precision).

As head of a French steel and coal mining organization for thirty years, Fayol developed a set of fourteen principles that he felt covered most managerial situations: Division of work, authority, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interest to general interest, remuneration, centralization or decentralization, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure, initiative, 'esprit de corps' i.e. management must foster the morale

of its employees. But it is not clear how absolute Fayol meant to be about his principles - whether he intended them to be guidelines or powerful and stable laws.<sup>1</sup> In his 1916 papers on general and industrial management he wrote:

There is nothing rigid or absolute in management affairs ... seldom do we ... apply the same principle twice in identical conditions. . . . Therefore principles are flexible and capable of adaptation.

(Fayol, 1949, p.19).

#### **2.4.4 MAX WEBER:**

##### **Organizationally and Societally Centred Structure**

Weber's name is most closely associated with 'bureaucracy'. His principal contribution to the study of organizations was his theory of authority structures which led him to characterize organizations in terms of the authority relations within them. This stemmed from a basic concern with why individuals obeyed commands, why people do as they are told. To tackle this problem Weber distinguished between power (the ability to force people to obey regardless of their opinion), and authority, (where orders are voluntarily obeyed). Under an authority system, those in the subordinate role see the issuing directives by those in the superordinate role as legitimate.

Weber made a distinction between organizational types according to the way in which authority is legitimized: 'charismatic', 'traditional', and 'rational-legal'. These distinctions are useful for analysing organizations, though any actual organization will be a combination of the three types.

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1. Marshall Sashkin, op.cit.

The first type of exercising authority is based on the personal qualities of the leader. The Greek term 'charisma' used by Weber means any quality of the individual's personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities. There were two modifications of the traditional structure in Weber's presentation. The first was the notion of authority based on a rational-legal system, rather than on tradition (e.g. hereditary rule) or force. The concept of rational-legal authority prescribes clearly defined limits over what may and may not be required of workers. The second thing Weber defined was organizational arrangement as a hierarchy of offices rather than of individuals i.e. each 'office' carries specified duties along with the legal authority to carry out those duties - no more and no less. The effect of this was two-fold: first, the basis of authority - rational and legal - was emphasized and control over workers was limited to behaviour specifically related to the work; second, the activities of the manager - duties, responsibilities, etc. - were clearly defined, thus making it possible to choose persons for specific jobs on the basis of their competence and skills.

Although today people often react negatively to the term 'bureaucracy', when reading Weber, one can realize that bureaucracy was a great development. Weber (1946, p.214) says, for example:

bureaucracy is superior to any other form in precision, in stability, in the stringency of its discipline and in its reliability ... it is formally capable of application to all kinds of administrative tasks.



This may sound autocratic, but one may be reassured by the fact that Weber also said:

This progress of bureaucratization... is a parallel phenomenon of democracy.

(1946, p.225).

This results from the characteristic principle of bureaucracy: the abstract regularity of the execution of authority, which is a result of the demand for 'equality before the law' in the personal and functional sense.

(1946, p.224)

Thus bureaucracy had two great advantages according to Weber. First, it was the most efficient and effective form of organization, and second, it was the most humane form of organization.

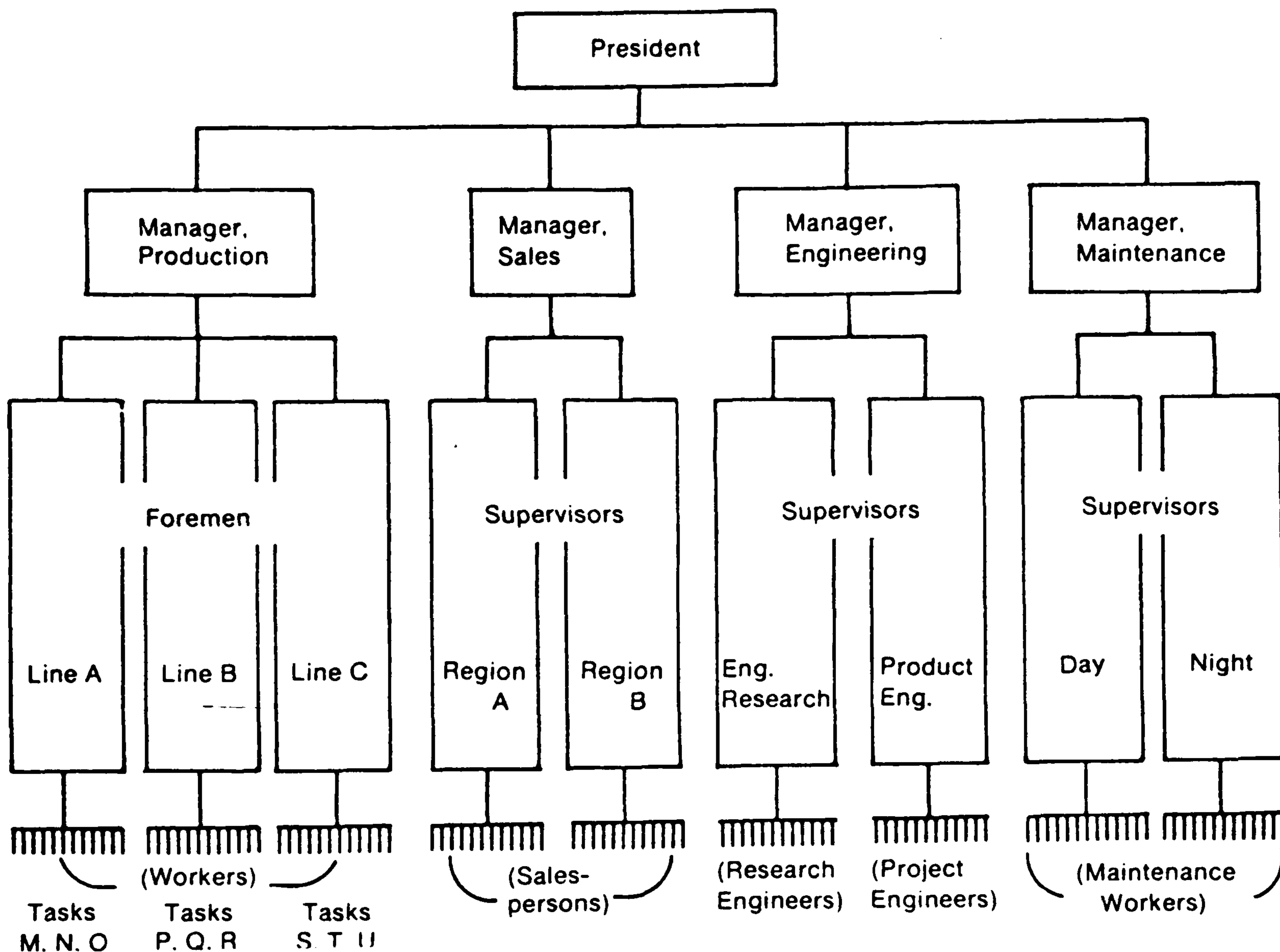
In summary, Weber provided a framework that facilitated the rational study of organization, just as Taylor facilitated the rational study of specific tasks. Although many organizations had endured and functioned in similar ways for centuries, Weber made a large contribution, observing with acute detail and clarity the organizational form that was so functional for survival and identifying modern modifications to that form that took into account the increasing complexity of organization in an increasingly technologically sophisticated world.<sup>1</sup>

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1. Marshall Sashkin, op.cit.

FIGURE 2.5

Basic Bureaucratic Structure (Weber)



Each position is defined as to specific tasks, duties and responsibility of the position (or 'office'). Characteristics (skills, etc.) of persons necessary for each position are specified and any person with these characteristics may be hired to fill the position.

#### 2.4.5 DOUGLAS MCGREGOR:

##### **Individually Centred Behavioural Science**

Douglas McGregor examines the assumptions about human behaviour which underlie managerial action - link of a psychological view of human motivation to a theory of management. In doing this he coined the terms **Theory X** and **Theory Y**. The former represents traditional assumptions about human motivations, some of which are:

1. 'The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.' Thus management has to stress productivity, incentive schemes and 'a fair day's work'; and to denounce 'restriction of output'.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

**Theory X** has persisted for a long time because it has provided an explanation for some human behaviour in organizations. McGregor proposes an alternative '**Theory Y**', with the underlying principle of integration 'to replace direction and control', i.e. it asserts, in contrast with **Theory X**, that workers are responsible and want to be involved more in their work (such that their own needs are met as the organization's are).



McGregor said -

The essential task of management is to arrange the organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives.

(1957, p.26).

He based his approach on the motivation theory of Abraham Maslow (1943). This theory suggests that human needs can be categorized as survival, security, social, esteem, and self-development (or growth). As one type of need is basically fulfilled, the individual progresses toward higher needs (survival is primary, growth is most advanced). This suggests that if management can design work to fulfil the higher needs of workers, the workers' motives can be directed toward organizational, as well as individual, goals.

One implication of this approach is that managers must diagnose individual workers' needs and offer opportunities for those needs to be satisfied. Furthermore, when workers are involved in defining their own needs, goals, and potential rewards, the task of creating appropriate organizational conditions seems more feasible. In 1954, McGregor said -

There are big differences in the kinds of opportunities that can be provided for people to obtain need satisfaction. It is relatively easy to provide means (chiefly in the form of money) for need satisfaction - at least until the supply is exhausted. You cannot, however, provide people with a sense of achievement, or with knowledge, or with prestige. You can provide opportunities for them to obtain these satisfactions through efforts directed toward organization goals. What is even more important, the supply of such opportunities - unlike the supply of money - is unlimited.

(1966, pp.44-45).

McGregor's philosophy - of how to manage individual workers - seemingly clear and simple, would not be so simple to implement. People's expectations, which were based on past treatment, would have to be radically changed, and such change comes slowly. In 1957, he wrote -

It is no more possible to create an organization today which will be a fully effective application of this theory than it was to build an atomic power plant in 1945.

(1966, p.24).

#### **2.4.6 RENSIS LIKERT:**

##### **Organizationally Centred Behavioural Science**

In the work of Likert (1961, 1967), one finds a complete sophisticated theory of organization based on behavioural science. It developed out of research conducted during twenty-five years that Likert was Director of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. Likert's theory is clearly prescriptive; he argues that his approach describes effective organizations and that if it is implemented, the organization will be effective.

Likert can be seen, in one sense, as expanding McGregor's two alternatives to four systems. System 1 is much like an extreme **Theory X**-organization: rigid, autocratic, and exploitative of workers. System 2 represents benevolent autocracy or paternalism. System 3 is called consultative management. Workers are involved to a degree in making decisions, but all real power remains with the managers. System 4 is participative management; all workers are involved in decisions that concern them.

In Likert's words, System 4 has three key elements:

- (1) the use by the manager of the principle of supportive relationships;
- (2) his use of group decision-making and group methods of supervision; and
- (3) his high performance goals for the organization.

(1967, p.47).

The principle of supportive relationships states that -

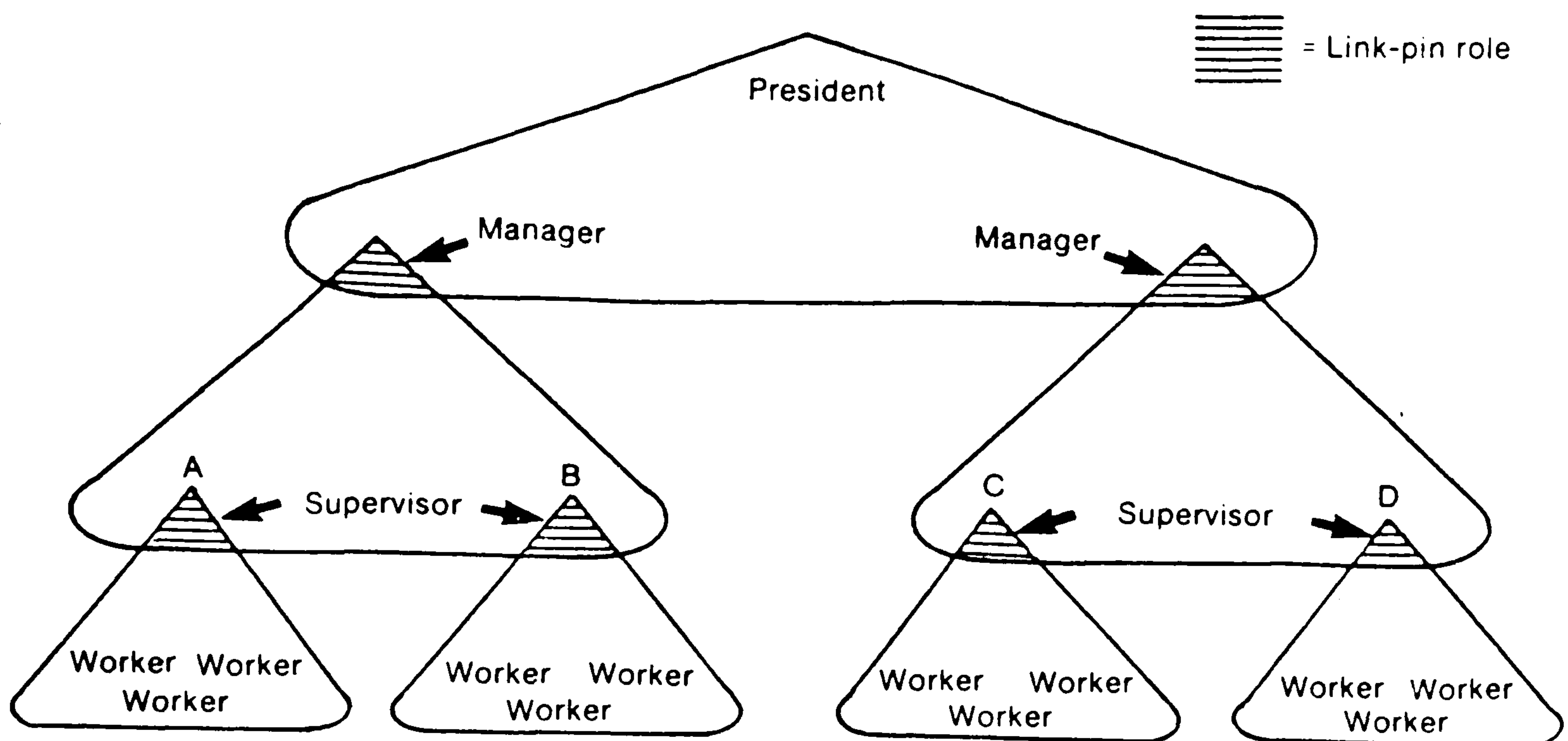
The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

(1967, p.47).

These statements mean several things. First, supervision is seen as a group - not a one-to-one, superior-to subordinate - activity. Second, the group is delegated as much authority as possible; decisions are group decisions, not orders from above. Third, the supervisor or manager is seen as a 'link-pin'. That is, he is the head of one group but a member of another group (at the next level up), as illustrated in Figure 2.6. Thus, he serves as an important communication link between the two levels.



FIGURE 2.6

Likert's Overlapping Group/Link-pin Model

Managers and supervisors are 'link-pins' i.e. members of two groups. Their function is to act as co-ordinative 'linkers' (information transmitters) between the two groups.

Likert incorporates some of the earlier organizational theories in System 4. This 'principle' of management owes much in content to the human relations school but also, in a very general way, incorporates Maslow's needs of esteem and growth. The group methods that Likert mentions also derive from Mayo and reflect Maslow's social-need category. Likert's notion of performance goals as well as the basic structure he follows are derived from Weber's theory of bureaucracy.

The only modification to the traditional bureaucratic form of organization - compare Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6 - is that in Likert's model authority is shared at one level below that shown in Figure 2.6.

Instead of the manager making a decision, the decision is made by the manager in collaboration with the manager's subordinates.

Likert has developed what appears to be a workable organizational form for implementing the basic human relations approach and for putting **Theory Y** into practice. Likert believes that most managers can learn to operate under his theory:

Data . . . show that managers who seek to do so  
can readily learn better systems of management.

(1967, p.190).

Likert rejected Taylor's approach on his belief that Taylor's basic concept of job technology is irrelevant to organizational effectiveness. At a professional meeting in 1978, Likert was asked why his theory contained no meaningful consideration of the specific characteristics of jobs (design, technology, etc.) or of the motivations of individuals. He replied to the effect that these factors are organizationally irrelevant.

Most current organizational theorists disagree strongly with Likert's view. Some like Charles Perrow (1972), an organizational sociologist, go so far as to assert the opposite, that technology determines everything and that human variables are essentially irrelevant. Most, however, take a more balanced view, seeing the technical and social aspects of organizations as interdependent. Two of the most well known names associated with this approach are Fred Emery and Evic Trist, members of the Tavistock Institute for Human Relations (England). They are most familiarly attached to the theory called 'sociotechnical systems'.

Trist said -

After going down into the coal mine this time, I  
came up a different man. I was certain that the  
things I observed were of major significance

(1980, p.151).

The concept was brilliantly simple: the technological system used in an organization must fit or mesh properly with the social system if the organization is to operate effectively.



## 2.5 SUMMARY

In Chapter 2 we have discussed the role and importance of management and identified the basic managerial functions which managers in all countries must perform in some manner.

We have also reviewed some classical and modern management and organizational theories, especially those relating to the focus of our study, explaining, for instance, the nature of Taylor's 'scientific management', Fayol's 'basic functions of management', Weber's elements of bureaucracy, and McGregor's 'assumptions about human behaviour' and so on.

For Fayol, managing means looking ahead, which makes the process of forecasting and planning a central business activity. In Fayol's Theory, managerial activities are specially emphasized as being universal to organization. He suggested that management can be defined as comprising five elements: 1) To forecast and plan; 2) To organize; 3) To command; 4) To coordinate and 5) To control.

Weber's principal contribution to the study of organizations was his theory of authority structures where he characterised organizations in terms of the authority relations within them. Weber distinguished between power (the ability to force people to obey regardless of their opinion), and authority (where orders are voluntarily obeyed).

Douglas McGregor examines the assumptions about human behaviour which underlie managerial action - link of a psychological view of human motivation to a theory of management. He described two differing and opposing sets of assumptions about human nature, which were



called **Theory X** and **Theory Y**. **Theory X** represents the autocratic approach to management which is based on traditional assumptions about human nature. He saw management thinking and activity as based on these two very different sets of assumptions about people.

McGregor looked at the various approaches to managing people in organizations and concluded that the styles or approaches to management used by people in positions of authority could be examined and understood in light of a manager's assumptions about people.

In the following chapter discussion will be made about management in cultural perspective to examine similarities and differences in the attitudes, managerial assumptions and practices of managers across the world. Special emphasis will be made on the Haire **et al**'s international study (1966) which, as noted earlier, will be the base for examining and understanding the managerial thinking of our Sudanese Managers and then comparing them with the Haire's findings.

MANAGERIAL THINKING : SOME RELEVANT DEFINITIONS,  
DISCUSSIONS AND CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES

- 3.1 Management in an International Context : Joseph L. Massie and Jan Luytjes (1972).
  - 3.2 Cross Cultural Studies
  - 3.3 Managerial Thinking : An International Study, Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966).
  - 3.4 Summary.
- 

In the previous chapter, we have identified and discussed organizational theories and basic managerial functions, which Management in all countries must perform in some manner. However, the concepts, analytical techniques, and approaches for performing them may be different under various environmental conditions. The objective of this chapter is to place those concepts and techniques in cultural perspective. Also, as the present study of Sudanese managers utilizes part of the research methodology originally developed by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter(1966), the specific goal of this chapter is to present in some detail and comment upon the findings of their study.

The data from our Sudanese Managers are presented in detail and discussed in Chapter 6, where they are compared with those obtained from the similar study of Haire and his colleagues.

### 3.1 MANAGEMENT IN AN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT:

The practice of management is a universal activity in all countries of the world. The approaches of management, however, differ among countries. In fact, the meaning of the word 'management' varies, depending upon the language and disciplinary orientation of the user, the evolution of political and economic systems, and the stage of the development of the country. The manager must orient himself to solving problems with techniques tailored to the situation; yet he must develop a unified framework of thought that encompasses and integrates all aspects of the organization.

Traditional management theory usually deals with productive enterprises operating in a single environment. Management has been defined in 'one major work' as -

The accomplishment of desired objectives by establishing an environment favourable to performance by people operating in organized groups.<sup>1</sup>

In this approach, the managerial functions of planning, staffing, direction, organizing, and control within the firm are analysed. The firm attempts to operate as efficiently as possible in its environment, in the sense of trying to achieve its goals with the minimum use of resources. This functional view has already been outlined in Chapter 2 of this study (see Figure 2.1). A more precise definition for our use here would be that management is 'the process by which a co-operative group directs action toward common goals'. This process involves techniques by which a distinguishable group of people (managers) coordinates the activities of other people; managers seldom actually participate in the activities they direct.

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1. Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell, Principles of Management, 3rd ed., New York : McGraw-Hill Book Co. (1964), p.1.



Another way of arriving at the meaning of the term management is to examine the mental processes of the leaders in organizations. The authors suggest that from this viewpoint -

Management is defined as the integration of a balanced variety of ways of thinking. Each manager's perception of his role is based on his needs, attitudes, experiences and environment.

They identify some of the various ways of thinking:

1. Some leaders view management primarily as industrial engineering, a task involving the measurement of work and the analytical separation of physical from human factors.
2. Others approach the subject as economists examining the allocation of scarce resources with a focus on the future.
3. Some concentrate on accounting.
4. Some focus on public administration, emphasizing bureaucracy, organizational structure, and power.
5. Some approach management within a legal context, basing their actions on precedents and the maintenance of stability and order.
6. Some view decision-making as central to management.
7. Some take a primarily psychological approach emphasizing human needs, perceptions of roles, motivations, and emotional factors in organizational behaviour.
8. Some view management as a subheading of sociology and emphasize the interrelationships among groups.
9. Finally, some leaders view management with the orientation of social anthropologists, emphasizing cultural variations and pattern determined by history and environment. Massie and Luytje note (1972) that the definition given above encompasses all these ways of thinking and emphasizes an ecological approach capable of integrating them.

The concept of management just described provides useful criteria for developing a field of professional management. Viewed in this context, the activities and viewpoints of a manager can be clearly distinguished from the activities and viewpoints of other persons in a society.

In an international context, it is important to distinguish those aspects of management that can easily be transferred from one country to another from those aspects that are affected by factors external to the managing process. Harold Koontz (1969),<sup>1</sup> bases his distinction on the 'age-old difference between art and science'. Koontz argues that the portion of management which is a science can be more readily transferred from one country to another, and the portion which is an art is more greatly affected by environmental factors. Furthermore, the practitioner of the art of management who has a store of applicable and organized knowledge (science) to assist him will be more successful than if that organized knowledge is lacking. It is, therefore, very important to distinguish between the practice of managing and management principles.

The authors state that, theoretically, environmental factors may have an impact on the approaches and the practice of management, but the principles of management should be universal. Koontz claims that there are clearly identifiable principles of management which satisfy the scientific component that is transferable without regard to external factors.

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1. 'A Model for Analysing the Universality and Transferability of Management', Academy of Management Journal, 12, No.4 (December 1969), 415-429.



'Explorations of the management theory jungle reveal that virtually all theories approach the problem of management as an internal problem within a productive enterprise. External factors, if considered at all, are assumed constant in most formulations.' Hence, the universalists focus attention on functions and principles of internal management in a given firm in a given environment, seeking to determine how a firm might gain more effective and efficient operations.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) note that recently, management specialists have become specially interested in the international dimensions of management. This interest accelerated in the decade of the sixties as a result of improved transportation and communication systems, the formation and growth of regional markets and communities, the expansion of international technical assistance programmes, the growth of multinational corporations and the focus on the subject by national and international organizations and educational institutions. Massie and Luytjes (1972) regard the recent attention to the organic approaches to organization theory as 'especially useful in guarding against over-generalizations' as 'the mechanical, universalist approach has the disadvantage of ignoring the environmental setting in which the organization operates'. They think the problem is quite similar to that of transplanting organs in medical experiments. 'The techniques of management may work well in the setting in which they evolved and yet be rejected, or fail, in the social and cultural climate into which they are transplanted.'



Pioneer research on the comparison of managerial behaviour, attitudes, and satisfactions was completed in 1966 by Mason Haire, Edwin E. Ghiselli, and Lyman W. Porter.<sup>1</sup> This study, based on questionnaires to 3,641 managers in fourteen countries, concluded that there was a high degree of similarity in managerial behaviour in the various countries and that substantial national and cultural differences accounted for 25 percent of the variations in managerial attitudes (the findings of the study will be presented in more detail at the end of the chapter).

### 3.2 CROSS CULTURAL STUDIES

It has been mentioned earlier that the demand for studies of management in various countries of the world has grown rapidly in the last two decades or so. This demand comes both from practicing managers who are supposed to direct organizations in other countries and from academic specialists who are searching for fundamental administrative concepts.

Ferrel Heady summarized the subject by stating:

Those who are attempting to construct a science of administration recognize that this depends, among other things, on success in establishing propositions about administrative behaviour which transcend national boundaries... The limitations and hazards of ... parochialism are now being recognized, and we are on the threshold of a new era in administrative studies that will stress comparative analysis.

(Ferrel Heady, 1966).<sup>2</sup>

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1. Managerial Thinking : An International Study (New York : Wiley, 1966).
  2. Ferrel Heady, Public Administration : A Comparative Perspective (Englewood Cliff, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1966), p.3.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) note that one of the best statements defining the comparative approach has been offered by J. Boddewyn:

In its scientific form, the comparative approach consists of the systematic detection, identification, classification, measurement, and interpretation of similarities and differences between phenomena located in different times, places or sectors...

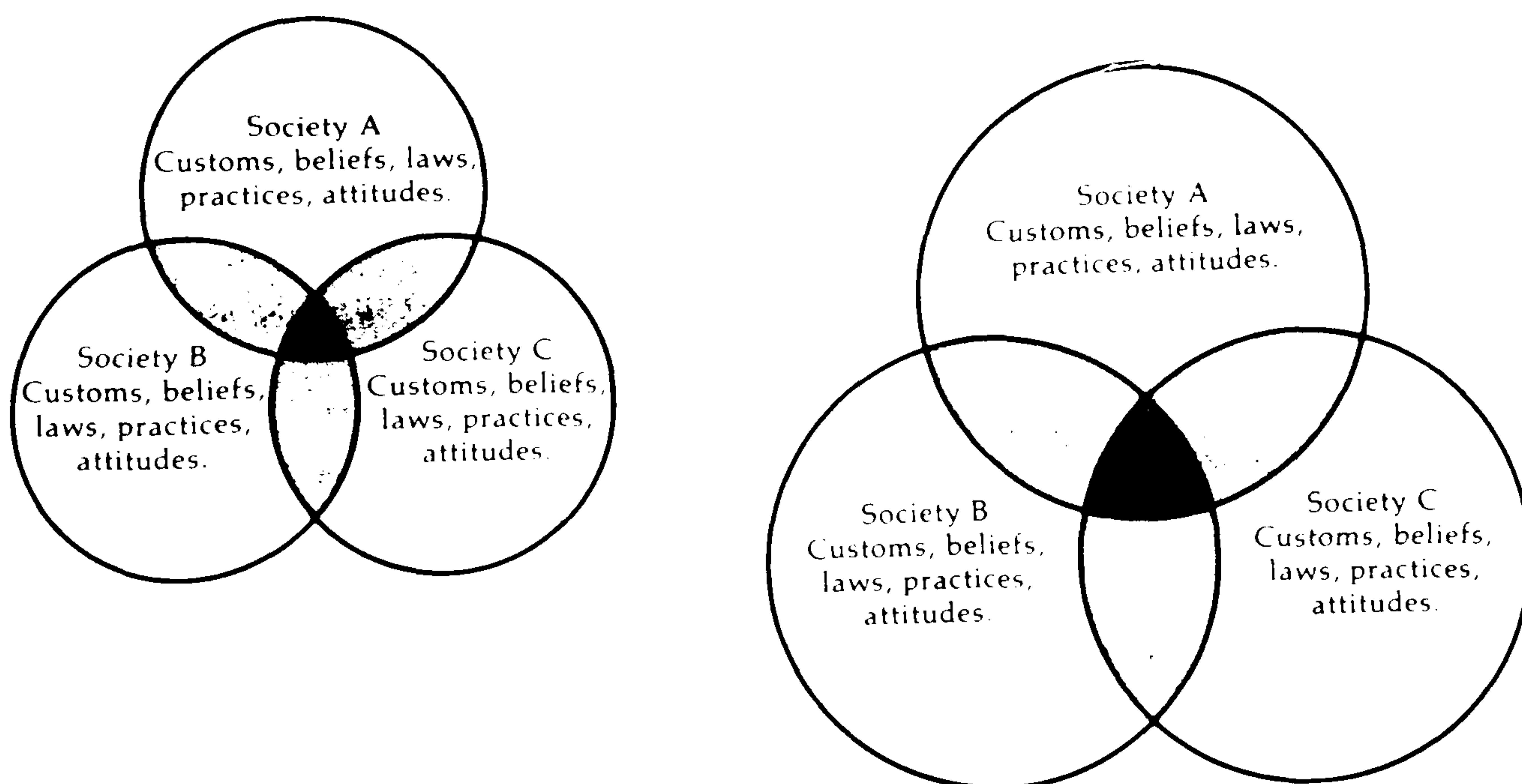
In the case of managers their environment has two basic dimensions:

- (1) the organization where they operate; and
- (2) the large external environment where the organization itself is found and interacts, and to which the managers themselves usually belong.<sup>1</sup>

The following schematic diagram represents an example of a cross-environmental comparison of three societies. Each society shares a common cultural heritage with other societies but also has a unique culture of its own. The diagram shows the overlap of cultural characteristics as the intersection of the different environmental factors. The shaded portion represents common cultural characteristics that support common management propositions.

FIGURE 3.1

Cross-cultural comparisons of Three Societies



1. J. Boddewyn, International Business Education Curriculum Planning (New York : Graduate School of Business Administration, New York University, 1966), 69.



Those elements common to the three societies are represented by the intersection of the three circles and are heavily shaded. Those elements common to two of the societies (thus providing the foundation for a transfer of managerial approaches between them) are lightly shaded. Those elements which are unique to each society are unshaded.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) note that the trend toward rapid changes in individual societies as a result of greater interaction with one another supports the hypothesis that there is a convergence of the environmental elements in those societies. 'The growth of international firms and the "westernizing" of other cultures have increased the number of common environmental factors. Thus many developing economies may soon be able to use the same managerial approaches as their industrialized neighbours.'

The methodological problem of conducting cross-cultural management research has been studied by Raghu Nath.<sup>1</sup> Nath identifies five major categories of research:

1. documentary studies supported by existing records and materials;
2. current statistical studies based on data from regularly operating statistical agencies and other organizations collecting social facts;
3. field studies supported by direct observation or interviews;
4. survey studies based upon mailed questionnaires or structured interviews; and
5. experimental studies.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) suggest that each of these methods can be used to contribute to a better understanding of management approaches in a variety of environments.

The methods and techniques used in our present research are presented and described in Chapter 5 of this study.

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1. Raghu Nath, 'The Methodological Review of Cross-cultural Management Research', International Social Science Journal, 20, No.1, 68.



### 3.3 HAIRE, GHISELLI AND PORTER : MANAGERIAL THINKING : AN INTERNATIONAL STUDY

The task of this study was to find an empirical answer to the question of similarities and differences in managers' attitudes.

When managers think about managing, are their ideas pretty much all the same, or does managerial thinking differ from one country to another country? And if it does differ, how do the countries group themselves together? Is there really a readily discernible pattern in managers' responses by clusters or groups of countries?

(1966, 1).

The findings of the study were based on a sample of 3,641 managers from 14 countries (Denmark, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Belgium, France, Italy, Spain, England, U.S.A., Argentina, Chile, India, Japan). The sample for each country was not strictly representative of the total management population of each country. However, the samples represented rather large groups and care was taken to sample different kinds of industries, geographical areas, levels of management and so on.

The study focused on three phases of management thinking:

1. Views on leadership and how one gets work done well and efficiently;
2. the way in which the role and practices of the manager are seen by managers themselves; and
3. the satisfactions a manager wants and gets from his job.

To answer the research questions stated above, Haire and his colleagues prepared a questionnaire which each manager-respondent could complete for himself.

In order to compare the answers with as little error as possible, Haire and his colleagues emphasized the significance of asking identical questions of each manager.

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of eight statements to which managers were asked to respond by checking a point on a five-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Items of this section were chosen to cover a fair number of managerial attitudes on leadership running from 'democratic to autocratic forms of leadership'. To put it in the frame of international studies of management, the ends of the scale resemble the points Harbison and Myers described as 'dictatorial or authoritarian' on the one hand and 'democratic or participative' on the other.<sup>1</sup> They covered:

- A. Managers' beliefs in the capacity of subordinates.
- B. Managers' beliefs in sharing information and objectives.
- C. The belief in participative management.
- D. The belief in internal control (essentially self-control of the individual flowing from the job and from understanding and commitment) rather than external control (punishment, reward, promotion).

The second part of the questionnaire attempted to get at the managers' perceptions of the role and practices of the manager, by use of a Semantic Differential format. As the statistical analysis of the semantic differential is long and complex, this technique has been replaced in our present study by another one which most directly suits our purpose. Therefore, details of this part in Haire's Questionnaire are not fully reported here.

The third part of the questionnaire, was concerned with the types of satisfactions managers want from their jobs and with the degree to which they feel these different needs are actually being satisfied through their jobs. It was made up of a series of 11 items designed

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1. Harbison and C. Myers, Management in the Industrial World (New York ; McGraw Hill, 1960).



to obtain responses geared to the Maslow hierarchy needs for security, social needs, esteem needs, and needs for autonomy and self-actualization.

Security needs were not defined for the respondent, but were interpreted in a general way as one's feeling of safety and assurance in a particular managerial position. Social needs referred to the desire to develop close friendships and the opportunity to give help to other people; thus both ingoing and outgoing aspects of needs for social satisfaction were covered in the questionnaire.

Esteem needs covered both self-esteem and esteem received from other people. Autonomy needs referred to the authority connected with the managers position and the opportunity for independent thought and action. Finally self-actualization needs tapped feelings of self-fulfilment, worthwhile accomplishment, and personal growth.

The specific questions in each of these five need areas asked managers to make three responses:

1. How much is there now (of the opportunity to satisfy a given need)?
2. How much should there be? and
3. How important is this to me?

The respondent answered each question by checking a 7-point scale labelled from minimum to maximum. The answers to the third question were used to determine the importance attached to the particular needs, that is, what the manager wants to get from his position. To determine degree of fulfilment or satisfaction, or what he feels he is getting from his position, the difference between responses to Question 2 and Question 1 was computed for each item for each respondent. Thus, the larger the difference between 'should be' and 'is now'



the greater was the indicated dissatisfaction.

In addition to these three main parts of the questionnaire a final page included questions designed to collect demographic data relating to respondent's age, education, experience and so on.

### 3.3.1 A PRELIMINARY LOOK AT FINDINGS

As mentioned before, the two basic questions of the study are:

Are the managers' attitudes similar or dissimilar?

How do the countries cluster together?

To these the authors added a third:

Within the segments of the study - leadership, the concept of the manager's role, and motivation - how do countries and managers differ from one another?

From the ratios obtained among the three parts of the questionnaire, Haire and his colleagues, note that of all the variation observed, about 28 percent was associated with national groupings, the differences among individuals are about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times as great as the differences among countries. Hence, they concluded that if all differences arising from national origin were eliminated, the difference in managers' attitudes would be reduced by about 25 to 30 percent. But whether this difference arising from countries is big or not, 'is impossible to answer in any absolute sense' as the difference measured here is a relative one. However, the authors note that there are two facets to the issue of cultures in which managers work: the national culture and the 'culture of management'. Thus they argued -

Being a manager is a way of life that, as such, a French manager might be expected to be more similar to an Indian manager, say, than to a French non-manager. The considerable similarity among managers' responses supports this belief in the universality of managerial philosophy ... On the other hand, one might believe that the fact of being a Frenchman, for instance, outweighs all else; so that a French manager is more like another non-managerial Frenchman in his attitudes about management than he like an Indian manager.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) note that there is a very strong tendency for managers to express similar beliefs about what they do as managers. 'In this sense, the values, perceptions, and attitudes of management can be said to be universal. To be a manager is to have a philosophy of management much like that of other managers everywhere' (p.9). They suggest that when explanations of managerial thinking are postulated the co-existence of similarity and diversity across nations must be considered; 'the cultural influence is present and substantial. It is not overwhelming'.

The Research methodology of the Haire **et al** study is described in Chapter 5 of this study. At this stage the intention is to summarize the main findings and discuss the comments of the researchers. Their data will be examined in detail in Chapter 6, when the data of the present study, that is, the Sudanese case, are presented.

The study, as mentioned earlier, involved managers from 14 countries and data were obtained by means of a questionnaire:

- Part i        Attitudes and Assumptions underlying management practices.
- Part ii       Cognitive Descriptions of the managerial role.
- Part iii      Managerial Motivations and satisfactions.
- Part iv      Individual Employment Details.



In summarizing the broad implication of Haire and his colleagues' study, it may be appropriate at this stage to follow their own pattern:

i. Attitudes and Assumptions Underlying Management Practices

Haire and his colleagues state that:

Central to the act of managing is dealing with people. The way in which managers work with people presumably depends upon their assumptions about what people are like and how people can most effectively be led by a superior.

By asking managers about such assumptions and attitudes the authors reached the result that in almost all the fourteen countries, managers held rather negative views about the average individual's capacity for initiative and leadership. At the same time, however, these managers believed that participative, group-centred methods of leadership are more effective than traditional directive methods. That means, unless one believes in untapped capacity for leadership in subordinates, a classical unilateral directive management is best. Here we find a lack of basic confidence in others and at the same time a leaning towards participative group-centred management. In other words, they favoured using a managerial strategy the success of which depends upon the very qualities which they believed their subordinates are largely lacking.

Across the board, good management is still seen as deciding and directing - a much more centralized and unilateral view of the dynamics of the process than is often announced ... Managers seem consistently to endorse egalitarian principles vis-à-vis organizational structure, and yet seem to act as if they were part of an elite group.

(p. 172).



From the findings presented by Haire **et al**, it seems likely that assumptions about human nature and his attitudes toward the type of leadership practices must be affected to some degree by 'the broad stream of cultural traditions of the particular social environment (the country) in which the manager lives'. However, despite the wide variety of cultures represented by the fourteen countries, the authors discovered considerable similarity among their managers on the major finding of this part of the study:

The tendency to disagree with the belief that the average individual possesses a capacity for initiative and leadership, and, simultaneously, a tendency to agree that democratic-participative methods are the best methods of leadership. Table 3.1 and Figure 3.2 illustrate the universality of this finding. Discussing reasons for the paradox, the authors suggested that this result is possibly the effect of the 'partial digestion of exhortation by the group-oriented consultants and professors of management' during the past couple of decades or so. It appears to the authors that such ideas of democratic styles of leadership have universally received lip service throughout top and middle levels of management, though the underlying assumptions about human nature, like McGregor's famous **Theory Y** for example, 'have not been taken to heart'.

The authors believe that this situation is a little like building 'the techniques and practices of a Jeffersonian democracy on a basic belief in the divine rights of Kings'.

They argued that one possibility for this is that managers do not really believe that democratic-type practices will bring about any positive gains, but, nevertheless, feel that they will appear as old-fashioned managers if they do not endorse them.

TABLE 3.1

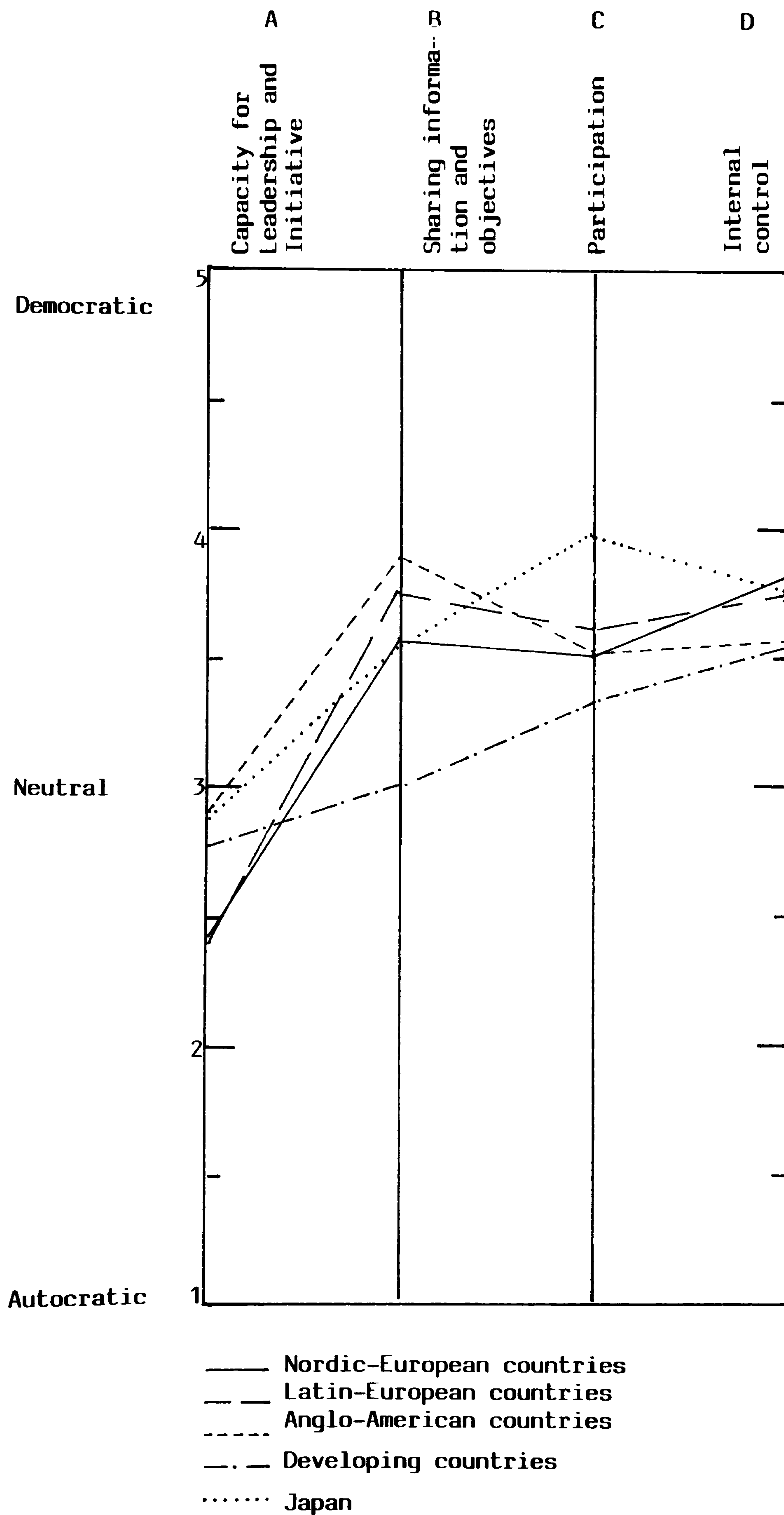
Attitudes Toward Management Practices  
(Raw Scores)\*

\*Higher mean values indicate stronger endorsement of democratic attitudes

	Capacity for Leadership & initiative	Sharing Information & objectives	Participation	Internal control	N
Nordic-European Countries					
Denmark	2.57	3.09	3.68	3.90	149
Germany	2.38	3.17	3.52	3.88	586
Norway	2.52	4.04	3.47	3.90	221
Sweden	2.22	4.01	3.35	3.88	342
Average	2.42	3.58	3.51	3.89	
Latin-European Countries					
Belgium	2.29	3.74	3.88	3.74	378
France	2.42	4.04	3.82	3.80	154
Italy	2.40	3.64	3.16	3.72	267
Spain	2.52	3.56	3.65	3.78	203
Average	2.41	3.75	3.63	3.76	
Anglo-American Countries					
England	2.72	3.78	3.48	3.56	239
United States	3.13	3.98	3.56	3.58	464
Average	2.93	3.88	3.52	3.57	
Developing Countries					
Argentina	2.64	2.96	3.31	3.62	198
Chile	2.80	3.08	3.32	3.65	159
India	2.81	2.96	3.35	3.38	114
Average	2.75	3.00	3.33	3.55	
Japan	2.88	3.58	3.98	3.77	165
All Managers	2.59	3.55	3.54	3.73	

FIGURE 3.2

Attitudes toward management practices:  
by clusters of countries (raw scores)





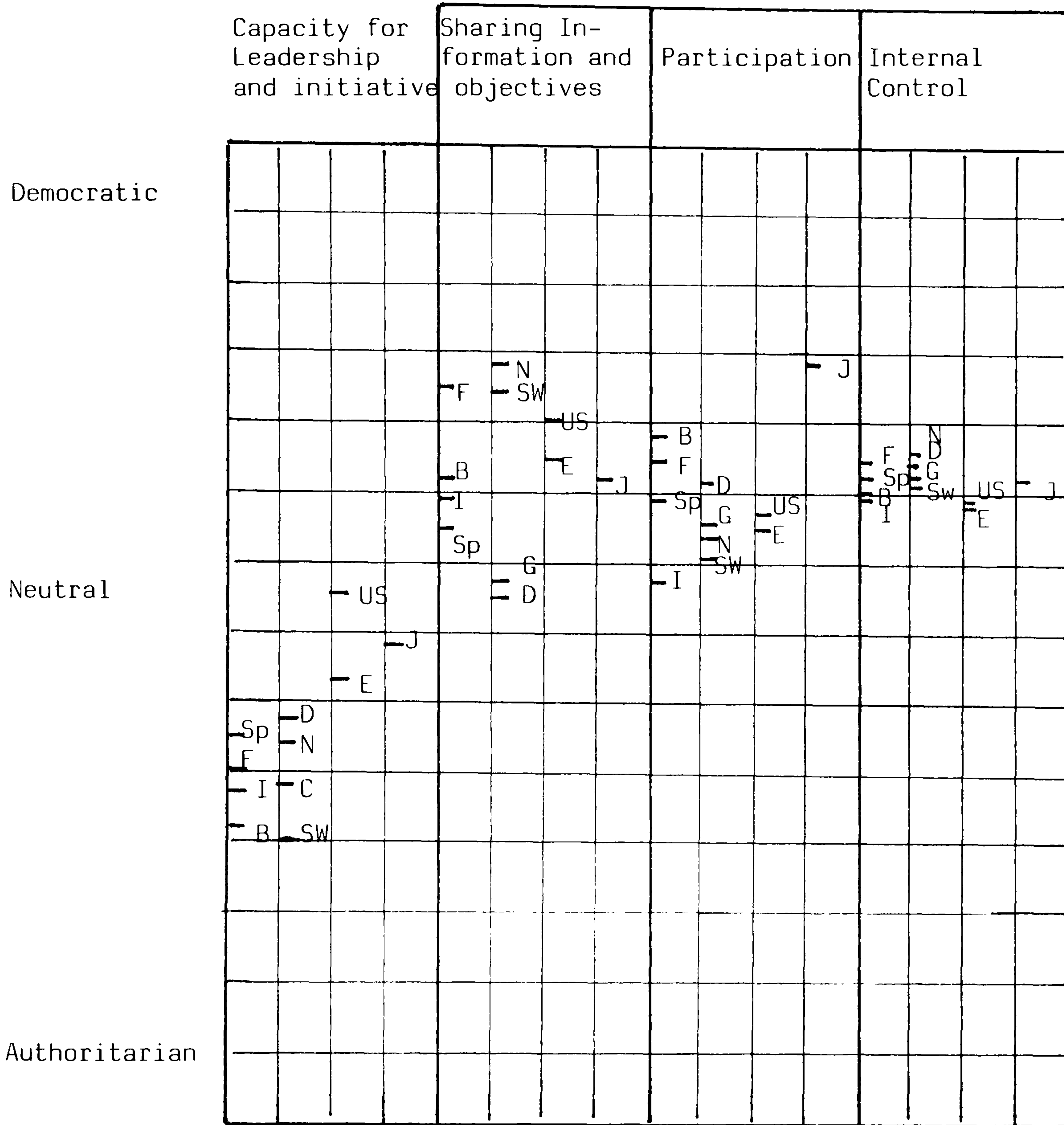
Another possible explanation provided by Haire and his colleagues is that, managers feel that certain benefits are gained by these methods, even though, at the same time, they believe the average individual lacks initiative and the willingness to accept responsibility. The major benefit to be gained from these methods would be a decreased resistance to the leadership of the superior. In other words, a manager might adopt these techniques not due to his genuine commitment to the view which underlies this approach to management, but because it is a useful tool in improving his directive and manipulating his subordinates. Managers' views on how to manage people are somewhat similar. As can be seen from Table 3.1 and Figure 3.2 above, attitudes of managers in all the countries cluster near the same value on all three scales (B, C and D). The belief in participation is perhaps a little weaker than in sharing information and internal control, but the difference is small in comparison with the gap between category A and all the others. 'One can look at these data and be impressed by the relatively narrow range of differences among all countries.' They all cluster low on category A and roughly together on B, C and D.

Turning to the differences among countries, Figure 3.3 below shows the picture: Are there groups of countries? How do they cluster? One way to find an answer is to look at the way countries shift positions from one part of the chart to another. For example, England and the U.S.A. seem to shift as a pair. On each of the four scales they tend to be positioned - with respect to all the others - in much the same way.

FIGURE 3.3

Average Values on Attitudes toward Leadership

Superior-Subordinate Relationships



Key: B - Belgium, D - Denmark, E - England, F - France, G - Germany, I - Italy, J - Japan, N - Norway, Sp - Spain, SW - Sweden, US - United States.

One significant aspect of Haire **et al** findings, for our present study, is that of the 14 countries, the Anglo-American countries (i.e. England and the U.S.A.) and the three developing countries (i.e. Argentina, Chile and India) come closest to matching their endorsement of democratic approaches with a faith in the average person (see Table 3.1 and Figure 3.2 above).

In the two Anglo-American countries this relatively smaller difference is due to the fact that managers in these countries have greater belief in subordinates' capacities than do managers in most of the other countries.

The difference between the U.S. and all others is largest in category A. U.S. managers express the belief that 'all men are created equal more strongly than any of the others'. Presumably managers think that they themselves have the capacity for leadership and initiative; they feel, more than the others, that the average person has the same capacities also.

In the case of the developing countries, this was due to a relatively weak endorsement of democratic approaches to management rather than a positive belief in subordinates' capacities (although these three developing countries were above the average of the countries on this scale).

The eight European countries (the four Nordic and the four Latin ones) show rather similar patterns of clearly negative views of individuals' capacities for leadership and initiative, and strongly positive views of the modern management theory approach to administrative practices.



Having discussed the overall differences among clusters of countries in patterns of response to all four categories of items, Haire and his colleagues turned to examine differences among the 14 countries in response to each category taken separately. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.4 below, showing data in standard score form, facilitate quick comparisons of managers attitudes:

A. Managers' beliefs in the capacity of subordinates:

It will be recalled that the two items in this category were the following:

1. 'The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition' (stated from the classical point of view).
2. 'Leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities' (stated from the modern organization theory point of view).

From the first column of Table 3.2, the authors note that the managers from the United States 'were more democratic in their view points on this category than managers from any other country'. They did not find this finding too surprising 'since the U.S. is the home of most of modern organization theory'. They consider this finding as one of the more striking of the specific findings of their study. Based on the result that the mean value for the American managers is relatively so high and the value for English managers is also on the positive side on the grand mean, they conclude that the Anglo-American countries have the highest positive standard score for any of the five clusters of countries.

TABLE 3.2

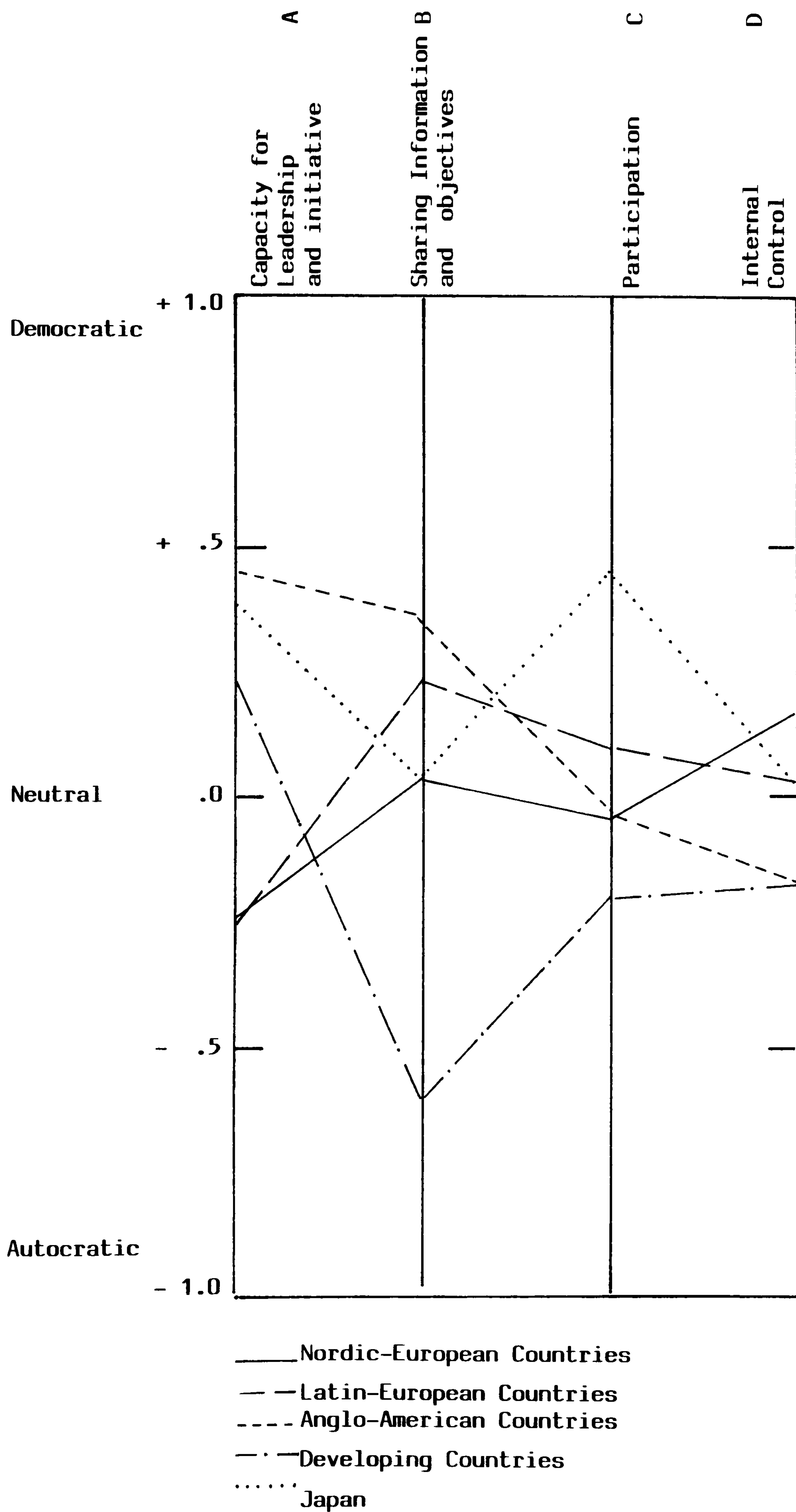
Attitudes Toward Management Practices  
(Standard Scores)\*

\*Positive mean values indicate relatively democratic attitudes;  
negative values indicate relatively autocratic attitudes.

	Capacity for Leadership & initiative	Sharing Informa- tion & objectives	Partici- pation	Internal control	N
Nordic-European Countries					
Denmark	- .07	- 0.49	.14	.17	149
Germany	- .28	- .41	- .02	.15	586
Norway	- .10	.54	- .07	.17	221
Sweden	- .50	.51	- .19	.15	342
Average	- .24	.04	- .04	.16	
Latin-European Countries					
Belgium	- .41	.21	.34	.01	378
France	- .23	.54	.28	.07	154
Italy	- .26	.10	- .38	- .01	267
Spain	- .10	.02	.11	.05	203
Average	- .25	.22	.09	.03	
Anglo-American Countries					
England	.17	.25	- .06	- .17	239
United States	.72	.47	.02	- .15	464
Average	.45	.36	- .02	- .16	
Developing Countries					
Argentina	.07	- .63	- .23	- .11	198
Chile	.28	- .51	- .22	- .08	159
India	.29	- .64	- .19	- .35	114
Average	.21	- .59	- .21	- .18	
Japan	.39	.04	.44	.04	165
All Managers	.00	.00	.00	.00	

FIGURE 3.4

Attitudes toward Management Practices by  
clusters of Countries (Standard scores)





What they find striking is that Japan is the second highest scoring country! They state that the meaning of this finding is not immediately obvious to them, but nevertheless, they produced two possible explanations:

- a. The Japanese managers might have tried to 'please' the American researchers by giving them the responses they thought the Americans wanted.
- b. Due to their past traditions, the Japanese, especially those managers who attend executive development programmes, tend to overreact to participative, democratic-oriented ideas and practices.

Another group of countries which Haire and his colleagues note that it has an overall standard score above the total sample means is the cluster of Developing Countries. They observe, however, that the relationship between their answers to items in the other three categories is quite different from the Japanese pattern. While the developing countries are above the mean in advocating a democratic belief in the average individual's capacities, they are clearly below the mean values in each of the other three categories concerning the implementation of managerial action. Thus, the authors suggest, 'managers in the developing countries were not just routinely giving democratic answers to all of the questions' (p.31).

B. Managers Beliefs in Sharing information and objectives:

It will be recalled that the two items in this category were both stated from a classical organization theory point of view:

1. 'A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details.'
2. 'A superior should give his subordinates only that information which is necessary for them to do their immediate tasks.'

The second column in Table 3.2 shows that the managers of the developing countries (Argentina, Chile and India) hold negative views (in relation to other countries) as far as this method of exercising leadership is concerned. On the other hand, the four Latin European countries view this practice relatively positively, whereas on the former category (beliefs in the capacity of subordinates) their responses were negative. The authors believe that the explanation of this shift could be associated with managers' views concerning the expected reactions of subordinates to the sharing of information by superiors. In other words, the managers in developing countries appear to respect the potentialities of their subordinates, yet they may feel that the average employees would not appreciate or respond favourably to strategies of sharing information. On the other hand, managers in the Latin-European countries hold a different belief; they feel that their subordinates expect a certain amount of such sharing by the superior.

At any rate the data generally indicate that the developing country managers held negative views about sharing information with subordinates. They tend to make greater distinctions between persuasion and direction than did most of the other managers in Haire **et al** study with the exception of Germany and the three Scandinavian countries. Direction was perceived as associated action, firmness, prestige, decisiveness and co-operation, whereas persuasion had negative connotations of cheating and making mistakes. The authors note that it is not too surprising to find a sharp distinction between to direct and to persuade in these developing countries, 'because business operations in the three developing countries have traditionally had more autocratic overtones than those in most of the more industrially advanced countries' (p. 51).



C. The Belief in Participative Management:

The two items in this category were (both items being phrased according to modern organization theory):

1. In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me, then I lose some of my influence on them.
2. Group goal-setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting.

The data of this part of Haire **et al** questionnaire about participation and group goal-setting, indicate that the range of scores across the fourteen countries is narrower than was the case for the previous two sets of items. The authors note that cultural and industrial differences had a less impact on this category than on the previous ones. It appears to them that the nature of the situation (i.e. the business setting) interacts to produce a kind of uniformity of opinion among managers regarding the extent of effective participation. They also attributed this universal uniformity of opinion about participation to organization theorists and teachers of management who recently tended to emphasize this issue of participative management to such an extent that 'they have been partly responsible for managers in different countries being in fairly close agreement about the efficacy of participation'. Among the countries which deviate to some extent from the total sample mean is Japan where managers are the most favourable toward the use of participation, and the developing countries which, relatively speaking, are mildly negative toward this type of approach.



#### D. The Belief in Internal Control:

It will be recalled that the two items of this category of the nature of authority and control were:

1. The use of rewards (pay, promotion, etc.) and punishment (failure to promote, etc.) is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.
2. The superior's authority over his subordinates is primarily economic.

The major findings regarding this category is that the degree of homogeneity among all countries was even clearer than for the one concerning participation. Haire and his colleagues note that the range of means among the 14 countries was only .52, and for the four groups of two or more countries it was .32 (i.e. the average responses were relatively quite close to the overall mean). Thus, again, for this category like the previous one, the authors were able to conclude that the impact of cultural and industrialization differences was insignificant.

#### 3.3.2 KINDS OF MANAGERS

From the data of their questionnaire, Haire and his colleagues were able to break the managers down into several categories:

- old and young;
- belonging to large and small organizations;
- occupying higher and lower positions in the hierarchy.

They remark, however, that these variables do not show much influence on attitudes, motivation, or perceptions of the role of the manager. They note that the observed differences related to such dimensions seem to be much smaller than those associated with the clusters of countries. 'In overall terms, the general impact of the culture outweighs the effect of differentiating variable characteristics of the

manager' (p.173). Despite this tendency for the differences to be small, the authors make emphasis on some which are noteworthy:

- Democratic attitudes tend to appear in the young high-level managers in large organizations.
- The higher-level managers in large organizations tended to be more satisfied, and had the tendency to see more opportunities for need fulfilment in the job.
- Older managers too had this tendency, 'but this may be partly because the older tend to be higher'.

This consistency of responses between managers, which has been noted previously, may be viewed as evidence for the argument that there may be a developing 'culture of management' which significantly influences those engaged in the management of organizations regardless of their individual characteristics or national origins.

### **3.3.3 SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY AND MANAGERIAL MOTIVATION**

From the data concerning motivation and needs satisfaction at work, Haire and his colleagues note that important paradoxes emerge:

1. There is little difference in the fulfilment of needs across countries. All managers from the 14 countries, when asked 'how much there is' reported similar degrees of fulfilment. 'The institution of industry is offering similar opportunities for people in various situations' (p.174).
2. When asked to state the degree to which they were satisfied (i.e. fulfilment provided against expectations), managers across all 14 countries, in general, revealed that the needs for autonomy and self-actualization stand out as unsatisfied. 'Whatever opportunities business, as an institution, is offering, those who enter it are looking for more in those two areas.'
3. Managers from the three developing countries (Argentina, Chile, and India) and the two Latin-European countries (Spain and Italy), in particular, demonstrate the highest degree of dissatisfaction. They 'approach the fairly uniform motivational opportunities in industry with exceedingly high expectations'.



4. Managers of these developing countries also indicated outstandingly and consistently the higher assessment of the importance of all needs. 'These countries come to industry not only with high expectations, but also with the conviction that these are of prime importance' (p.174).

These results seem to support the authors' observation stated previously in this study and elsewhere (Haire, Ghiselli and Porter, 1963), that 'managers tend to be alike from country to country in what they want from their jobs, they differ greatly on what they are getting'.

The authors summarized the data concerning this area into two main issues:

- The motivational spectrum business provides; and,
- The meaning of heightened expectations in developing countries.

On the first point they note that:

The relative homogeneity of opportunities suggests that there is to some degree a common core in all business cultures. We do not get the picture - from the managers' view - of an archaic counting-house atmosphere in one place and consultative management in another. The problem of business, in motivational terms, is not one of bringing laggard countries up to a general standard.

The data show that security needs are relatively well met and no longer constitute a primary problem for these managers and that social and esteem satisfactions are evident. However, across all countries of the study, what was lacking was Autonomy and Self-Actualization. Haire and his colleagues draw the attention to the possible consequences of this pattern of relative satisfactions and dissatisfactions and suggest that it can have considerable importance in the decision



of people within a country to go into management. 'To recruit the ablest, and to secure their initiative and capacities for innovation, we will almost certainly have to come closer to meeting their expectations in the areas of Autonomy and Self-Actualization.' They view business organizations as being at a turning point in historical development. Their study shows evidence that these organizations are now reasonably caring to meet the needs of their managers for security, satisfactory social relationships and recognition, but will have to consider the 'specter of the "organization man" which is currently large on most national business screens'. Capable youngsters and talented men may seek opportunities outside business organizations at autonomous professions or governmental positions as a path to more autonomy and self-actualization. In principle, Haire and his colleagues see no reason why industry cannot offer more of such opportunities for autonomy and self-actualization. They note that management thinking is probably changing in the direction of providing this kind of opportunities, but not fast enough to cope with the increasing demand for them. This, they warn, will make industry at a competitive disadvantage in the labour market. Haire **et al** note that this trend of increasing expectations is even more evident in newly industrialized countries. There are urgent and immediate demands for broader enfranchisement - more autonomy and more opportunity for self-actualization. Business organizations are expected to -

Supply something quite different from, and more than, the means of production as defined in the traditional Marxist view of a factory.

When the firm is established and developed, it will become a social institution that should provide more than material production. 'It is importantly charged with a responsibility to provide also opportunities for human growth and development.'

The expectations of the managers of the developing countries were reported as uniformly high compared with those of the other countries. Although the other ratings of their expectations fulfilment were about the same level as the managers from other nations, the higher level of their expectations, and the fact they considered the fulfilment of all needs at work as of relatively higher importance than did the other managers, led them to record great dissatisfaction. Therefore, the authors think that the expectations of managers in developing countries could be called 'unreasonable expectations'. However, they went on to say -

... but the assessment of what is reasonable is as culturally determined, and as shifting, as the old issue of what management's prerogative is.

(p.176).

#### **3.3.4 INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL CAUSAL FACTORS:**

In looking over the findings of their study, the authors emphasize that two pairs of themes emerged and each of them seems to contain a contradiction:

- a. The first is the similarity of viewpoints among all managers, alongside the diversity of the clusters of countries. 'This simultaneous existence of homogeneity and diversity' which keeps appearing in the data, suggests that there is a developing 'culture of industry' which is reflected by the similarity of the responses of all managers. 'In this sense, the imperatives of the business situation and its values and traditions seem to bring about a uniform



response to problems of management.' On the other hand, in each country, this industrial culture is adopted with a clear interaction with the traditions of that country. Therefore, explanations for respondents' answers should not be sought in either industrial culture or national culture; 'any attempt to understand managerial behaviour must include both facets of the problem'.

- b. The second pair of themes is 'the simultaneous explanation in terms of level of industrialization and of cultural patterns in the groups of countries'. An either-or solution would again be easier, but 'the data repeatedly force both influences on us simultaneously'.

In considering motivation at work, for instance, the cultural clusters of countries stand clearly separate from one another (like the U.S.A. and Britain), suggesting a one-sided explanation. Yet, the emergence of the three developing countries as a different cluster from all the other clusters despite their very different cultural backgrounds, suggests that in such instances we must rather look to the levels of industrialization for explanations of their homogeneity.

While this duality approach is not quite explicitly denied, the authors observed that in reality the emphasis is heavily one-sided. Economists, for example, tend to emphasize structural situational factors and psychologists, on the other hand, turn toward more personally-oriented variables. Any one of such approaches, they suggest, if taken separately is bound to be deficient. We must accept both factors as interrelated explanatory variables since in any attempt to understand managerial behaviour 'it is clear that the response is a complex function both of the way the person views and internalizes his world and of the pressures of his external situation'.



The authors state that 'if there is any one broad finding that emerges from this study, it must be the existence of recognizable cultural clusters of countries' in terms of managerial thinking, and this study demonstrates that 'identical questions can be asked across cultures without losing so much in translation as to blur the outlines'.

### 3.4 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 has discussed relevant literature on cross-cultural management which emphasized the universality of the principles though, theoretically, environmental factors may have an impact on the approaches and the practice of management.

The chapter has mainly summarized Haire **et al**'s study, the task of which was to find an empirical answer to the question of similarities and differences in managers' attitudes. The methodology and techniques adopted by Haire and his colleagues have been briefly described and findings of their study reported.

From the data reported, it seems that there is a very high degree of similarity among managers' attitudes in all the countries studied. However, differences were also observed among managers, 25% of which were believed to be attributed to national differences.

The next chapter will in turn deal with the data on the attitudes, motivations, satisfactions, and practices of our Sudanese managers and the findings will be discussed and compared with those of Haire **et al**'s study.

**PART III**  
**BACKGROUND TO CASE STUDY AND**  
**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

CHAPTER 4BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

- 4.1 Role of Public Enterprises.
  - 4.2 Administrative Goals of Public Enterprise.
  - 4.3 Origins and Development of Public Corporation in Sudan.
  - 4.4 Socio-Economic Background.
  - 4.5 Agro-Industries.
  - 4.6 Sugar Industry.
    - 4.6.1 Producing Units.
    - 4.6.2 Organization of The Public Sector Industry.
    - 4.6.3 Guneid Sugar Factory.
    - 4.6.4 New Halfa Sugar Factory.
    - 4.6.5 Sennar Sugar Factory.
    - 4.6.6 Assalaya Sugar Factory.
    - 4.6.7 Kenana Sugar Company.
  - 4.7 Reorganization of The Sugar Industry.
  - 4.8 Summary.
- 

As the Sugar Industry is one of the largest and economically one of the most important public enterprises of Sudan which was created to play specific roles in that economy, and may consequently be regarded as representative of the other Sudanese public enterprises, it could thus prove essential and timely to briefly review at the beginning of this chapter the roles of public enterprises.



The main intention is to give a background to and introduce the case study. Therefore, the chapter also traces the origin and development of public corporations in Sudan. It highlights the socio-economic environment in which organizations which are the subject of the case study operate. In addition to that, it surveys other important factors which contribute to the organizational climate of the Sugar Industry such as the establishment of each individual factory, its development, organizational structure, working conditions, and some of the constraints facing the industry. Records of production are also summarised in the chapter.

It also briefly presents recent steps taken to transform the sugar factories into autonomous companies and the re-organization of the entire set up of the Sugar Industry.

#### **4.1 ROLE OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES**

Increasing intervention by the state in the economic field has been a characteristic feature of the twentieth century:

Contrary to the state of things and of thinking in the nineteenth century, the state today, far from being merely a passive observer of the economic process, which once it was, has emerged as an active participant, taking upon itself the role of protector, of controller, of guardian of the citizen and of entrepreneur.

(Khera, 1963, p.3)

There is hardly any country today in which the government is not engaged actively and directly in the setting up and management of economic and industrial enterprises. The theory that the state was limited to certain supervisory functions, mainly in the field of law and order, and that it had no business to enter the field of industry, has given way to the recognition that the intervention of the state in

these fields is a legitimate and often an indispensable function of modern government.

The government role in planning productive change has become not only an expected function but a demanded political, economic and social right.

Chief among the vehicles through which governments in developing countries implement their national and regional development plans are public enterprises. The post independence era in most developing countries witnessed substantial increase in number, variety and complexity of scale of operations encompassing infrastructural, industrial, commercial and agricultural public enterprises. This growth in number and variety of public enterprises is basically a result of accepting development planning as the national approach in enhancing socio-economic development. Public enterprises are viewed as major instruments which bring the countries resources under public control while at the same time guaranteeing that their projects are carried out in accordance with viable business practices. In the words of a United Nations Group of Experts:

... they are expected to perform no less effectively than successful private enterprises and are also expected to operate in conformity with certain public policy objectives.

(U.N. 1973)

In addition to these two significant aspects - public control and business practice - public enterprises are generally conceived to have an inbuilt social dimension, as Garth Glentworth has noted:

... There is also a social dimension to the motives for creating public enterprises in developing countries. By this is meant a desire to create opportunities for the citizenry, to gain experience and reasonably secure places in the economy of the



country. The very fact that they exist and provide employment opportunities in industrial and secondary agricultural sectors, is sufficient to give them a social utility of their own and to provide an extra impetus for their creation.

(G. Glentworth, Journal of Administration Overseas, July 1973).

Whatever the ultimate perspective may be, the country anxious to develop economically has no alternative but to use public enterprise on a considerable scale at the very least in order to 'get things going' (Hanson, 1972). How much is left to private initiative will depend, partly on ideology, but to a much greater extent on social and economic circumstances.

#### Motives Creating Public Enterprise

No one country has exactly the same motives, pressures, and purposes of another country for creating public enterprises. However, many countries throughout the world have adopted public enterprise as a main device to mobilize and allocate resources to accelerate their socio-economic development for the benefit of the whole population. Perhaps, as stated by Hanson, the whole process of development might be described as public enterprise (Hanson, 1972, p.115). This is not far from the truth, specially when the term 'public enterprise' is used in a more restricted and more familiar sense, to mean state ownership and/or control and operation of industrial, agricultural, financial and commercial undertakings.



Hanson went even further to advance the view that economic development is impossible without public enterprise. (G. Glentworth, 1975). In the face of obstacles to development, particularly the difficulties in mobilizing savings, governments may turn to public enterprise as an option that could generate investment finance. These arguments should not automatically rule out the supplementary role of the private sector in national development. Directives and controls on its activities can make it contribute positively in many areas and various ways despite allegations raised against it. But, given the lack of capital markets in many countries, private firms may be unable to mobilize the volume of capital necessary for certain projects. This problem is mostly evident in developing countries where in most of them only the state or foreign enterprises have the adequate resources for such projects. If for any reason foreign participation is not possible, then responsibility for undertaking large projects falls to the state which may respond by assigning the task to an existing public enterprise or creating an entirely new one.

The role of the public enterprise can also be significant in the short term management of the economy. For example it can be manipulated to stabilize the economy in case of fluctuations caused by trade or business cycle or when there are inequalities in the balance of payments. Pricing and import substitution policies are examples of the main measures that can be taken to smooth out economic disturbances. Import substitution policy can be intended to diversify and increase the volume of economic activity as well as it is sometimes used as a precaution against fears of the misuse of critical supplies by foreign suppliers. Also fears of misuse of economic power by both

national and foreign investors and what they could do to the national economy may lead governments to nationalize and confiscate private ownership to reshape the national economy or turn the rewards to national objectives. This might well be expressed, for example, by the Sudan Public Corporation Act, 1971, which presents:

... Liberating the national economy from the grip of international monopoly which fettered its progress; and taking the road of economic development that is aimed at achieving freedom from the domination of the world capitalist economy...

One of the most important roles public enterprises play in developing countries is that they are used as the spearhead of national development. The prevailing conditions of low growth and demand lead to low investment which will in turn lead to low levels of employment and wages resulting in reinforcement of low growth and demand levels in a vicious circle. Public enterprise can be called on to lead the break out of the circle by injecting new investment creating employment and demand. The resulting activity will have a multiplier effect and eventually some form of self-sustaining economic take off may be achieved.

Another specific advantage of public enterprise in this respect is its role in resources mobilization as mentioned earlier. This can take place by providing a directly productive outlet for government revenue, by attracting foreign investment, when this is desirable, or by mobilizing investment from 'national' capitalists in joint ventures.

Balancing resource allocation between the different activities of the economy can create activities in neglected sectors. Public enterprise is the critical vehicle in achieving this aim. Depending on the government plan emphasis may be placed on a particular sector to achieve certain objectives. This may necessitate allocating more resources to one sector than the other sectors, or perhaps shifting



resources from one sector to another. This will definitely not be possible if the resources are not in the hands of the government.

Public enterprises can be used by governments as an agency of social engineering. If governments fear concentration of economic power in the hands of a small number of certain families, tribes or ethnic groups that may give them political or social influence, they may move to reduce this power through nationalization of private firms or by creation of public enterprises to improve the social status and opportunities of other groups.

Examples of reducing power through nationalization of private firms can be demonstrated by the nationalization of many banks, insurance companies, industrial firms and agricultural interests by the government of Pakistan in 1974. Similar actions have been made by the government of Chile in 1971-73 when a variety of textile, banking, publishing and industrial undertakings have been seized on grounds of excessive concentration of ownership in the hands of a small number of individuals. (Malcolm Gillis, 1980). In line of these arguments, the Sudan public Corporation Act 1971, states that among many uses of public enterprise, it has been created:

... to serve the public interest and to get rid of the selfishness and greediness of private exploitations and its domination over and misuse of the national economy, and to achieve the requirements of development in the field of production which the private sector is unable to achieve.



## 4.2 ADMINISTRATIVE GOALS

Development functions particularly in industrial, commercial, agricultural and other economic fields require a high degree of flexibility in structures, decision-making, personnel and financial matters which is not feasible in the framework of traditional civil service. It is, therefore, necessary to assign these functions to autonomous bodies like the different forms of public enterprise organizations where management will be allowed to get on with running the enterprise, free of political interference in its decisions. Thus will result the advantages of rapid flexible response to changing market conditions. However, no real managerial autonomy will be possible unless government has a set of consistent and fairly long-term goals for each public enterprise, which are clear to management to provide a framework for day to day activities.

Public enterprises by contrast with traditional government departments can be given specific or at least precisely defined targets which allow them to organize and concentrate directly on their achievement. Organization charts and degree of decentralization can be infinitely varied according to objectives. The one criterion for their evaluation is their effectiveness in helping to achieve objectives.

One of the different forms of public enterprises which is most widely adopted by many countries is the public corporation. Its concept is not a monopoly of a certain political or social structure.

... most countries with a certain degree of social and industrial development, eastern or western, socialist or capitalist, would under the dual pressure of ever increasing state functions and the growing technical

complexity of many of these functions have developed some form of public corporation... ; the development of a more or less autonomous form of public enterprise has in very few cases been the result of a deliberate and systematic set of legislative and administrative measures. The post-war nationalization of Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union organizations of state industries are probably the only examples of the creation of a series of public corporations based on a definite political and legal theory... , in other cases they have developed as empirical responses to specific needs without any pre-conceived theory and without much uniformity.

(Friedman, 1957).

Although many definitions of the public corporation have been presented, they all concentrate on its main features and essential characteristics. In this respect Professor W. Robson states:

... the public corporation is based on the theory that a full measure of accountability can be imposed on a public authority without requiring it to be subject to ministerial control in respect of its managerial decisions and multitudinous routine activities, or liable to comprehensive parliamentary scrutiny of its day-to-day working.

(William A. Robson, 1960).

After reviewing and analysing many definitions of public corporation, Hadley Smith produced his own definition in his unpublished Ph.D. thesis (U.S.C. 1963). He says:

... a government corporation is a legal entity which is initiated by representatives of the public, including a government corporation; is incorporated by either a national or state government for a public purpose through general or special legislative act, or legislative decree; is controlled by the government but is more autonomous than the executive department and less independent than private business corporations; obtains a major part of its funds from sales, but is usually at least partly financed by the initiating government.<sup>1</sup>

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1. In Mirghani Abdel Aal Hammour unpublished M.P.A. dissertation, Pittsburgh University (1968).



In the U.N. Rangoon Seminar on organization and administration of public enterprises in the Industrial field, the public corporation was described, '... as a body corporate, it is a separate entity for legal purposes and can sue and be sued, enter into contract and acquire property in its own name'. (U.N. Seminar, Burma, 1954).

#### **4.3 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC CORPORATION IN SUDAN**

Sudan has inherited, at its Independence from the British, an economy run predominantly by the government, mainly in the agricultural sector and the public utilities. A remarkable example of development enterprises established during the British rule is the Gezira Scheme. Being the biggest single producer of cotton, the main cash crop of the country and thus the most important single agricultural product, the Gezira Scheme is considered the backbone of Sudan's economy.

It has existed since 1925 as a mixed enterprise - first as a partnership between the Sudan Plantations Syndicate, a British Company, the Sudan Government and the Gezira tenants under the management of the Syndicate - with the aid of a loan guaranteed by the British Government. In 1950 the Syndicate was nationalised and the Sudan Gezira Board has been established instead. The partnership continued between the Board, the Government and the tenants dividing the profits as follows:

36% to the Government for securing land and provision of water;

50% to the tenants for agricultural work;

2% to the local government councils;

2% to the social development department; and

10% to the Sudan Gezira Board for meeting administrative expenses.



The Board of Directors is responsible for:

- (a) Management of the scheme;
- (b) Promotion of the social development having as main object the benefits of the tenants and other persons living within the scheme area;
- (c) The promotion of research to further the productivity and stability of the scheme.

In the aftermath of Independence the Government found it imperative, because the private sector was relatively weak and ineffective, to shoulder the greater part of development projects and to engage in the actual production process. This attitude has been further enhanced by the desire of the Sudan to pursue contemporary thought and philosophy of comprehensive planning;

... The function of the modern state is no longer that of a night watchman reserved for it by the classical economists. Its role now is fundamentally different where it has become responsible not only for satisfying the constantly growing collective consumption, educational, health and other services, but also has an ever-expanding responsibility for financing investment as a primary condition of economic development.

(The 1964/65 Budget Speech - Sudan).

The Ten-Year Plan of Economic and Social Development 1961/62-1970/71 emphasized that:

... Comprehensive economic planning is necessary for quick development and it should combine both government activities and private enterprise and should as well cover all sectors, like agriculture, industry, health services, education and housing, etc.

(The Economic Planning Secretariat-Khartoum).

'... In fact the state is the principal owner, and has near absolute control over its resources. The Sudanese people own 95% of the land and is the investor to the extent of 90% in both the agricultural and industrial sector.' (The 1965/66 Budget Speech).

Despite the fact that government active participation dates back to the 1920s, conscious effort to programme development in the public sector could be said to have started in 1946 and culminated in 1961 by the adoption of The Ten-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development.

The commitment of the public sector to actively participating in the long term economic development of the country raises many questions and challenges as to the most effective ways and means through which this participation could take place; whether it would take place through placing the Government enterprises under the control and supervision of the traditional government departments, i.e. departmental enterprises, or through sharing the burden with the private sector i.e. joint stock companies, or through establishing a new institution especially organized and run to suit the new responsibilities i.e. public corporations. Although the three kinds of enterprises are found in the Sudan and the dividing lines between them are often hazy and overlapping, it has become clear that the tendency is towards adopting the public corporation as the main instrument for public engagement in actual production. This tendency has become even more evident and dominant by introducing the Sudan Public Corporation Act, 1971, following the nationalisation and confiscation of various national and international private enterprises and bringing them under the umbrella and control of the public sector.



Public enterprise in Sudan now comprises those economic activities in the nature of public utilities, manufacturing industries, commerce, agriculture, financial and banking institutions, established and managed directly by the government or indirectly through the various public corporations and boards either fully or in joint ownership with the private sector.

Detailed facts about some of the manufacturing industries, particularly the sugar industry enterprises directly involved in our case study, will be discussed later in this chapter after the following socio-economic background about the Sudan.

#### **4.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND**

The Republic of Sudan, geographically the largest country in Africa, covers 967,000 square miles of north-east of the continent, sharing borders with eight countries: Egypt and Libya in the north; Zaire, Uganda and Kenya in the south; Ethiopia in the east; and Chad and Central Africa in the west.

Its estimated population is 20 million according to the 1973 census, of whom 70 percent live in rural areas, and 10 percent are nomadic.

Agricultural activities provide a living for 80 percent of the population and about 70 percent of the workforce.

The annual rainfall ranges between 400 and 2000 millimetres. The country is made up mainly of vast plains and plateaux drained by the Nile and its tributaries; the Blue Nile and the White Nile enter the country from the East (Ethiopia) and South (Uganda) respectively to their confluence at Khartoum, whence the river Nile flows north to Egypt.



### Economic Development Plans

It is only in recent times, as mentioned earlier, that economic planning has been attempted in Sudan, beginning with the Ten-Year Plan 1960-1970 and followed by the Five-Year Plan 1970-1975, whose total investment was £S.385 million. The former aimed to increase Gross Domestic Product at an annual rate of 7.6 percent, but low investment performance in both the private and public sectors in the late 1960's led the economy to grow at only 4.5 percent.

A vigorous export effort is essential for the development of the economy. Since exports are largely agriculturally based, they will depend primarily on the growth of this sector and that of the agricultural processing industries.

Exports were projected to increase over the 18-Year Plan (1976/77-1994/95) by about 12 percent per annum.

On the other hand, imports of consumer goods will be reduced by expanding import substitution capacity in domestic agricultural and manufacturing production.

Complete substitution with regard to sugar was projected for the base year, and it was also anticipated that by 1978/79 the value of sugar exports would amount to £S.16 million.

#### **4.5 AGRO-INDUSTRIES**

Sudan has an enormous agricultural potential. Out of 84 million hectares (200 million feddans) of arable land, only 8.5 percent is utilized so far. Although there is plenty of water, only 24 percent of the area under cultivation has access to either surface or ground

water. The remainder depends on rainfall. About 22 percent of the cultivated area is held by the state for growing major crops such as cotton, wheat, sesame, groundnuts, sugar cane and gum arabic.

In order to achieve the performance expected of the agricultural sector, the government has invested in it around 30 percent of the total planned for the public sector during the 3-Year programme for 1980/81-1982/83. New policies were introduced to develop the sector, most important of which is the rehabilitation programme for irrigation schemes, which started in 1980/81.

The government of Sudan realized that the solution to the problems encountered so far can be achieved through the integration of both the agricultural and industrial sectors i.e. the processing of agricultural produce is essential for the efficiency of the economy. To this end, several manufacturing industries were established and developed. They include textile, leather, oil seed and sugar industries.

They were first administered by a number of state corporations under the supervision of the competent ministers. One of the main corporations, then, was the Industrial Development Corporation which was established in 1963 and intended to manage all government industrial undertakings that were previously supervised by the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Supply, to develop existing enterprises and create new ones.

This corporation was established as a separate legal entity, to function as an autonomous agency, that can sue and be sued, has its own bylaws, and can recruit and remunerate its own personnel according to the conditions and terms it deems suitable. Among many diverse

industrial undertakings this corporation was managing, were El Gúneid and New Halfa Sugar factories. When many more public enterprises were established, among them another two sugar factories, and various private enterprises were either nationalized or confiscated, it was realized that sound management of this sector would not be possible if all these undertakings were to be placed under the direct supervision of one corporation. So the Public Corporation Act was introduced in 1971; and subsequently the then so-called Industrial Production Corporation emerged. This corporation was planned as a headquarter for the industrial sector, to supervise all industrial undertakings through branch or subsectorial specialized corporations. These included Sugar Industries Corporation, Food Industries Corporation, Building Materials Corporation, Seed Oil Corporation, Leather Industries Corporation and others.

#### **4.6 SUGAR INDUSTRY**

##### Background:

With the two Niles providing irrigation, with fertile soil and an arid, frost-free climate, Sudan is ideally suited to growing sugar cane.

Experiments suggested that commercial growing of sugar cane was feasible, and the importance of sugar as a strategic commodity was first officially recognized in 1958 when the government invited a team from the American Aid Association to investigate Sudan's potential for sugar production. In response, specialists from the Tudor Engineering Company visited Sudan and produced a report on the possibility of commercial sugar production in various areas of the country.



An expert in sugar production was hired by the government in 1959 to finalise the plans for the establishment of a sugar industry. His report proposed two factories producing a total of 120,000 tons of sugar per year. Domestic consumption at that time was estimated at 130,000 tons per year.

#### **4.6.1 Producing Units:**

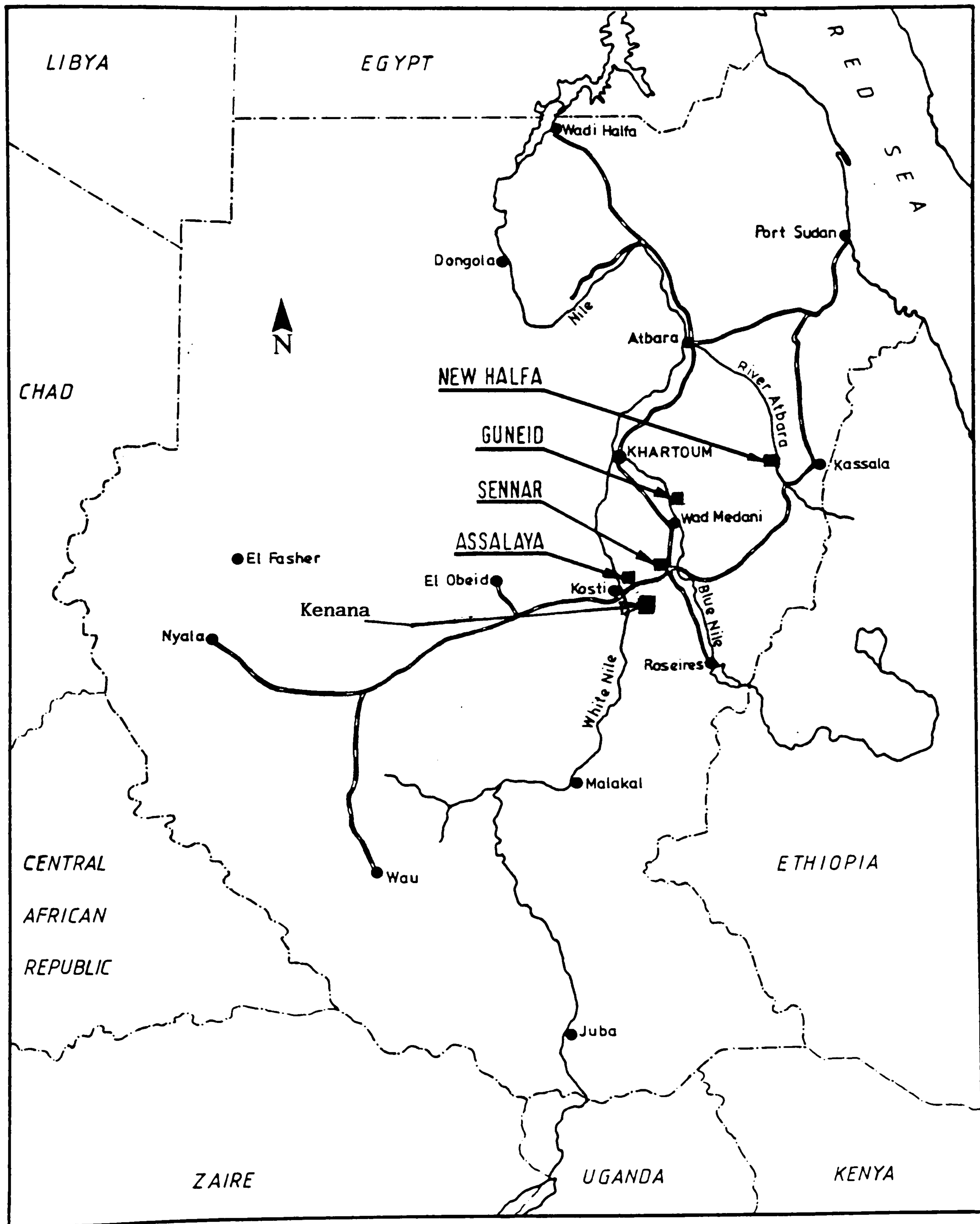
During the 1960's the two proposed sugar producing plants were established, at Guneid and New Halfa (formerly Khasm el Girba). Each had a design capacity of 60,000 tonnes sugar per year, cane at Guneid being grown by tenant farmers, while New Halfa was set up as an estate based operation.

With the growing domestic demand for sugar, in the early 1970's the Government commenced the planning for a large expansion in sugar production, designed to meet both projected domestic demand and give the opportunity for export to neighbouring countries. Five new projects were planned, to increase sugar production to 860,000 tonnes per year by the early 1980's. Of the planned projects, three have been completed, Kenana in the private sector, and the two public sector projects at Sennar and Assalaya. (Fig. 4.1 shows the location of the five factories.)

In addition work is nearly complete on an expansion of the New Halfa factory to an annual production level of 90,000 tonnes sugar. With all the five existing units working to full capacity there is a capability to produce up to 700,000 tonnes sugar per annum. Actual production has fallen far short of this level, as shown in Table 4.1 which gives sugar production figures for the last five years. Production at both Guneid and New Halfa has fallen considerably over the

FIGURE 4.1

Location of Sugar Factories - Sudan



LEGEND

- RIVERS
- RAILWAYS

0 100 200 300 400 500 K  
SCALE

TABLE 4.1  
SUGAR PRODUCTION 1977-1982  
 ('000 tons)

FACTORY	Design	Capacity	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82
	'000 tpa of sugar	'000 feddan					
Guneid	60	38	48.3	36.5	29.7	29.0	15.7
New Halfa	60	22	58.2	64.8	43.0	36.0	36.0
Sennar	110	28	31.7	18.1	30.0	26.0	22.0
Assalaya	110	25	-	-	7.7	8.5	-
Kenana	330	60	-	-	20.0	150.0	175.0*
	670	173	138.2	119.4	130.4	256.5	248.7

\*Estimated

SOURCE: Tate & Lyle Report, Vol.1, May 1983.



last three years, Sennar which commenced operations in 1976 has not produced more than a third of its projected capacity, while Assalaya which commenced operations in 1979 has only worked two crops and has not been officially taken over. The private sector operation at Kenana which also started in 1979 is improving production levels, but the operation is taking longer to reach full production than originally planned.

Demand for sugar in Sudan has been rising by approximately 4.5% per annum, and is now in excess of 400,000 tons per annum. To satisfy this demand over 200,000 tons of sugar per annum has to be imported using scarce and much needed foreign exchange (Tate & Lyle Technical Services Ltd., May 1983).

#### **4.6.2 Organization of the Public Sector Industry**

Prior to April 1981, the four public sector estates were operating divisions of the Sugar and Distilleries Corporation (SDC). The corporation was responsible for a range of centralized services, including central and overseas procurement, training administration, legal services, auditing and cost accounting disbursement of operating finance and overall budgeting. Table 4.2 shows years of employment, qualification and specialization of the General Managers of the Sugar Corporation since establishment as a sub-sectoral corporation up until its dissolution and establishing the recent co-ordinating office. The SDC was not an absolutely independent body, being responsible to the Ministry of Industry, which itself was responsible for implementing new projects, supervising the work of the SDC, and the relationships with other Ministries, in particular the Ministry of Finance. The latter, through the Public Corporation for Sugar Trading (PCST) controlled all sugar revenues, fixed the prices of sugar, and together

TABLE 4.2

H.Q. OF THE SUGAR INDUSTRIES CORPORATION  
(CO-ORDINATING OFFICE)

GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT  
AND QUALIFICATIONS

YEAR	QUALIFICATION	SPECIALIZATION	
1971-76	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	Was Guneid G.M. 1971
1976-80	Economics	Economics	
1980-81	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	Was New Halfa G.M. 1972-74 and Sennar G.M. 1974-76.
1981-86	Chemistry	Sugar Technology	Was New Halfa G.M. 1974-77
1986-now	Chemistry	Sugar Technology	Was New Halfa G.M. 1969-71 and Assalaya G.M. 1974-81.

SOURCE: H.Q. Sugar Corporation 1987.

with the Ministry of Cooperation, Commerce and Supply controlled sugar quotas and distribution. In addition the Ministry of Finance controlled the cash flows, debts, and access to foreign exchange. Other Ministries involved with sugar production included the Ministry of Irrigation which controlled the release and pumping of water for the four estates, and the Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform which controlled the terms and conditions of sugar industry employees, including the common salary and wage scale and grading system applying to all public sector corporations.

#### **4.6.3 GUNEID SUGAR FACTORY**

Guneid was one of the areas selected for the first sugar factories, because of its suitably fertile soil, availability of water, and proximity to Khartoum, the principal market. Moreover, the existing cotton scheme, then - which could easily be modified to grow sugar cane - would facilitate the rapid production of sugar at low unit cost.

Guneid is situated some 150 Kms south of Khartoum on the east bank of the Blue Nile river (see fig. 4.1). Some 37,000 feddans are available for cane, and are farmed by 2,364 tenant farmers. The plant was built by a German company (Buckau-Wolf), with a cane-crushing capacity of 4,000 tons per day at 10 percent rate of extraction to produce 60,000 tons of sugar/year. Duration of the season was estimated at 150 days.

According to the Ministerial Committee Report of 1983, the total permanent labour force was 1,866 employees distributed among agriculture, the workshop, the factory, civil engineering, the administration,



TABLE 4.3  
GUNEID SUGAR FACTORY  
GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT  
AND QUALIFICATIONS

YEAR	QUALIFICATION	SPECIALIZATION	
1963-64	Military		
1964-66	Administration		
1966-69	Accountancy		
1969-70	Chemistry	Sugar Technology	
1970-71	Agriculture		
1971-71	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	
1971-72	Agriculture		
1972-74	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	
1974-77	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	
1977-80	Mechanical Engineering	Sugar Technology	
1980-86	Electrical Engineering		New Halfa G.M. 1977-80
1986-now	Mechanical Engineering		

SOURCE: H.Q. Sugar Corporation 1987.  
Guneid Sugar Factory 1987.

and the financial departments (for the organizational chart see Appendix 4.1, and Table 4.3 shows years of employment and qualifications of successive General Managers).

The factory has always suffered from a poor cane supply and this has limited production over the years. The peak performance was achieved in the 1976/77 crop when 55,076 tons of sugar were produced during a crop of 197 days. The design cane throughput of 4,000 tons/day, has not, however, been achieved.

Since 1977 the production has fallen off dramatically (see Table 4.4). Although this reduction in output has been mainly due to cane shortage, the factory itself has been allowed to fall into a state of disrepair and this has reduced efficiency and increased sugar losses (Tate & Lyle Technical Services Report, May 1983). The figures shown in Table 4.4 also indicate the extent of the reduction in factory efficiency which has taken place since 1976/77.

TABLE 4.4

Guneid : Sugar Production and Overall Recovery,  
1976/77-1981/82

	Pol % Cane	Cane Ground	Sugar Produced	Overall Recovery	Yield % cane
1976/77	13.3	529,580	55,076	78.6	10.4
1977/78	12.7	501,271	48,336	76.3	9.6
1978/79	12.4	415,974	36,539	70.7	8.8
1979/80	12.9	318,618	29,885	72.5	9.4
1980/81	12.6	346,240	29,601	67.8	8.5
1981/82	11.9	185,786	15,744	71.1	8.5

SOURCE: Tate & Lyle Report

Annex 1, Part 2, May 1983.

Factory efficiency has now fallen to the stage where 10% or more of the recoverable sugar is being lost for various reasons, which include:

- low extraction due to poor milling efficiency;
- high Pol in mud due to poor condition of vacuum filters;
- high unidentified physical and chemical losses of sugar;
- poor molasses exhaustion.

During the 1981/82 crop lack of cane transport equipment and cane storage facilities at the factory led to spasmodic operation on a stop/start basis which inevitably reduced efficiency and resulted in a high consumption of furnace oil (Tate & Lyle Report 1983).

#### Tenant/Management Relations

Guneid is the only sugar factory to use a tenant system; the other factories have their own farms. The agricultural department shoulders the responsibility for providing technical know-how, advice and supervision.

The tenant is responsible for carrying out all manual field operations, particularly planting, weeding, watering, cleaning and applying fertilizers, and must comply with fixed times for agricultural and irrigation operations.

The government (represented by the factory management) is obliged to carry out mechanical agricultural operations, supply fertilizers and pesticides as well as irrigation water, introduce new cane varieties, supervise and manage the finance of the whole process.



The tenant must sell his crop of cane to the factory at an agreed price. The revenue to each tenant is simply worked out as the weight of his crop multiplied by the agreed selling price per ton, less the cost of the production operations performed by the factory.

#### 4.6.4 NEW HALFA FACTORY

New Halfa estate is situated approximately 400 Km south east of Khartoum (see Fig. 4.1). It was supplied and constructed, like Guneid, by the German Consortium of Buckau-Wolf and B.M.A. and first operated in 1966/67. It was originally designed to mill 4,000 tons cane per day (tcd) and to produce 60,000 tons of refined sugar per year.

Some 40,000 feddans are available for cane, but only about half the area is planted at present. Water is drawn by canal from Khashm el Girba<sup>1</sup> dam some 67Km to the south.

The soils and climate at New Halfa are favourable for sugar cane production, and good yields of cane and sugar can be achieved with adequate and controlled applications of the required agricultural inputs.

In the mid-seventies an expansion was undertaken to increase the capacity to a rated 5000 tcd. Though the factory has produced more than its rated output in the past as is shown on the summary of annual performance in Table 4.5, cane milled has fallen considerably over the last years due to a number of factors including shortage of fertilizer, inadequate irrigation and shortages of equipment and manpower for carrying out field operations.

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1. Khashm el Girba, in Sudanese Arabic, means mouth of the water skin, and there is a story saying that this area is described as such because of its heavy rains that pour like coming down from water skins.

TABLE 4.5

NEW HALFA: Sugar Production Summary

YEAR	Pol % Cane	Cane ground t	Sugar produced	Overall Recovery	Yield % cane
1974-75	13.39	775,306	75,940	73.16	9.79
1975-76	12.59	652,355	57,794	72.37	9.15
1976-77	12.60	637,972	57,168	71.11	8.96
1977-78	12.52	643,316	58,423	72.28	9.05
1978-79	12.78	691,294	64,849	73.40	9.38
1979-80	12.45	483,131	43,053	71.57	8.91
1980-81	12.24	439,393	36,148	67.24	8.23
1981-82	11.85	432,817	35,863	69.62	8.25

SOURCE: Tate & Lyle Report.

Annex 11, Part 2, May 1983.

TABLE 4.6  
NEW HALFA SUGAR FACTORY  
GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT  
AND QUALIFICATIONS

YEAR	QUALIFICATION	SPECIALIZATION	
1966-69	Administration		
1969-71	Chemistry	Sugar Technology	
1971-74	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	
1974-77	Chemistry	Sugar Technology	
1977-80	Electrical Engineering		
1980-now	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	Guneid G.M. 1974-77

SOURCE: H.Q. Sugar Corporation 1987.

New Halfa Sugar Factory 1987.



The total permanent workforce of New Halfa estate is about 2,418 employees, almost half of them work in the division of agriculture, and like Guneid and the other factories, New Halfa main departments are: Agriculture, Workshop, the factory, the civil engineering, Administration, and the Financial Department (see Organizational Chart Appendix 4.2). Table 4.6 shows the New Halfa General Managers' years of employment and qualifications since it has been established up to now.

#### **4.6.5 SENNAR SUGAR FACTORY**

The Sennar estate is situated some 250 Kms south of Khartoum (see Fig. 4.1), on the western flood plain of the Blue Nile river. It was established in 1976 by a British Company, Fletcher and Stewart, with a crushing capacity of 6,500 tons cane per day.

Approximately 29,000 feddans are available for cane, with some 20,000 feddans presently planted.

Conditions at Sennar are favourable for sugar cane production, and good yields should be obtained given properly controlled application of agricultural inputs.

As the factory has a design capacity of 110,000 tons sugar per annum, it can be seen from the Sugar Production Summary (Table 4.7) that production levels have fallen far short of design capacity, and have not achieved the annual rise in production expected from a new sugar estate.

From the start Sennar has been affected by limited cane supply, equipment shortcomings and process difficulties. There has also been the problem of unstable ground under the factory, which has been the subject of several studies over the years.

TABLE 4.7

SENNAR: Sugar Production Summary

YEAR	Pol % Cane	Cane ground t	Sugar produced	Overall Recovery	Yield % cane
1976-77	13.0	376,957	26,465	54.0	7.0
1977-78	12.8	408,286	31,675	60.6	7.8
1978-79	13.0	232,878	18,135	60.1	7.8
1979-80	12.4	386,175	30,001	62.9	7.8
1980-81	13.5	338,515	26,115	57.1	7.7
1981-82	11.9	313,795	22,326	59.7	7.1

SOURCE: Tate & Lyle Report

Annex III Part 2, May 1983.

In consequence the official acceptance of the factory, and full payment by the Ministry of Industry has been delayed. It is understood that trials were carried out during 1981/82 crop to prove factory capacity prior to acceptance but the outcome was not known.

The problems in particular have been stated as follows:-<sup>1</sup>

- Ground floor shifting and heaving due to the nature of the underlying soil and inadequate foundation design;
- inadequate mill roller bearings;
- unsuitable disc-type cooling elements in crystallizers;
- distorted turbo-alternator rotors;
- problems with boilers;
- sugar contamination in the condensate;
- difficulties in the refining process;
- problems with massecuite distribution gutters.

The total permanent workforce of Sennar Factory is about 1,900 employees working in: the workshop, the factory, agriculture, civil engineering, administration, and financial departments (see Sennar Organizational Chart, Appendix 4.3 and Table 4.8 which shows years of employment and qualifications of its successive general managers).

### Cane Cutting

Cutting has usually been carried out by hand by cutters recruited from other parts of Sudan. It is estimated by management that about 2,000 cane cutters are required per day, but it has now become difficult to recruit even half this number. The cutters work at two harvest faces - one near and the other far from the factory. The daily task is 4 rows of cane to be cut, irrespective of tonnage.

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1. Stated in Tate & Lyle Consultants' Report to Sudan Government, May 1983.



TABLE 4.8  
SENNAR SUGAR FACTORY  
GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT  
AND QUALIFICATIONS

YEAR	QUALIFICATION	SPECIALIZATION	
1972-74	Agriculture		
1974-76	Agriculture	Sugar Technology	
1976-78	Agriculture		
1978-79	Mechanical Engineering	Sugar Technology	*
1979-80	Mechanical Engineering		#Acting
1980-80	Agriculture		Acting
1980-86	Mechanical Engineering	Sugar Technology	*
1986-now	Mechanical Engineering		#
			* same person
			# same person

SOURCE: Sennar Sugar Factory 1987.

Management feels that there must be a combination of manual and mechanical harvesting to ensure a steady supply of cane to the factory throughout the season.

#### **4.6.6 ASSALAYA SUGAR FACTORY**

Assalaya is situated some 280 Km south of Khartoum on the east bank of the White Nile (see Fig. 4.1). It was established, like Sennar, by the British Company, Fletcher and Stewart.

The factory was designed to process 6,500 tons of cane per day with an allowance of 7% lost time, i.e. an hourly crushing rate of 290 tph. Approximately 27,260 feddans are available for cane, although 7,200 feddans of this are alkaline soils unsuitable for economic cane cultivation. The farm is owned by the factory.

The factory was supplied to produce a good quality refined sugar by melt sulphitation process. It commenced operations in 1979. In addition to its production of sugar, the factory was intended to improve the quality of life in the surrounding rural areas and create job opportunities. Its total permanent workforce comprises more than one thousand employees, including administrators, engineers, agriculturalists and technicians, while the labourers are over eight thousand (for Assalaya Organizational Chart, see Appendix 4.4 ; for General Managers see Table 4.9 ).

Assalaya sugar factory should have begun production in 1978, but the contractors were unable to meet their obligations and the start-up was delayed for 18 months. When the factory did begin production, a series of defects were discovered; insufficient steam generation, shifting soil, and faults in the irrigation system.

TABLE 4.9  
ASSALAYA SUGAR FACTORY  
GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT  
AND QUALIFICATIONS

YEAR	QUALIFICATIONS	SPECIALIZATION
1974-81	Chemistry	Sugar Technology
1981-85	Chemical Engineering	Sugar Technology
1985-now	Mechanical Engineering	Sugar Technology

SOURCE: Assalaya Sugar Factory, 1987.



Despite these problems the management has been trying to monitor the situation and achieve good results, producing 7,666 tonnes of sugar in the first year, and gradually improving with time (Table 4.10).

TABLE 4.10

Assalaya : Sugar Production Summary

	Pol % Cane	Cane Ground t	Sugar Production t	Overall recovery %	Yield %
1979/80	12.3	94,881	7,666	65.6	8
1980/81	13.4	93,003	8,568	67.7	9.2
*1981/82		Non-operational			
1982/83	12.8	45,861	41,407		9

\* Tate & Lyle Report (1983) stated that:

From the inception, problems have beset Assalaya factory culminating in 1981/82 with factory operations ceasing and the cane being sent to Kenana factory for processing.

The report summed up these problems as follows:

- commissioning was delayed by a year due to inadequate boiler refractory design, the furnaces having to be rebuilt;
- a general shortage of cane due to various field problems and shortages of electric power for pumping irrigation water;
- problems with the ground floors shifting and heaving;
- shortage of spare parts;
- unsuitable or inadequate equipment for certain stations;
- a shortage of trained staff.

They concluded that the shortage of cane has meant that the incentive to complete the factory quickly was lacking. The temporarily available spare capacity at Kenana was used to crush the 96,630 tons of cane available for the 1981/82 crop so avoiding the problems and expense of starting Assalaya. It is considered that any impetus which may have been built up has thus been lost and morale is low.

#### 4.6.7 KENANA SUGAR COMPANY (KSC)

Kenana location is near Rabak on the east bank of the White Nile, some 250 Km south of Khartoum and 1,200 Km from Port Sudan (see Fig. 4.1 ).

It is an integrated, irrigated sugar estate cum factory/refinery complex, with a crushing capacity of 17,000 tonnes of cane per day and a full production capability in excess of 300,000 tonnes of white sugar per annum.

It has been built jointly by the Sudan Government and foreign investors<sup>1</sup> and it commenced commercial production of refined sugar in 1979/80.

#### Project Aims:

The Kenana concept envisaged the creation from virgin bush a fully integrated sugar estate, incorporating a factory with a daily cane throughput of 17,000 tonnes and capable of producing at full capacity upwards of 300,000 tonnes of white sugar per crop (October through April), the rationale for the project being:

- i) The attainment by the Sudan of self-sufficiency in an important food product;
- ii) The creation of an exportable surplus.

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1. Government of the State of Kuwait, Government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, The Arab Investment Co. S.A.A., The Arab Authority for Agricultural Investment and Development, Lonrho Limited, Nissho Iwai Co. Ltd., and Gulf Fisheries Company W.L.L.

The estate area is 150,000 feddans (63,000 hectares), of which 84,000 feddans (35,300 hectares) is plantation area.

Irrigation Works:

4 pump stations, with a capacity of 44 cubic metres a second and a total lift of between 40 and 43 metres, carry the waters of the White Nile along 29 Km of main canal to command the plantation area onto which they are fed by gravity along some 300 Km of secondary canals following the contours of the estate.

The company workforce comprises 6,500 permanent employees, with a similar number of seasonal workers engaged for the duration of the crop (for Kenana Organizational Chart, see Appendix 4.5). Table 4.11 shows its General Managers' years of employment and qualifications.

Kenana Performance:

Production figures show that Kenana factory continues to perform well (Table 4.12). In addition, the drive to cut 50% of the cane manually, has been successful, not only reducing the foreign currency component of harvesting costs, but also giving much needed employment to an itinerant labour force hard hit by drought conditions across much of the country (Chairman's statement for the year 1984/85). The Chairman of KSC concluded in his statement that the highly creditable operational results should be achieved at a time when the Sudan is experiencing severe economic and climatic difficulties is quite remarkable and a tribute to the drive and detailed planning of KSC's experienced management team.



TABLE 4.11  
KENANA SUGAR COMPANY  
GENERAL MANAGERS' YEARS OF  
EMPLOYMENT AND QUALIFICATION

YEAR	QUALIFICATION	SPECIALIZATION
1977-82	Agriculture	Sugar Technology
1982-now	Economics	Economics

TABLE 4.12K.S.C. PRODUCTION OF SUGAR(in 1,000 metric tonnes)

SEASON	SUGAR PRODUCTION (t)
1979/80	19,467
1980/81	107,195
1981/82	165,662
1982/83	299,536
1983/84*	248,500
1984/85*	306,000 (Exceeding the project's 300,000 tonne nominal design)

SOURCE: Public Corporation for Sugar Trade.

\*Report of the Directors (for the year  
1984/85 KSC).

#### 4.7 REORGANIZATION OF THE SUGAR INDUSTRY

From the production figures shown above (excluding Kenana), it is obvious that there is an inefficiency in operation which resulted in idle capacity. When investigating problems hindering the attainment of full capacity in the sugar industry, the government cited shortages of raw materials, spare parts and power, low working capital, managerial shortcomings and its own control of the industry.

In May 1981, following a period of steadily falling sugar production, and following the national policy of decentralization and rehabilitation of development projects, a decree was issued dissolving The Sugar Corporation and announcing the policy of establishing the four public sector production units, at Guneid, New Halfa, Sennar and Assalaya, as independent companies like Kenana. A steering Committee was set up to oversee the changeover.

During the second half of 1981 a technical survey of the four sugar companies was undertaken by Arkel International Inc., which listed a broad range of requirements for rehabilitation of the four units. In February 1982 Tate and Lyle Technical Services were awarded a contract to prepare a full feasibility study of a rehabilitation programme. Following field work, preliminary issues were raised, reviewed by the steering Committee and agreed in October 1982.

#### ORGANIZATION, MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING:

The four production units are being established as private limited companies with the government and government-owned institutions holding the majority of the shares. A Sugar Industry Board is recommended to advise the Minister of Industry and provide a



channel of communications between the sugar industry and government agencies which affect the industry.

- A rehabilitation management Unit is required to design, supervise and monitor the rehabilitation programme. It is recommended that this unit should be made up of expatriate specialists.

While accepting the necessity for a management unit, the Government have decided that the locally constituted Sugar Project Implementation Committee (S.P.I.C.) should administer and manage the rehabilitation programme, to be supported by the provision of expatriate advisors (see note on S.P.I.C., Appendix 4.6).

- Limited expatriate technical assistance is recommended to support the new companies, within the framework of the existing management structure.
- Recommendations have been made for improved conditions for permanent employees within the industry, including revised salary and wage scales, housing, etc.

#### The Management Organization of The Autonomous Companies:

Revision of organization structure was recommended on the basis that the companies were to be dependent upon their own resources to meet recruitment, training and manpower development needs, which would be crucial to the success of their operations. Considerable cooperation and coordination between them would be required to avoid expensive and unnecessary duplication of common services, and it is important that competition between them should not escalate the costs of scarce resources (Tate & Lyle, Sugar Rehabilitation Project, Annex V, 1983).

Tate & Lyle consultants noted that the companies are at present facing the dual exercise of rehabilitation and reorganization. They are short of skilled personnel in many key areas, and they face considerable competition for existing personnel. They recommended that

if the companies are to train and retain sufficient staff it will be necessary to provide career development opportunities for staff within the industry as a whole rather than individual companies relying upon their own organizations to do so. According to Tate & Lyle's findings, a significant factor that contributed to the present high wastage is the 'heavy emphasis' placed upon academic qualifications and length of service, which entitle individuals to consideration for promotion, and the relatively poor credit attached to technical competence and job performance. Hence, they concluded, there is every inducement for the able younger personnel to seek preferment outside the industry.

While the industry operated through the central authority of a public sector corporation it was constrained by the standardised regulations and procedures governing all such corporations, which limited its authority to take the independent action necessary to retain staff. With the dissolution of the Sugar Corporation and the granting of autonomy to the four factories, it is understood that the companies will be empowered to establish realistic conditions of employment, appraise and provide career development opportunities for their staff, establish and maintain their own appropriate infrastructure, and have authority over the recruitment and dismissal of their employees.

#### Recommended Standard Organization for Companies:

To facilitate the rehabilitation and the reorganization of the industry as well as to provide soundly based career development opportunities a standardised management structure for the companies in the



industry is recommended.<sup>1</sup> Such a structure is supposed to clearly identify the principal departmental responsibilities and illustrate both the relationships within the organization and the subordinate functions in each department. It is also intended to indicate where accountability lies so the line of command and the levels of decision taking are clear. The suggested basic organization structure for the companies is shown in Appendix 4.7.

#### Employment and Conditions of Service

Prior to its dissolution, the Sugar Corporation provided a central service to assist companies with the recruitment of higher level personnel, and with the location, promotion and transfer of personnel already in the industry. Companies recruited their own lower level staff and seasonal and casual employees. In future they will be responsible for all recruitment. The companies will have to adopt a very much more professional approach to recruiting than has been required of them in the past, as the success of the company will be greatly influenced by the calibre of the employees they recruit. It will also be important to establish policies and procedures for the recruitment of personnel from one company to another. There is at present an imbalance in skill levels between companies in several disciplines. Uncontrolled competition could prove damaging to the industry in the long run.<sup>2</sup>

- 
1. One of the Tate & Lyle recommendations, and it is currently (1987) being under implementation.
  2. It is worth mentioning here, that until the completion of establishing a holding company for the four sugar companies, a Sugar Co-ordinating office has been created to assist the Minister of Industry in directing, supervising and co-ordinating activities of the Public Sector Sugar Industry.



#### 4.8 Summary

Chapter 4 has discussed the roles of public enterprise in general and has specifically looked into aspects relating to Sudan public corporations with special emphasis on the sugar industry, investigating its organization and management, its performance and so on.

Although countries have different motives, pressures, and purposes for creating public enterprises, they exist primarily to represent a government's interventionist objectives in an economy.

The public enterprise sector is distinguished prominently by its management characteristics as well as by its economic functions.

Public enterprise in Sudan comprises economic activities in the nature of public utilities, manufacturing industries, commerce, agriculture, financial and banking institutions established and managed directly by the government or indirectly through the various public corporations and boards either fully or in joint ownership with the private sector.

Sugar Industry is the largest agricultural industry in the country. Its five factories (Guneid, New Halfa, Sennar, Assalaya, and Kenana) provide employment opportunities for about fifteen thousand permanent employees.

However from the production figures shown in the chapter, it is obvious that there is an operational inefficiency which resulted in idle capacity in all factories except Kenana. Therefore, the target of Sudan sufficiency in sugar has not been reached.

According to Tate & Lyle (Main report May 1983), the reasons for the decline in production of sugar over the last few years can be

summarized as follows:-

1. The low price paid to the producing units for sugar leading to accumulating debts, with the inability to purchase essential materials.
2. Lack of foreign exchange causing shortages in agricultural machinery and spare parts, inadequate servicing of vehicles and repairs and maintenance.
3. Shortages in supplies of irrigation water, and insufficient use of fertilizer and pesticides leading to decreased caneyields.
4. Dependence on two cane varieties, both of which are heavily prone to smut.
5. Shortages of manpower for cane cutting, particularly at the beginning and end of the crop period, due to competition
6. Lack of foreign exchange to purchase spare parts to maintain factory equipment.
7. Stop-start operations in the factories causing high consumption of auxiliary fuel oil and increased sugar losses in process.
8. Loss of experienced management and staff due to poor remuneration and lack of social services.
9. Over-manning at lower levels.
10. Inadequate administrative, financial and accounting systems.
11. Inadequate training programmes for all levels of management, staff and workers.

Regarding the organization of the sugar organizations, it has been noted that they were established on headquarter basis following the traditional government departmentalization pattern.

Data also revealed that top and middle level managerial positions are dominated by 'technical' staff (i.e. agriculturalists, engineers, chemists etc.).

In May 1981 following a period of steadily falling sugar production and in line with the national policy of decentralization and re-

habilitation of development projects, the Sugar Corporation was dissolved and a new policy was announced to transform its four sugar factories into autonomous companies like Kenana Sugar Company.



CHAPTER 5  
METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

- 5.1 Some Data Related Definitions
  - 5.2 Outline of Methods and Techniques
  - 5.3 Types and Sources of Organizational Data
  - 5.4 Interviews or Self-completion
  - 5.5 Gaining Co-operation
  - 5.6 Broad Criteria
  - 5.7 The Questionnaires
  - 5.8 The Interviews
- 

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and explain different approaches and methods of data collection, and the reasons and criteria for selection of methods and techniques used in our present research. Further details of instruments used in study are described in the following chapters where data are presented and analysed.

To advance knowledge, both theory and substantive bodies of fact must be progressively interrelated. Robert K. Merton describes the bearing of theory on empirical research by saying that the -

... notion of directed research implies that, in part, empirical inquiry is so organized that if and when empirical discoveries are made, they have direct consequences for a theoretic system.

(Delbert C. Miller, 1977, p.9).

There is also inevitable interdependence between the aims of research and the methods used to achieve them: 'the required data

determine the type and number of questions and manner in which they are asked', while the nature of the situation may dictate or influence the methods used.

Thus, in this chapter the intention is to describe some criteria and research methods generally used to collect data, indicate the underlying concerns that influence the choice of a particular approach, summarize the aims of study, the issues to be investigated and examined (which have previously been included in the Introduction and Chapter 3), and finally describe in some detail the appropriate approach adopted to collect the required data to achieve the aims of this study.

The collection of data is the crucial operation in the execution of a good research design. The quality of the research rests upon the quality of the data.

The collection of data occurs in a designed inquiry only after a long series of steps including:

- . The definition of the problem.
- . The construction of the theoretical framework.
- . The stating of hypotheses.
- . The establishment of the design of inquiry.
- . The determination of sampling procedures.

## **5.1 SOME DATA RELATED DEFINITIONS**

It is important to distinguish carefully between four terms:

Methodology

Situs

Methods

Techniques

**Methodology**

is a body of knowledge that describes and analyses methods, indicating their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences and relating their potentialities to research advances.

**Situs**

refers to the place where the data is gathered. For most sciences, the most used situs are the library, the field and the laboratory.

**Method**

refers to the means of gathering data that are common to all sciences or to a significant part of them. Thus methods include such procedures as the making of observations and measurements, performing experiments, building models and theories, or providing explanations and making predictions.

The social sciences use documentary analysis, the mailed questionnaire, and the personal interview most frequently.

**Techniques**

refer to specific procedures that are used in a given method.

**5.2 OUTLINE OF METHODS AND TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED IN THREE STUDIES:****LIBRARY, FIELD AND LABORATORY**TABLE 5.1

Situs	Methods	Techniques
Library	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Analysis of historical records: primary records - letters, diaries, etc. secondary interpretations of events</li> <li>2. Analysis of documents: statistical and non-statistical records of formal agencies.</li> <li>3. Literature search for theory and previous research in books, journals, and monographs.</li> </ol>	<p>Recording of notes Content analysis</p> <p>Tape and film listening and analysis</p> <p>Statistical compilations and manipulations. Reference and abstract guides. Content analysis.</p>



Situs	Methods	Techniques
Field	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Mail questionnaire</li> <li>2. Personal interview Structural interview schedule</li> <li>3. Focused interview</li> <li>4. Free story interview</li> <li>5. Group interview</li> <li>6. Telephone survey</li> <li>7. Case study and life history</li> <li>8. Non-participative direct observation</li> </ol>	<p>Identification of social and economic background of respondents.</p> <p>Use of sociometric scales to ascertain such variables as social status, group structure, community and social participation, leadership activity, and family adjustment.</p> <p>Use of attitude scales to measure morale, job satisfaction, marital adjustment, etc.</p> <p>Interviewer uses a detailed schedule with open and closed questions. Sociometric scales may be used.</p> <p>Interviewer focuses attention upon a given experience and its effects; he knows in advance what topics or questions he wishes to cover.</p> <p>Respondent is urged to talk freely about the subjects treated in the study.</p> <p>Small groups of respondents are interviewed simultaneously; any of the above techniques may be used.</p> <p>Used as a survey technique for information and for discerning opinion.</p> <p>May be used for a follow up of a questionnaire mailing to increase return.</p> <p>For case study, cross sectional collection of data for intensive analysis of a person emphasizing personal and social factors in socialization.</p> <p>For life history, longitudinal collection of data of intensive character also emphasizing socialization over an extended period of time.</p> <p>Use of standard score cards and observational behaviour scales</p>

Situs	Methods	Techniques
	9. Participant observation  10. Mass observation	Interactional recording; possible use of tape re- corders and photographic techniques.  Recording mass or collect- ive behaviour by observa- tion and interview using independent observers in public places.
Laboratory	Small group study of random behaviour, play, problem solving, or stress behaviour of individuals and/or groups; organizational or role analysis	Use of contrived and non-structured situations, use of audio-visual recording devices; use of observers behind one-way mirror

SOURCE: Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design, 1977, p.66.

### 5.3 TYPES AND SOURCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL DATA

Essentially there are two kinds of organizational data:

- . data which are about the organization itself
- . data which are about the people who comprise the organization. Below are examples of each.

#### Examples of data about an organization

- . Its purposes
- . Its history
- . Its structure, e.g. size, shape, distribution of power, subgroupings
- . How it works, e.g. control procedures, shared beliefs, use of power and influence, reward and punishment systems, networks of relationships, communications

- . The qualitative characteristics,  
e.g. whether it is complex, flexible,  
impersonal, authoritarian, formal,  
paternalistic, democratic, etc.
- . Its performance or effectiveness,  
e.g. achievement of desired results,  
degree of social responsibility,  
'organizational health'

Source: Tom Kynaston Reeves and Don Harper,  
'Surveys at Work', 1981, p.7.

#### Examples of data about the People who comprise the Organization

- . Personal characteristics and experience
- . Skills, abilities
- . Values, motivation, personality traits
- . Attitudes, e.g. how they feel about their  
work and the way they are treated
- . Perceptions, e.g. how they interpret what  
is going on in the organization
- . Knowledge/understanding, e.g. what they  
know about the organization and how  
it works
- . Behaviour, e.g. what they do in their job,  
how they handle organizational  
procedures, strategies used for  
achieving their ends, their  
performance and achievements

Source: Tom Kynaston Reeves  
'Surveys at Work', 1981, p.8.

However, while data about an organization and data about the people who comprise it, are conceptually distinct, in practice they often overlap. For example, information about people's skills as individuals could be evidence of an organization's resources. Information about different people's behaviour in their jobs can be pieced together to provide evidence about how the organization works or about its qualitative characteristics.



## **SOURCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL DATA**

Basically there are three possible sources of organizational data:

- . People
- . Documents
- . Observation

People are undoubtedly the most commonly used sources of information in any organizational inquiry, and questionnaires are probably the most widely used means of data collection. However, as will be appreciated from Figure 5.1 which sets out the Key choices to be made in deciding on what means of data collection to use when one wishes to obtain information about or from people, questionnaires are only one among a variety of techniques available.

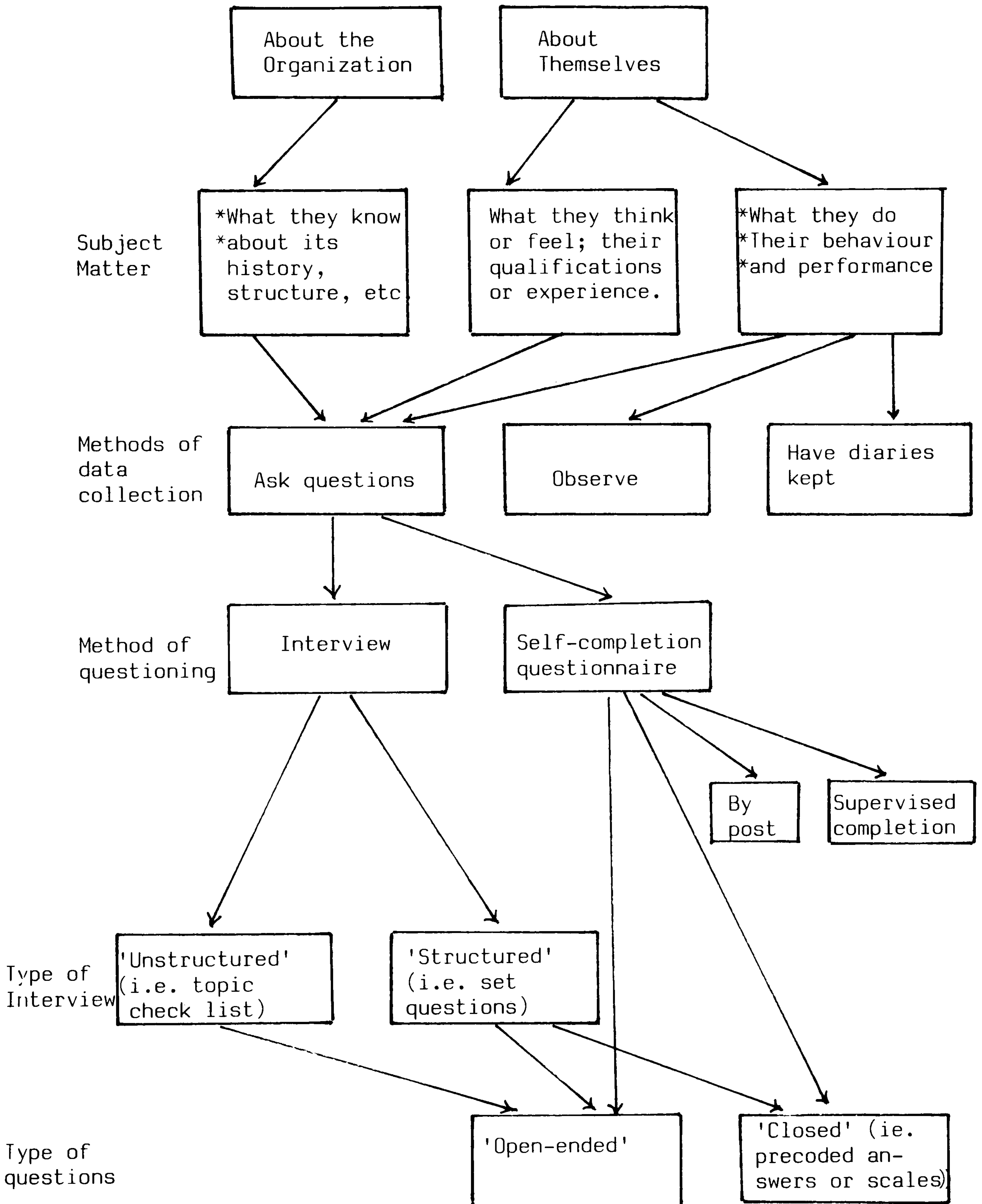
Although asking questions is a straightforward way of finding out things, documents and observations can often be more reliable and should not be neglected.

## **WHO TO QUESTION**

The selection of people whom it is wished to question within an organization may be guided by two distinct purposes. The first is where it is wished to estimate the incidence of some phenomenon (a type of behaviour, the holding of an attitude) among some defined group of employees. The other is where information about an organization is being sought, in order to put together a picture about its system of control or communication, for example. Random sampling techniques will normally only be appropriate in the former case, when it is necessary to ensure that the sample is representative of the population as a whole. In the latter case, however, the concern will be less with representativeness, than with identifying the informants one needs to talk to.

FIGURE 5.1

Choices in obtaining Organizational Data from People



\* N.B. documentation may be available which could be utilized as an alternative source.

Source: Tom Kynaston Reeves 'Surveys at Work', 1981.

#### 5.4 INTERVIEWS OR SELF-COMPLETION

Questionnaires used in interviews ensure that one's questioning is systematic and comprehensive, though a topic list skilfully used can also achieve this, and with more depth. Structured questionnaires are usually quicker to administer, and this can be an important consideration. Standardised questions also have an important place when one is concerned to measure people's attitudes or opinions, or to test their awareness of, say, company policies and procedures.

Where there is a need to seek explanation and diagnose causes there is little alternative but to conduct the research by means of personal interviews which allow probing in depth.

Self-completion techniques have the advantage over personal interviews of cheapness, thus reducing the cost of survey or making it possible to cover a large population for the same money.

Self-completion questionnaires may be the most appropriate technique to use when the issues being inquired about are very limited or well defined. For example, alternatives for change may have already been identified, and the survey is simply to be used to canvass employees' preferences among the proposed alternatives. For this kind of balloting of opinion, or referendum, self-completion questionnaires are ideal. They might be appropriate, too, when the survey objective is simply to measure the strength of employee attitudes, with a view to monitoring morale or job satisfaction over time.



## OPEN OR CLOSED QUESTIONS

In designing a questionnaire one has to consider for each question whether it should be 'open', leaving people free to answer in any way they choose; or 'closed', that is to say providing pre-coded answers from which they have to select. It is useful to note here a few points of principle, which may aid the prior choice of whether structured or unstructured interviews are called for.

'Closed' questions are indicated when one wants:

- . people to answer in defined categories for the purpose of comparison;
- . to make sure the respondent considers all possible alternatives before answering;
- . to measure responses on a scale;
- . to speed up the interview;
- . to make answering easier on self-completion questionnaires;
- . to simplify (and cheapen) subsequent analysis of responses.

### 5.5 GAINING COOPERATION

In the case of employee surveys, the researcher is normally dependent on obtaining the permission of senior people with authority in the organization for obtaining access to the employees he wishes to survey.

The researcher needs to obtain as rapidly as possible a perceptive appreciation of the nature of the organization he is entering and relations within it: first, so that he is aware of any special organizational and industrial relations features that may be affecting attitudes; and second, so that he can judge the best approach for setting up the survey in the particular employee relations climate.

The possibility that adverse or beneficial consequences could follow from an employee attitude survey means that the climate and context in which the survey is carried out can be of equal, if not greater, importance in establishing what people really think and feel than the precise research methodology used.

But co-operation alone, especially if it is merely superficial, may not be enough. Managers or supervisors may make themselves available or release employees from their work place to attend interviews or fill in questionnaires. To all appearances it would seem that the survey was being successfully carried out. But then, when the findings are presented, it may be realized that they are invalid or of no use due to a failure to ask relevant questions or obtain 'true' answers or that there is a lack of 'understanding'.

## 5.6 BROAD CRITERIA

It will be recalled that the aims of the study have been stated as:

- (i) to investigate organizational climate of the Sugar Industry of Sudan as perceived by its Top and Middle Managers;
- (ii) to examine and understand managerial thinking of Top and Middle Managers of the Sugar Industry i.e. what management principles and assumptions they hold and what approach (classical or modern) they adopt;
- (iii) to compare perceptions of managers within the Sugar Industry, and
- (iv) to compare data from this investigation with those produced by similar studies in other countries.

Inherent in these aims are two fundamental criteria which would guide the choice of research methods to be used.

1. The need for a comparative focus which would enable us to compare our data in an economical and productive way with those from relevant studies of managers in other countries; and
2. The intention to reflect the perspectives of the Sudanese managers in order to gain some insight into the meanings and significance for them of the contextual phenomena which influence their thinking and behaviour.

We examine now some general considerations concerning such type of research, involving human attitudes, perceptions and behaviour; these considerations affect the development of our broad research approach and the selection of methods.



Broadly our approach was guided by the nature of the study which should generally -

- a. aim to be analytical, rather than setting out to prove or disprove a prescription;
- b. rely on simple direct methodologies, in order to avoid being significant in the statistical sense only;
- c. aim to be inductive.

Within this broad intention we adopted a research approach which could meet the two basic criteria outlined earlier: the comparative focus and the contextual focus.

We should also recall what was mentioned earlier, that there is inevitable interdependence between the aims of research and the methods used to achieve them. Also it was stated that there are essentially two kinds of organizational data: data which are about the organization itself, and data which are about the people who comprise the organization. Thus, to obtain the required data, three basic sources of organizational data are commonly used -

- . people
- . documents
- . observation

Since the present study is both about organization and people working within it (that is, organizational climate and managerial thinking), it seemed, therefore, that a 'multi-tooled' approach would be appropriate.

As people are undoubtedly the most commonly used sources of information in any organizational inquiry, self completion questionnaires and interviews were the major techniques used by the researcher to collect the required organizational data.

## 5.7 THE QUESTIONNAIRE (APPENDIX 5.1)

### Part I

The study of climate requires some method of assessment and measurement; an instrument that would collect members' perceptions of and subjective responses to the organizational environment. Therefore, to understand the organizational climate of the Sugar Industry as perceived by managers, Part 1 of this questionnaire utilized some scales of the revised Litwin & Stringer Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B). This instrument has been used quite frequently within its intended application, namely to describe 'a set of measurable properties of the whole environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in the environment, and which was assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour' (Litwin & Stringer, 1968, p.1).

However, for the sake of consistency of all parts of the questionnaire and to avoid confusing respondents, minor alterations have been made i.e. instead of respondents indicating: 'Definitely agree, Inclined to agree, Inclined to disagree, or Definitely disagree', respondents were asked to indicate on a 1-5 rating scale whether they Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, or Strongly disagree', exactly like the pattern followed in Parts 2 and 3 of our Questionnaire.

The relevant scales chosen from Litwin & Stringer O.C.Q. were:

- Structure : which has 8 statements
- Responsibility : which has 7 statements, and
- Identity : which has 4 statements.

For example, one of the 8 statements of structure was:

The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured

\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree    Agree    Undecided    Disagree    Strongly Disagree

Respondents were asked to indicate agreement or disagreement to the statement with an **X** above one of the five choices.

The rest of Part 1 included questions on the morale and satisfaction of managers and their opinions about the organization in which they work:

How they would describe it : successful or unsuccessful;

Has friendly or unfriendly atmosphere, high or low morale, good team spirit or poor team spirit and so on;

Why they joined it;

How they would compare it with other employers and so on.

Though questions were designed in a multiple choice form, also respondents were free to state what they would like to add if an explanation was needed.

## **Part 2 - ATTITUDES & ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

Central to the act of managing is dealing with people. The way in which managers work with people presumably depends upon their assumptions about what people are like and how people can most effectively be led by a superior.

In Chapter 2 we discussed some classical and modern theories which presented underlying assumptions about human nature. For the sake of simplification, we can say that the classical theorists assumed that the average employee inherently disliked his work, wished to avoid responsibility, lacked strong ambitions, was basically selfish and



uncooperative, and was interested only in the money he could take away from his job. This is a picture of a fundamental lack of confidence in the abilities and intrinsic motivations of the average worker. It was from this conception of the typical employee that classical organization theory constructed a set of principles of organization that involved rigid chains of command, extreme specialization of functions, limited spans of control, and the like (Chapter 2).

In contrast, many modern organization theorists base their ideas about how organizations should operate on an entirely different set of assumptions regarding human nature. They begin by assuming that the average person does not inherently dislike work, that he can be taught to accept responsibility, that he does possess a certain amount of initiative and ambition and willingness to work with others, and, finally, that he is motivated by more than just monetary rewards. Building on these assumptions, modern organization theory stresses the importance of such practices as wide participation in decision-making, the development of subordinate, self-control, and the use of a variety of methods of influence i.e. they find these preferable to exclusive reliance on formal authority and economic sanctions as means of accomplishing the aims of the organization.

It was with these contrasting assumptions between classical and modern organization theory in mind and the aim of comparing data from this investigation with those produced by similar studies, that the Haire **et al** Questionnaire was selected as a basis for the comparative focus of the study. This questionnaire has been widely tested and used and the studies which have utilized it constitute a unique collection of data against which to compare the Sudanese findings.

In this part of our present questionnaire we used Part 1 of the Haire et al questionnaire: Attitudes and Assumptions Underlying Management Practices. It consists of eight statements about the relationship between the leader and his subordinates, each item was relevant to an assumption or attitude on which the two types of theories differed, and respondents were asked to indicate on a 1-5 rating scale whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement as presented. For example, one of the 8 statements was:

The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility and has relatively little ambition.

A manager who agreed with this statement was obviously taking a classical or directive viewpoint, whereas one who disagreed was responding more in line with modern organizational theory. Four of the 8 items were stated in such a way that agreement indicated a classical viewpoint, and disagreement a modern viewpoint; the other four were stated in the reverse way, so that agreement to these items indicated the modern approach, and disagreement the classical approach.

The rationale of this part is that managers manage according to their assumptions about human nature. The questions reflect the work of McGregor (1960) in that scores can be located along his Theory X and Theory Y. As Haire et al note:

The crucial point here is not what abilities and traits the employees actually have, but rather what their capabilities are seen to be by the Managers.

By preparing these items, it was intended to cover four distinct areas of disagreement between the traditional-directives and the democratic-participative approaches. These four areas and the two



items pertaining to each area are listed below:

1. Capacity for leadership and initiative
  - . The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.
  - . Leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities.
2. Sharing information and objectives
  - . A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiatives to work out the details.
  - . A superior should give his subordinates only that information which is necessary for them to do their immediate tasks.
3. Participation
  - . In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me then I lose some of my influence on them.
  - . Group goal-setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting.
4. Internal Control
  - . The use of rewards (pay, promotion, etc.) and punishment (failure to promote, etc.) is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.
  - . The supervisor's authority over his subordinates in an organization is primarily economic.

Since half of the items were framed to make positive statements with regard to the classical viewpoint, and the other half to make positive statements with regard to the modern approach, agreement with the former type of item would mean that the respondent favoured the classical viewpoint, agreement with an item of the latter type would



indicate agreement with the modern viewpoint. Thus, in order to construct our tables and charts we scored each question in such a way that a low score (i.e. towards 1) indicated a classical attitude and a high score (towards 5) indicated a modern attitude. In other words, in those tables and charts dealing with raw score means, the higher a mean value, the more the managers favoured a democratic-participative approach.

### **Part 3 - MANAGERIAL MOTIVATIONS AND SATISFACTIONS**

This part is intended to obtain data concerning managers' perceptions of the degree of fulfilment of their needs at work, their satisfactions, and the importance they attach to different kinds of needs. It was made up of a series of 11 items designed to elicit responses geared to Maslow's hierarchy of needs for security, social needs, Esteem needs, and needs for Autonomy and Self-actualization. For each item, as in the Haire et al Questionnaire, three questions were asked.

- a. How much is there now (of the opportunity to satisfy a given need)?
- b. How much should there be? and
- c. How important is it?

Respondents were asked to answer each question by checking a 7-point scale labelled from minimum to maximum. The difference between 'How much is there now?' and 'How much should there be?' provides a measure of the satisfaction of a need in question. Fulfilment here is not the same as satisfaction. Satisfaction means the extent to which fulfilment meets expectations.

The need categories and their specific items are as follows:

#### Security

- . The feeling of security in any management position.

#### Social

- . The opportunity, in any management position, to give help to other people.  
The opportunity to develop close friendships in any management position.

#### Esteem

- . The feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in any management position.
- . The prestige of any management position inside the company (i.e. the regard received from others in the company).
- . The prestige of any management position outside the company (i.e. the regard from others not in the company).

#### Autonomy

- . The authority connected with any management position.
- . The opportunity for independent thought and action in any management position.

#### Self-Actualization

- . The opportunity for personal growth and development in any management position.
- . The feeling of self-fulfilment a person gets from being in any management position (that is, the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities, realizing one's own potentialities).
- . The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in any management position.

To measure fulfilment, we used the response to question (a) for each of the 11 items.

To measure satisfaction, we used the response to question (b), minus the response to question (a), for each of the 11 items. In other words, our operational definition of need satisfaction was the difference between degree of expectation and degree of fulfilment with respect to a given need or aspect of a need.

To measure importance, we used the response to question (c) for each of the 11 items.

All of the results obtained will be presented in terms of the five categories of needs rather than in terms of the 11 specific items used to measure the categories. Scores for an individual respondent for each category were obtained by averaging his responses to all of the items in a given category. Thus, for example, for the Esteem-need category, the responses to the 3 items in that category were summed and divided by three to obtain an individual's score for Esteem. In this way, scores from one need category could be compared directly to those from another category despite the fact that different numbers of items were used to measure the various categories.

#### **Part 4 - MANAGERIAL ACTIVITIES (ROLE) AND EXPERIENCES OF RESPONDENTS**

The aim of this part was to give respondents an opportunity to reflect on their experience as managers and to record some of their feelings.

To select words and phrases describing managerial activities and the ways of learning to be a manager, that best suit the Sudanese context, the researcher's experience as a teacher of management at a



Sudanese training Institute, where top and middle managers attend training courses and exchange experiences, was found extremely helpful.

In the first question a list of 30 activities was given. Respondents were asked to indicate with a **X** the five activities which they felt are most important in the work of a manager.

In the second question respondents were requested to reflect on their experience as managers and to write very briefly:

- a. the best thing about being a manager;
- b. the worst thing about being a manager.

The third question asked managers to describe the job of a manager by writing five objectives which in their experience most appropriately described the job of the manager. Some objectives were presented as examples.

Finally, the fourth question focused on how respondents had learned to be managers. From a list of 13 ways of learning they were asked to select five which they had found most effective in their development as managers.

#### **Part 5 - PERSONAL DETAILS**

This part was designed to help in analysing the data. Respondents were not required to give their names or any other information which might identify them personally.

It included questions about age, sex, years of employment, education and so on.

Other questions were added: many of these were based on the writer's personal view as to those organizational characteristics that, in his experience, might be of significance in determining organizational climate and managerial thinking. Other questions, with or without quite extensive modification, were based on questionnaire items and factor scales from a wide variety of sources but including predominantly the following -

- 'The Relationship Between Size & Selected Organizational Characteristics', a Case Study of Sudan Railways Corporation, Ph.D. Thesis 1980.
- Surveys at Work, Student Project Manual, Tom Kynaston Reeves & Don Harper, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1981.

In total, 173 questions covering as wide a range of potential organizational climate dimensions and managerial theories, assumptions and thinking, as possible were propounded.

Each questionnaire was preceded by a typed request from the writer attached to it, stating the purpose of the questionnaire and emphasizing that the information obtained will only be used for the purpose of this research and will be treated with the strictest confidentiality.

The questionnaire was distributed to persons filling all positions at the top and middle levels of the organizational structure of both the headquarters and the production units of the Sugar Industry (i.e. The Sugar Co-ordinating Office, Sennar, N. Halfa, Guneid, Assalaya, and Kenana, Sugar Factories). These included the general managers and managers and heads of departments and main sections across a wide cross-section of all operational activities: Technical

(various engineering and scientific specialities), Agricultural, Administrative, financial and so on.

A total of 150 questionnaires were distributed to relevant potential respondents.

From the completed and returned ones, 116 questionnaires were found usable (i.e. about 77% of the potential respondents).

## 5.8 THE INTERVIEWS

It was mentioned earlier that, beside the questionnaire and other techniques of collecting data, interviewing is an indispensable one to gather information from people, particularly where there is a need to seek explanation and investigate causes. It is a method by which we can get the subject to express his model of reality.

Therefore, having used the questionnaire technique in collecting required data which could be directly compared with those regarding managers from other countries, it was considered also, that interviewing could be used as a supplementary method in order to understand managerial thinking and help achieve other aims of the study. Thus, as managerial beliefs are an amalgum of the manager's past, his current supposition of what is required of him in his present job and his career expectations, his thinking about such matters can perhaps be best investigated through the technique of a semi-structured focused interview which offers the opportunity for feedback and allows the subject to explore in depth, within a flexible framework, themes which have significance for him.

In the light of these considerations, we chose the semi-structured interview as the second of our research tools.



Setting the interview questions was, of course, guided by the core focus of our research questionnaire and, hence, some of the questions were similar to those which appeared in the questionnaire. The only significant difference here is that respondents were free in the interview to probe in depth when giving thought to the aspects of their jobs because the interview questions were open-ended.

The central areas around which questions were asked were as follows:

1. Structure; formal and informal organization, jobs definition, procedures and delegation of authority and so on.
2. Loyalty and the sense of belonging to the organization.
3. Performance of the organization and criteria of measuring success.
4. Factors of most appeal to respondents when joined organization and their feelings about their work.
5. Their feelings about their relationships with superiors and their views on the abilities of subordinates.
6. Experience, and preference of working under supervision of an expatriate or a national supervisor.
7. Motivational factors; whether monetary reward and punishment are the best way to get people to do their work.
8. Leadership; whether leadership skills can be acquired regardless of inborn traits and abilities.
9. Criteria for selection to management positions; should it be on the basis of managerial competence, political affiliation etc.

A total of 20 full interviews were completed. Interviewees were drawn randomly from the category of top and middle organizational levels. Apart from the General Manager, specific selection of other interviewees was primarily based on sheer availability of potential respondents at the time of conducting the research at the sites.

PART IV  
SURVEY OF EMPIRICAL DATA  
AND CONCLUSIONS



CHAPTER 6  
SURVEY OF THE EMPIRICAL DATA  
(THE QUESTIONNAIRE & INTERVIEW)

- 6.1 The Sample
  - 6.2 The Organizational Climate of the Sugar Industry
  - 6.3 The Managerial Assumptions of Respondents about Subordinates and Leadership
  - 6.4 Managerial Motivations and Satisfactions
  - 6.5.1 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (Questionnaire)
  - 6.5.2 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (Interview)
  - 6.6 Summary
- 

In Chapters 1 and 2 of this study we have identified and discussed respectively the concept of organizational climate, and organizational theories and basic managerial functions which Management in all countries must perform in some manner. We stated, however, that the concepts, analytical techniques, and approaches for performing these functions may be different under various environmental conditions. Therefore, Chapter 3 was intended to place those concepts and techniques in cultural perspective. Also, as our study of Sudanese managers utilizes part of Haire et al's Questionnaire, it was imperative to present in some detail and discuss the findings of their study.

In this chapter data from our Sudanese managers are presented and analysed in detail and compared with those obtained from the similar study of Haire and his colleagues.

Our sample of 116 Top and Middle-level Sudanese managers is described and the profile appropriately illustrated in the first part of the chapter.

In the second part the organizational climate of the Sudan Sugar Industry, as perceived by the managers working within it, is surveyed and described using the selected measuring dimensions (structure, responsibility, identity and terms of employment etc.) which were used in Part 1 of our questionnaire. Comparison will be made between the perceptions of managers of each factory to test whether the organizational climates prevailing in all factories are similar or dissimilar.

In the third, fourth and fifth parts of the chapter, data from the other parts of our questionnaire and the interview concerning:

- attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices
- managerial motivations and satisfactions, and
- additional aspects of managerial thinking of the respondents, are presented.

Direct comparisons are made with data from the original Haire et al study of managerial thinking in 14 countries where appropriate, especially in the first two areas about attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices and managerial motivations and satisfaction summarized in Chapter 3.

In the final part of the chapter summary of the findings and tentative comments concerning the data will be briefly presented and they will be elaborated further in the final chapter of the thesis.

## 6.1 The Sample

In Chapter 5 we recalled the aims of our study and presented the fundamental criteria which would guide the choice of research methods to be used. Thus we examined some general considerations and described the reasons for selecting the modified questionnaire developed by Haire et al as one of our research tools. (The questionnaire is shown in Appendix 5.1.

The questionnaire was produced in English and it was not found necessary to translate it to Arabic, the official language of the country, as the minimum education of almost all the potential respondents was the secondary level. In fact more than half of them have gained university education. Thus they had no difficulty in answering the questions and stating their opinions in English.

A total of 150 questionnaires were distributed to persons filling all positions at the top and middle levels of the organizational structure of both the headquarters and the production units of the Sugar Industry (i.e. the Sugar Coordinating Office, Guneid, New Halfa, Sennar, Assalaya and Kenana Sugar Factories). The subjects included the General Managers and the Managers and Heads of Departments and main sections across all operational activities: Agricultural, Technical (various technical aspects of operation including engineering and scientific specialities), Financial, Managerial and Administrative and so on.

Background information about the respondents is summarized and presented as follows:

Figure 6.1 : Distribution by Age

Figure 6.2 : Experience (Total Years of Employment)

Figure 6.3 : Years of Employment in Sugar Corporation



- Figure 6.4 : Years as a Manager
- Figure 6.5 : Seniority (levels of supervision above respondents position)
- Figure 6.6 : Education
- Figure 6.7 : Distribution of Respondents by Departments.

Figure 6.1 shows that 52 Managers (i.e. 47% of our total sample) were aged between 35 and 40 years. There are only 14 Managers whose age was between 45 and 50 years and we have none over 50 years of age. This may appear lower than in many developed countries - and perhaps even a little lower than what it used to be in Sudan itself. However, we believe it should not be unexpected especially these days where a large number of more experienced managers, among too many other professions preferred to leave the country to work abroad, particularly in Arab oil-producing countries where they are offered much higher salaries and better benefits.

The sample also reveals another interesting point, that all respondents who reported happened to be from the male sex and thus no females appear in the sample. However, concrete data did not seem available, then, to explain this phenomenon except the universal trend that there are generally fewer women than men holding senior managerial positions.

FIGURE 6.1 : Distribution of Questionnaire Respondents By Age (N = 116)

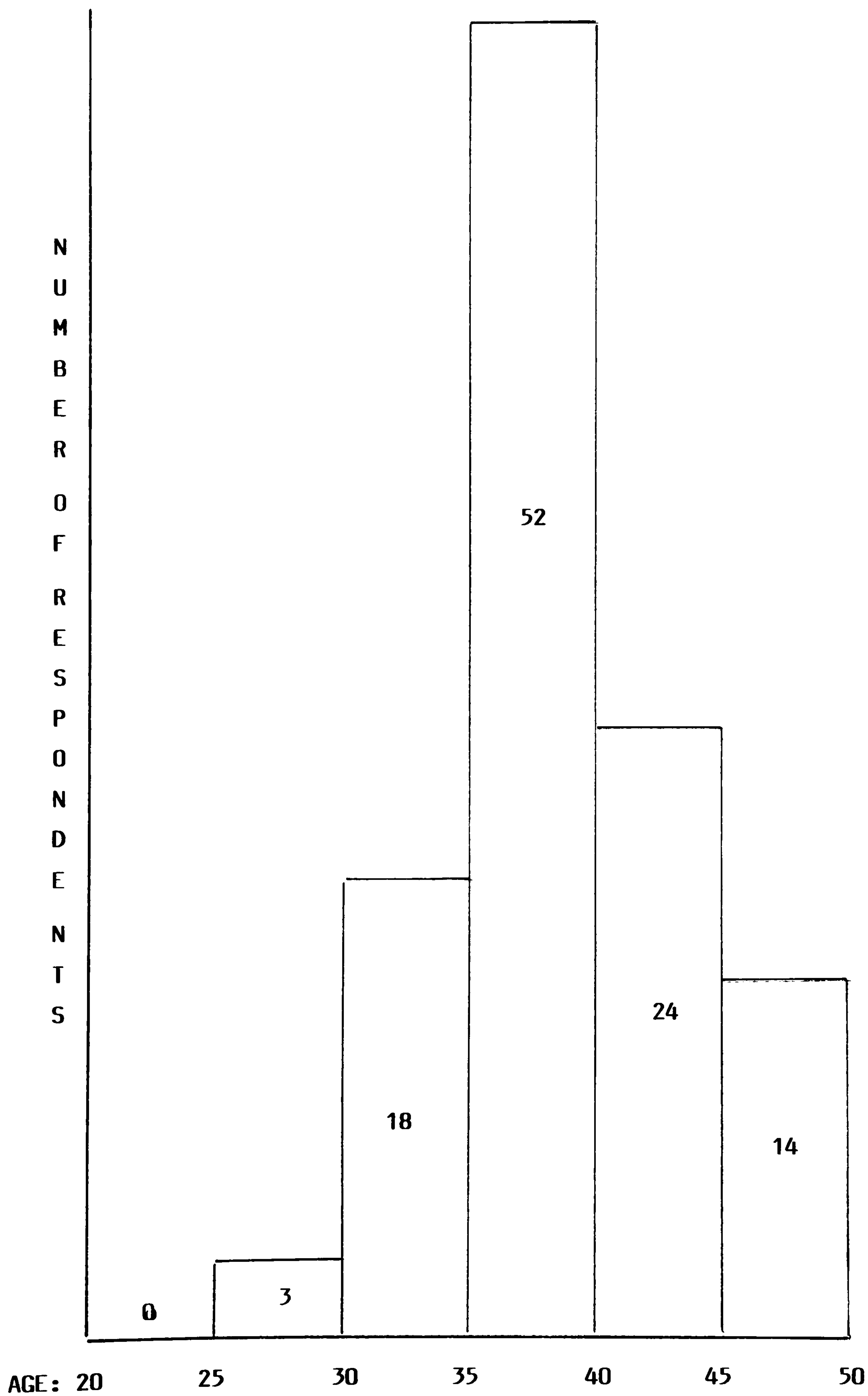


FIGURE 6.2 : Experience (Total Years of Employment)  
(N = 116)

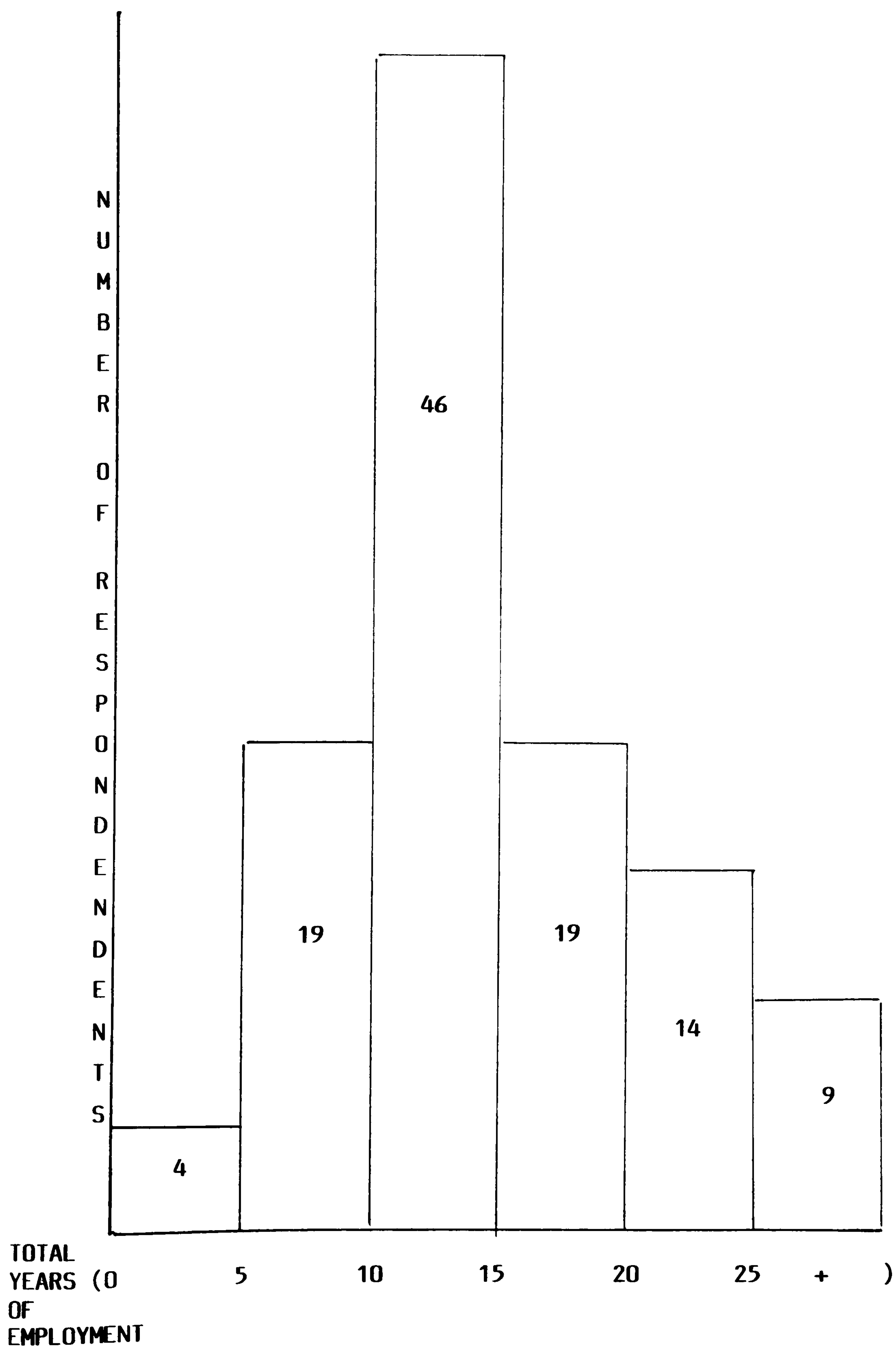




FIGURE 6.3 : Years of Employment in Sugar Organization  
(N = 116)

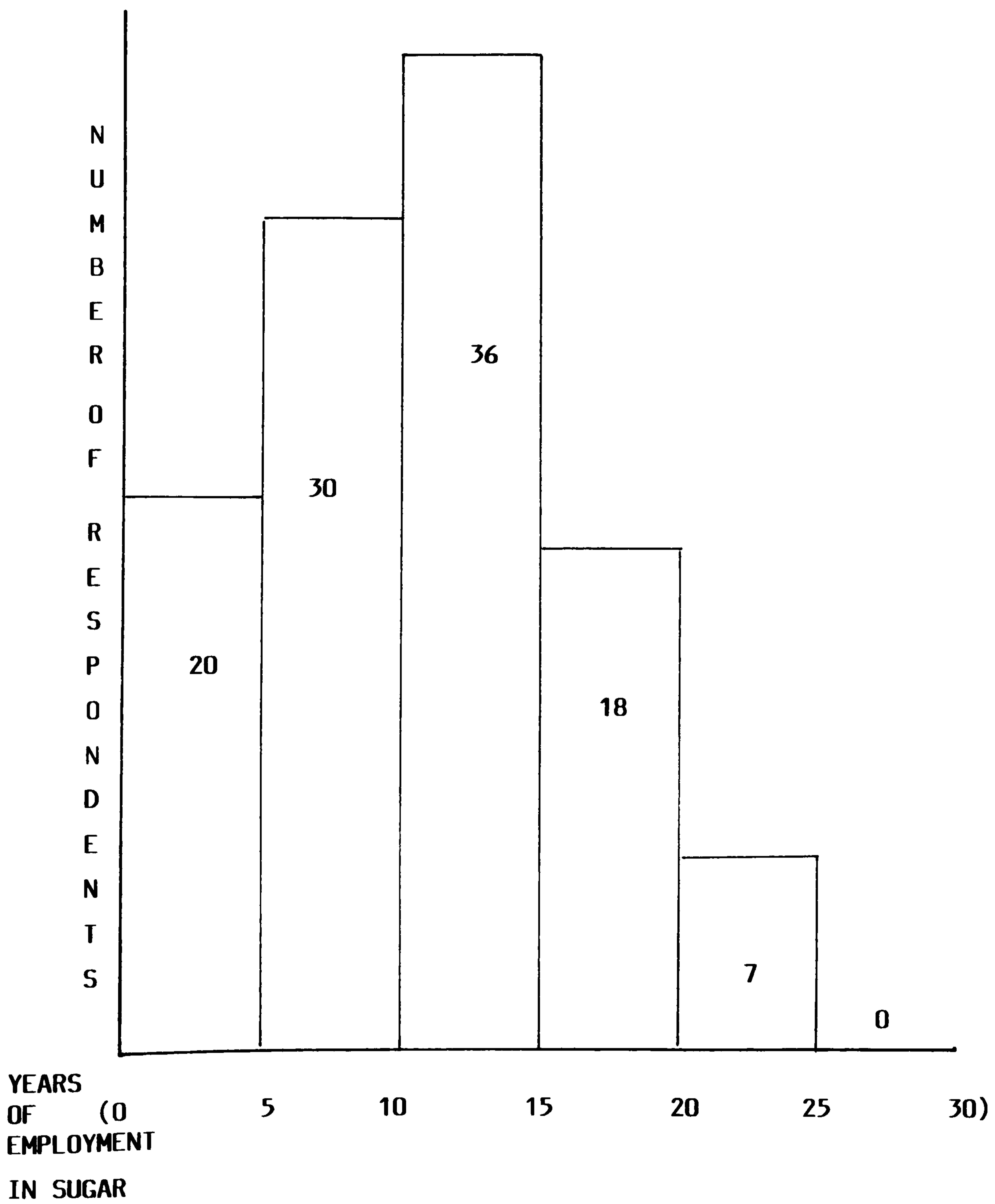


FIGURE 6.4 : YEARS AS A MANAGER  
(N = 116)

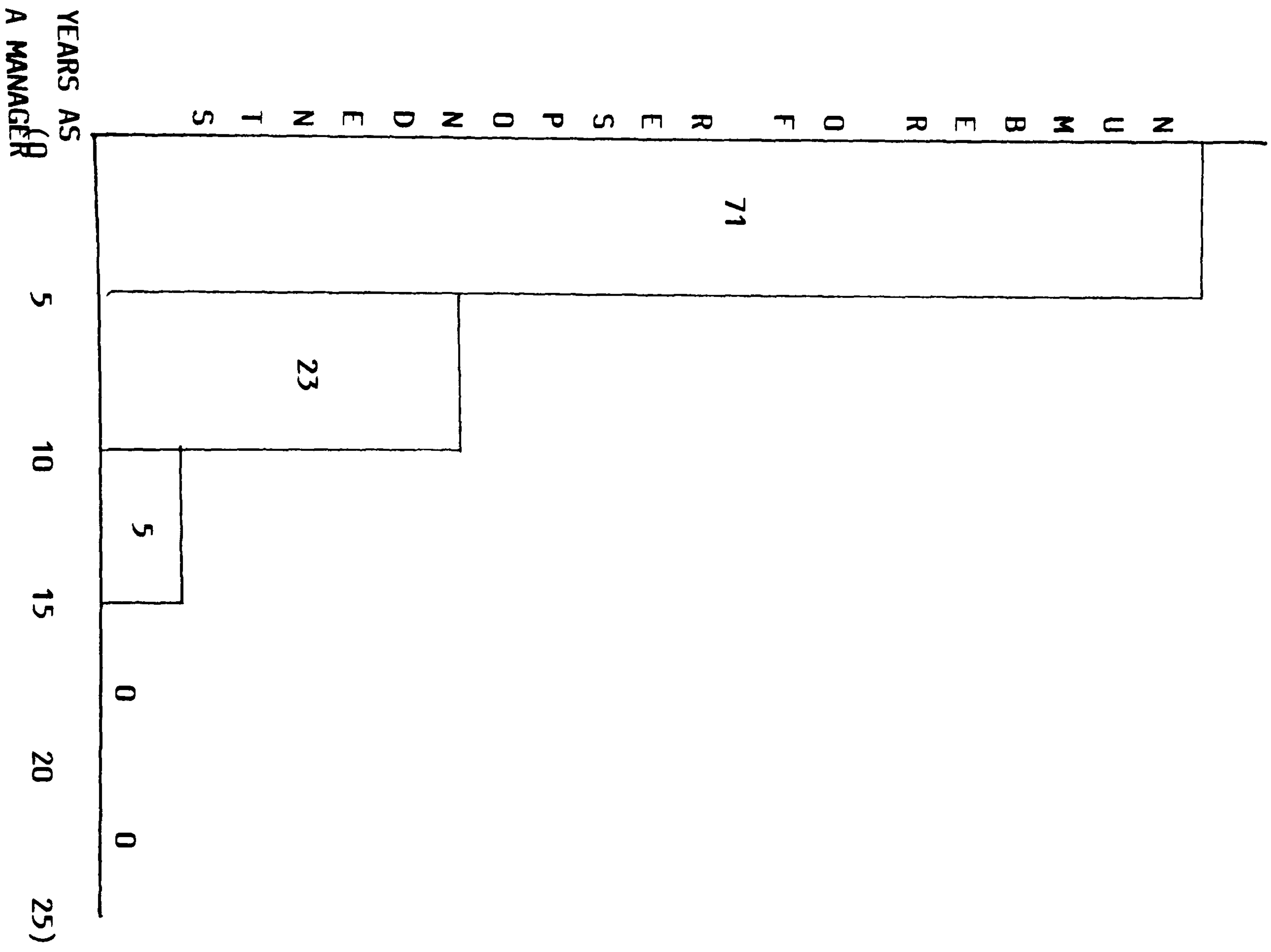


FIGURE 6.5 : SENIORITY (LEVELS OF SUPERVISION ABOVE POSITION)  
(N = 116)

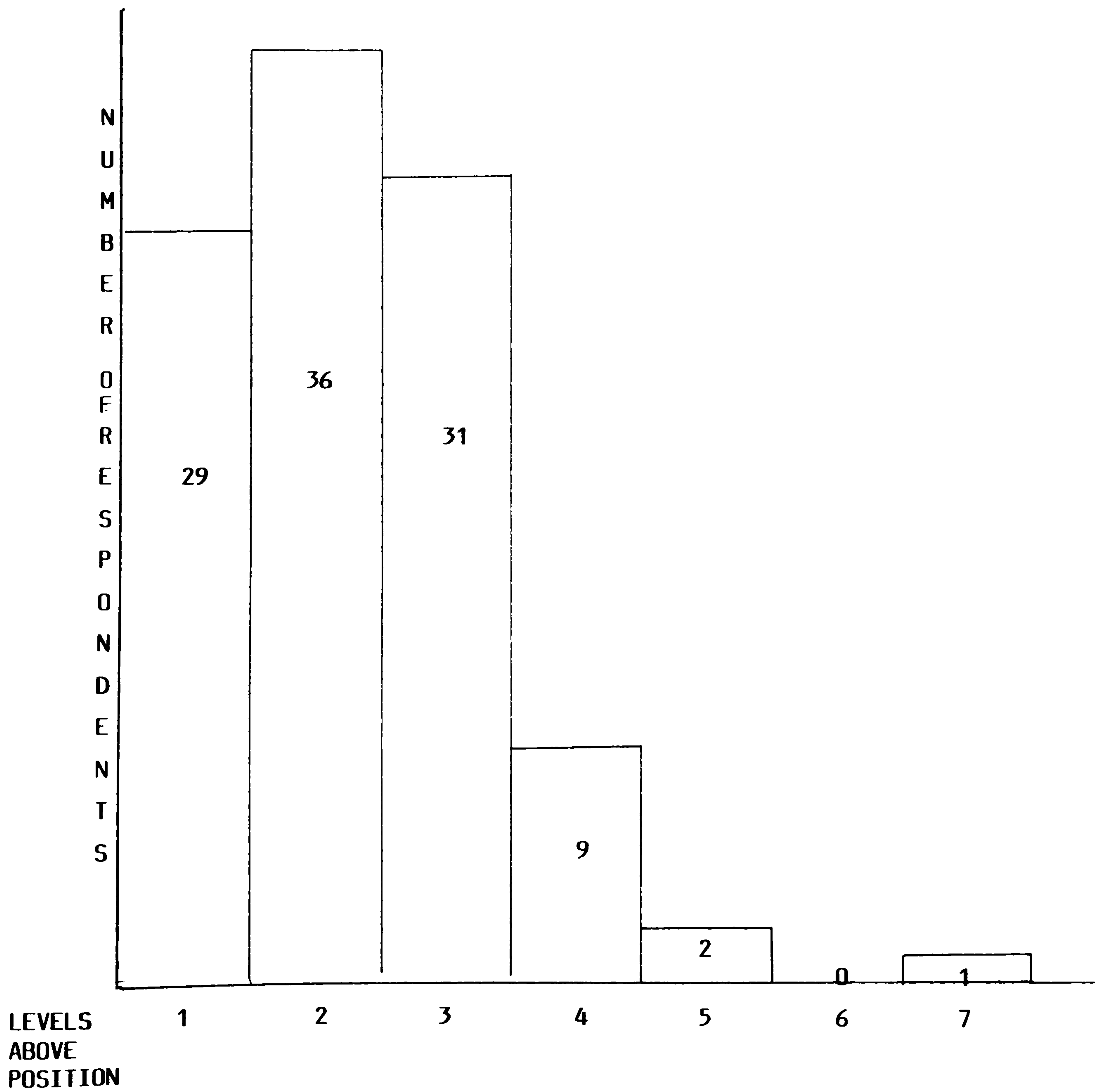




FIGURE 6.6 : DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY EDUCATION  
(N = 116)

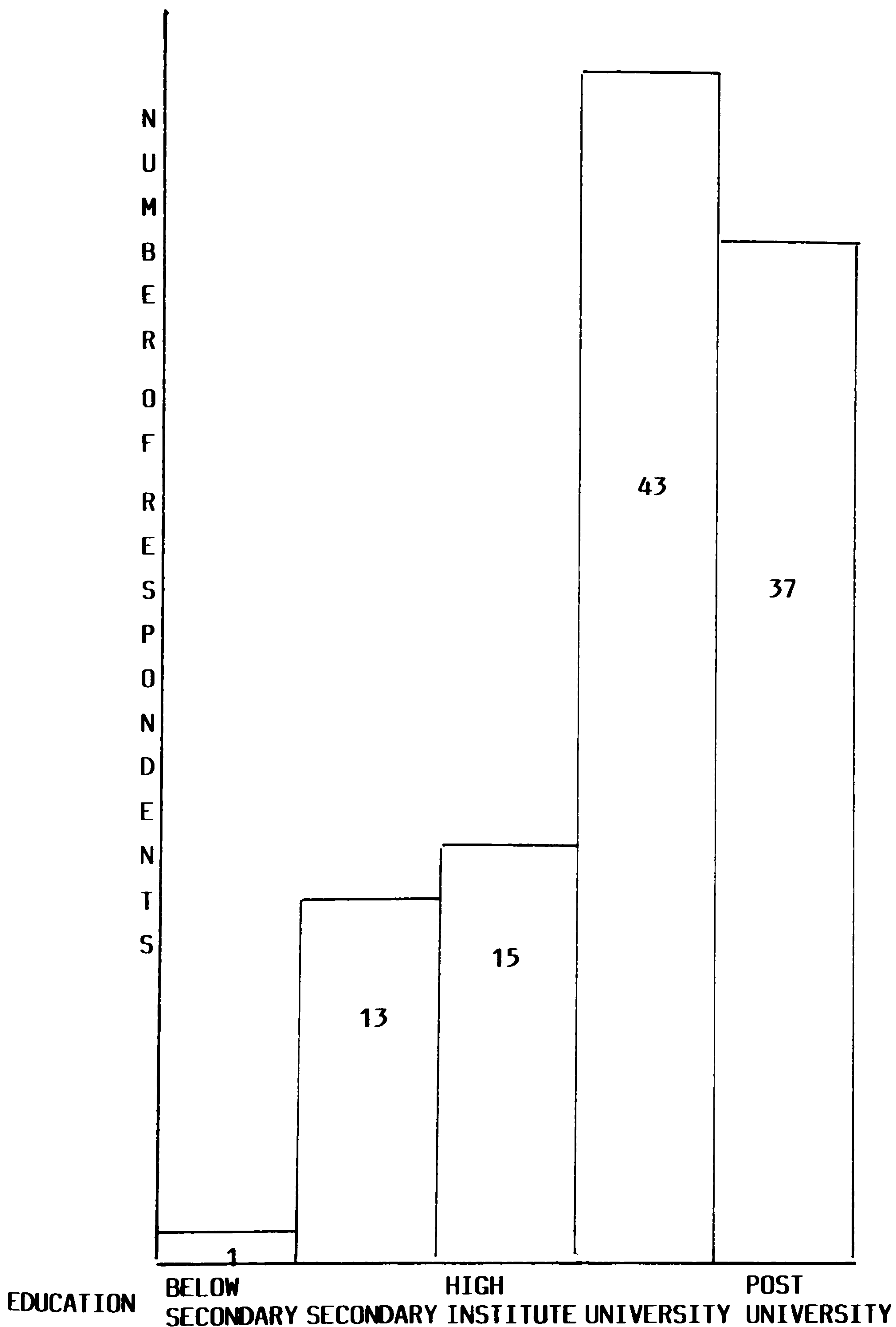


TABLE 6.1  
Distribution of Questionnaire Respondents  
by Departments

(N = 116)

DEPARTMENT	N	%
Agriculture	34	29.3
Production/Engineering	30	25.9
Finance/Accounts	15	12.9
Management/Administration	13	11.2
Purchasing/Stores	7	6.0
Public Relations/Social Services	4	3.4
Planning	1	0.9

FIGURE 6.7 : DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY DEPARTMENTS  
(N = 116)

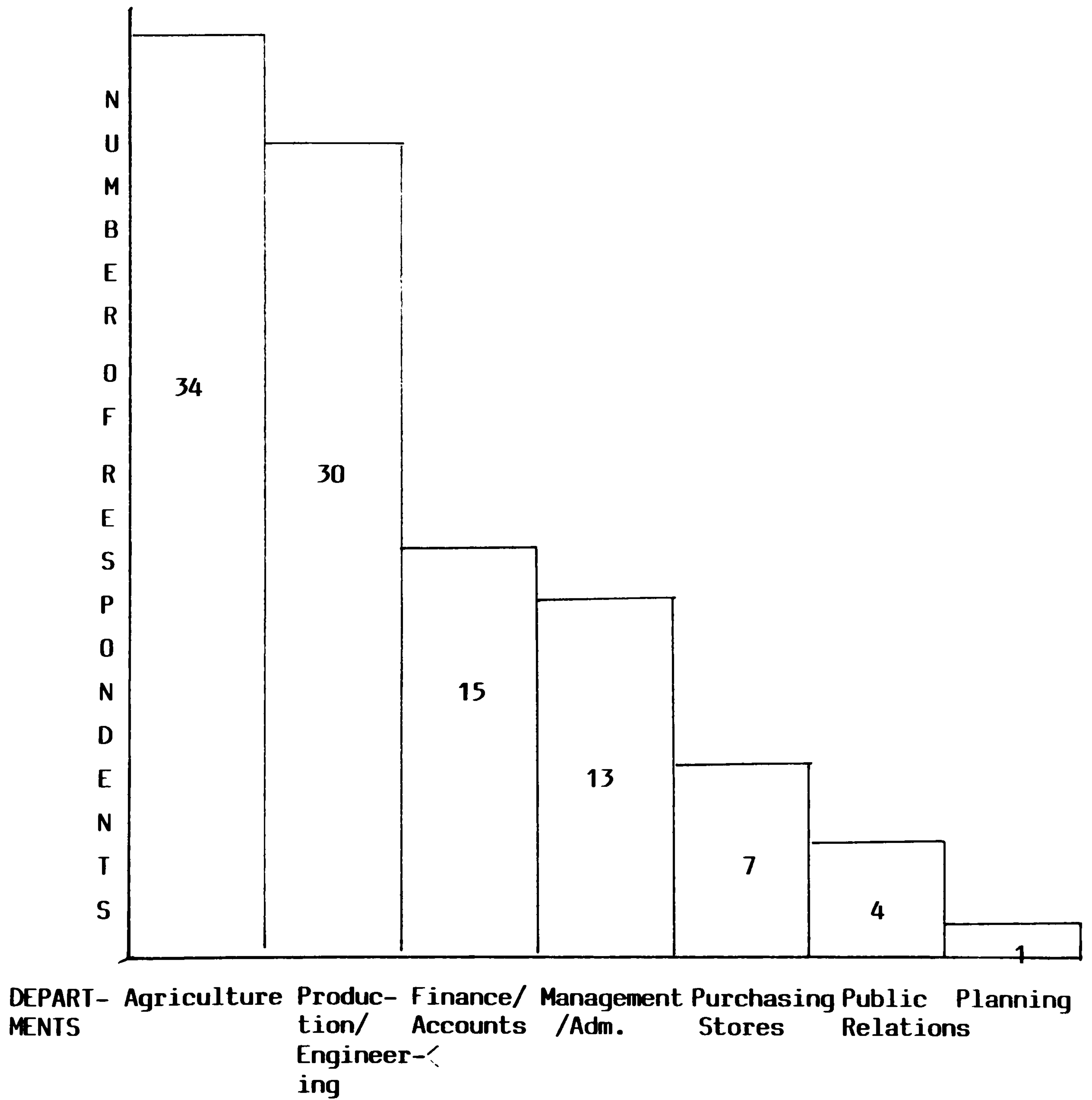




Figure 6.2 shows that the experience of work of the majority (that is 62%) of our sample did not exceed 15 years. Therefore those who had total years of employment over 15 years were 38% of the sample among whom only 8% of the sample had worked for 25 years or more but less than 30 years. These figures reinforced our previous comments about the relatively young age of our sample.

This finding is further reinforced by Figure 6.4 where the figures show that over 70% of our sample had been in managerial positions for not more than 5 years and that not more than 5% had managerial experience between 10 and 15 years and no manager in our sample had more than 15 years managerial experience. Yet Figure 6.5 indicates that 89% of the managers were in top management positions, that is, there were just 1 to 3 levels of supervision above their positions. Again this may not be quite surprising once we have already seen from the data that the majority of our sample managers fell within a relatively young age group.

The data produced yet another remarkable finding that the top and middle level managerial positions were dominated by the 'technical' or what are generally described as 'production' staff i.e. agriculturalists, engineers, chemists and so on. This domination of senior posts by the technical cadre combined with the automatic promotion system disclosed by most respondents when asked about the circumstances in which they became managers, may provide at least one explanation to the phenomenon that almost all the managing directors at the headquarter and the general managers of the factories came from the technocrats category. From Table 4.2 we can see that among all the managing directors of the Sugar Corporation there had been only one manager who was not a technocrat i.e. 80% of them were sugar technologists who had been basically either agriculturalists or

chemists. The situation is even more evident when we have a look at Tables 4.3, 4.6, 4.8 and 4.9 which show the succession of the factories General Managers. When we take, for instance, the 'Guneid Sugar factory, the oldest and first sugar factory in Sudan, we can see that all its general managers since its establishment and up to now were either agriculturalists or engineers with the exception of the first 5 years or so. New Halfa also had a similar exception in its first three years of operation during which its General Manager was an administrator from the civil service. One logical explanation to these exceptions could be found in the fact that during the early stages of executing the sugar projects most of their present technical cadre had been attending study courses and training programmes outside the country in preparation to take over from the foreign counterparts. Immediately after their arrival the trend of the technical cadre predominantly taking over the positions of general managers has started. This situation has not changed despite an attempt made by one of the managing directors (who himself was not from the technical cadre but an economist) and many recommendations by both national and international consultants who advised that the general managers should not necessarily be from the technical staff all the time.

A manager of a technical department, for instance, who could be extremely successful in his own area of speciality may not necessarily prove to be a successful general manager of the whole organization. The writer was told a story that one of the general managers who was basically an engineer had been appointed as general manager, simply because the Minister of Industry at the time was highly impressed when the then Chief Engineer was giving the 'Minister and his guests' a review of the process of sugar production. Shortly after his contro-



versial promotion that Manager was quoted as saying, 'I was not born to be a manager' and admitted that managing people is not as easy as handling machines. Yet when he was asked why he accepted the position then, he simply said, 'I could not have refused the Minister's decision!' However, the said manager was reputed to have turned into one of the most autocratic and least successful managers the Sugar Industry has ever had.

Figure 6.6. shows that about 73% of the managers in our sample had obtained a university degree. Some 34% of the sample even had post university qualifications. This high percentage is not too surprising, as ambitious young men of education normally tend to seek employment in organizations where they can find both status and good financial rewards. Being the biggest enterprise in the Public Industrial Sector and a leading one in the Sudan economy as a whole, people had the tendency to join the Sugar Industry as one of the most suitable places where their financial and social aspirations could be satisfied.

#### The Task of Data Collection

The writer faced no difficulty at all in obtaining the permission of all authorized personnel for obtaining access to the employees he wished to survey. In fact all of them seemed very enthusiastic and showed considerable interest in the research. But, despite that cooperation the fieldwork took quite a long time to complete, because of the diverse nature of the data required and the various sugar plants were widely scattered throughout Sudan. Moreover, many of the



respondents to the questionnaire were unavailable when the researcher first visited the plants either because they were on vacation during the quiet season or were unable to see him due to pressure of work.

It will be recalled that the units from which the data have been collected were:

The Sugar Coordinating Office (Khartoum)  
 Guneid Sugar Factory  
 New Halfa Sugar Factory  
 Sennar Sugar Factory  
 Assalaya Sugar Factory  
 Kenana Sugar Factory

and Figure 6.7, Table 6.1 show the range of departments in each unit from which our sample was drawn.

## 6.2 Organizational Climate of The Sugar Industry

It will be recalled that Part 1 of our questionnaire was intended to investigate the organizational climate of the Sugar Industry of Sudan as perceived by its top and middle managers against which their managerial thinking is going to be examined. The questions were primarily based on the scales of the revised Litwin and Stringer Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Form B).

The relevant scales chosen from Litwin and Stringer Organizational Climate Questionnaire were:

Structure, which has 8 statements  
 Responsibility which has 7 statements, and  
 Identity which has 4 statements.

For example, one of the 8 statements of structure was:

The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Respondents were asked to indicate agreement or disagreement to the statement with an X above one of the five choices.

The rest of Part 1 contained questions on the morale and satisfaction of managers and their opinions about the organization in which they work:

how they would describe it: successful or unsuccessful;  
has friendly or unfriendly atmosphere, high or low morale;  
good team spirit or poor team spirit etc.  
why they joined it;  
how they would compare it with other employers in terms of working conditions and other aspects and so on.

Despite that questions were designed in a multiple choice style, respondents were also free to state what they would like to add if an explanation was necessary.

From the data reflected by the Tables 6.2(a)-6.2(h) concerning the 8 statements on structure, it can be seen that the managers are generally divided over this issue i.e. there was no clear agreement or disagreement. However, their proportions were not so significant except in regard to statement 4 about red tape. For instance, while 50% of Guneid Factory managers indicated disagreement with the statement 'red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization', and 22.7% agreed with it, over 27% were not in a position to decide. There are also equal proportions of undecided respondents at New Halfa and Sennar and a larger number at Assalaya (35.3%). Statement 6 '... productivity ... suffers from lack of organization and planning', however, can be seen as showing some degree of unanimity among the managers of all factories, e.g. over 83% of the managers at the headquarter indicated

## 6.2.1 Structure:

TABLE 6.2(a)

## Statement 1

The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	33.3%	50.0%	16.7
Guneid	36.3	54.5	9.1
New Halfa	45.5	40.9	13.6
Sennar	50.0	27.3	22.7
Assalaya	29.4	58.8	11.8
Kenana	57.2	33.3	9.5
All Organizations	43.1	43.1	13.8

TABLE 6.2(b)

## Statement 2

In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	50.0%	-
Guneid	45.5	54.5	-
New Halfa	45.5	40.9	13.6
Sennar	50.0	45.5	4.5
Assalaya	29.7	58.8	11.8
Kenana	57.2	38.1	4.8
All Organizations	46.6	47.4	6.0

TABLE 6.2(c)

## Statement 3

The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly defined

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	41.7%	58.3%	0%
Guneid	40.9	54.5	4.5
New Halfa	40.9	45.4	13.6
Sennar	45.5	45.4	9.1
Assalaya	29.4	47.1	23.5
Kenana	38.1	52.4	9.5
All Organizations	39.6	50.0	10.3

TABLE 6.2(d)

## Statement 4

Red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	66.6%	16.7%	16.7%
Guneid	22.7	50.0	27.3
New Halfa	50.0	22.7	27.3
Sennar	50.0	22.7	27.3
Assalaya	23.5	35.3	35.3
Kenana	38.1	14.3	23.8
All Organizations	40.5	28.5	26.7



TABLE 6.2(e)

## Statement 5

Excessive rules, administrative details and red tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	41.7%	8.3%
Guneid	72.7	22.7	4.5
New Halfa	72.7	27.3	0
Sennar	45.4	31.8	22.7
Assalaya	70.6	29.4	0
Kenana	52.3	28.6	4.8
All Organizations	61.3	29.3	6.9

TABLE 6.2(f)

## Statement 6

Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	83.3%	16.6%	0%
Guneid	86.4	13.6	0
New Halfa	77.2	13.6	9.1
Sennar	63.7	27.3	9.1
Assalaya	70.6	29.7	0
Kenana	71.4	28.6	0
All Organizations	75.0	21.5	3.4

TABLE 6.2(g)

## Statement 7

In some of the projects I have been on, I have not been sure exactly who my boss was

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	25.0%	66.6%	8.3%
Guneid	13.6	86.3	0
New Halfa	18.2	81.8	0
Sennar	22.7	68.2	4.5
Assalaya	23.5	76.5	0
Kenana	19.1	80.9	0
All Organizations	19.8	77.6	1.7

TABLE 6.2(h)

## Statement 8

Our management is not so concerned about formal organization and authority but concentrates instead on getting the right people together to do the job

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	41.6%	8.3%
Guneid	36.3	45.5	18.2
New Halfa	50.0	40.9	9.1
Sennar	54.5	36.4	9.1
Assalaya	35.3	47.1	17.6
Kenana	52.4	38.1	9.5
All Organizations	46.6	41.4	12.1

discontent and more than 86% at Guneid shared the same response. The number of managers who believed that productivity was adversely affected by lack of organization and planning was 75% of the total sample of all organizations.

On the whole, the figures shown by the tables reflect a negative verdict by the managers of our sample on the dimension of structure, though their dissatisfaction relatively varied from one organization to the other. The most clear judgement, as previously noted, was on the lack of organization and planning, followed by that on excessive rules, administrative details and red tape which most managers (61.3%) thought made it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration (statement 5). The surprising finding which emerged at this stage of investigating the selected dimensions of the Organizational Climate of the Sugar Industry is the noticeable diversity of respondents' opinions about the organizational structure and job definitions. This can clearly be seen from Tables 6.2(a) - 6.2(c) concerning Statements 1-3. All sugar organizations were supposed to adopt almost identical organizational structures (see Appendix 4.1 - 4.5) which more or less, represent the traditional structure previously discussed in Chapter 2, and yet it seems that either these organizational structures were at least not clear to every individual manager in the sugar organizations or that the managers were not satisfied with them. In any case, however, this ambiguity may be evidence that perceptions of groups within the same sector could be different.



### 6.2.2 Responsibility

Tables 6.3(a)-6.3(g) summarizing the managers' responses to the statements on the dimension of responsibility demonstrate further the dispersion of perceptions among the organizations studied. In some cases there was even inconsistency within the same organization. This could well be verified, for instance, by the scores of Sennar concerning statement 1 and statement 2. While 59% of the managers indicated that there was no reliance on individual judgement and almost everything was double-checked, yet at the same time 54.5% of managers agreed with statement 2 that 'Around here management resents checking everything with them; . . . you just go ahead'. Assalaya, however, recorded a higher score in this respect (58.9%), though, unlike Sennar, it was consistent with its score on statement 2, where around 53% of the managers disagreed with the statement that '. . . almost everything is double-checked', and only about 35% of them expressed agreement with it. Kenana managers also showed some consistency on these two statements though to a relatively lower degree. When we turn to Table 6.2(c) which shows the scores about supervision, we can see that a big proportion of Assalaya Managers (64.7%) expressed positive attitudes that, 'supervision . . . is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for . . . subordinates'. Sennar managers came second (63.6%) which is in line with their views about statement 2 above. Kenana and New Halfa can also be seen expressing views along this line, but the headquarters and Guneid's managers were in a neutral position as exactly 50% of each of them agreed with the statement and the other 50% indicated their disagreement. The rest of the tables about this dimension of responsibility ascertain still further the dispersion of managers' perceptions across our organiza-



TABLE 6.3(a)

Statement 1

We do not rely too heavily on individual judgement in this organization; almost everything is double-checked

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	58.3%	41.6%	0%
Guneid	45.5	36.3	18.2
New Halfa	54.5	36.4	9.1
Sennar	57.1	31.8	9.1
Assalaya	35.3	52.9	11.8
Kenana	42.8	52.4	4.8
All Organizations	49.1	41.3	9.5

TABLE 6.3(b)

Statement 2

Around here management resents your checking everything with them; if you think you have the right approach you just go ahead

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H. Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	41.7%	8.3%
Guneid	27.3	63.7	9.1
New Halfa	40.9	45.4	13.6
Sennar	54.5	18.2	22.7
Assalaya	58.9	23.5	11.8
Kenana	47.6	33.4	19.0
All Organizations	45.7	38.0	14.7

TABLE 6.3(c)

Statement 3

Supervision in this organization is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your subordinates; you let them take responsibility for the job

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	50.0%	0%
Guneid	50.0%	50.0%	0%
New Halfa	45.5	36.4	18.2
Sennar	63.6	31.8	4.5
Assalaya	64.7	23.5	11.8
Kenana	61.9	38.1	0
All Organizations	56.0	37.9	6.0

TABLE 6.3(d)

## Statement 4

You will not get ahead in this organization unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes

Organizations	Respondents		Undecided
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	58.3%	33.3%	8.3%
Guneid	40.9	40.9	18.2
New Halfa	68.1	31.8	0
Sennar	50.0	40.9	9.1
Assalaya	64.7	35.3	0
Kenana	66.6	33.3	0
All Organizations	57.8	36.2	6.0

TABLE 6.3(e)

## Statement 5

The philosophy of this organization emphasizes that people should solve their problems by themselves

Organizations	Respondents		Undecided
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	66.7%	16.7%	16.7%
Guneid	59.0%	36.3%	4.5
New Halfa	50.0	40.9	9.1
Sennar	63.6	31.8	4.5
Assalaya	64.7	17.6	17.6
Kenana	66.7	23.8	9.5
All Organizations	61.2	29.3	9.5

TABLE 6.3(f)

## Statement 6

There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake

Organizations	Respondents		Undecided
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	83.3%	16.7%	0%
Guneid	77.3	18.1	4.5
New Halfa	54.5	36.4	9.1
Sennar	50.0	40.9	9.1
Assalaya	76.4	11.8	11.8
Kenana	66.6	23.8	9.5
All Organizations	66.4	25.9	7.8

TABLE 6.3(g)

## Statement 7

One of the problems in this organization is that individuals will not take responsibility

Organizations	Respondents		Undecided
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	50.0%	0%
Guneid	72.7	22.7	4.5
New Halfa	63.6	31.8	4.5
Sennar	40.9	54.5	4.5
Assalaya	76.5	17.6	5.9
Kenana	61.9	33.4	4.8
All Organizations	61.2	34.5	4.3

tions. In New Halfa 68.1% of the managers agreed with statement 7, in Sennar 50% of the managers did the same while 40.9% disagreed. While in Guneid the managers who clearly stated their opinions were equally divided over this aspect (40.9%), the rest (18.2%) remained undecided.

Table 6.3(e) generally shows that a clear majority of the managers, that is whether organizations are taken separately or collectively, indicated that the policy of the organization encourages employees to take the responsibility of solving their problems themselves. Their agreement about this aspect was nearly at a similar degree across the factories (around 60%) with the exception of New Halfa where only 50% of its managers shared this trend and 40.9% of them disagreed with it. However, the matter, it seems, is a two-fold question as the majority of managers also indicated that 'individuals will not take responsibility' and expressed, 'there are an awful lot of excuses . . . when somebody makes a mistake'. This finding was distinctly demonstrated by the scores of Guneid and Assalaya. Table 6.3(g) revealed that more than 72% of Guneid managers stated that one of the problems of their organization was that employees refrained from taking responsibility and even more than this number at Assalaya (76.5%) noted the same problem. Table 6.3(f) shows that more than 77% of Guneid managers and about a similar number at Assalaya (76.4%) shared the experience of hearing 'a lot of excuses' at their organization when employees make mistakes.



### 6.2.3 IDENTITY

It seems from Tables 6.4(a)-6.4(d) concerning the identity dimension that there are generally some high figures, speaking relatively, throughout the data which reflect clearer responses of individuals and thus indicated more distinct positions of the factories when taken separately. For instance Guneid recorded the highest disagreement on the issue of belonging - statement 1 - i.e. 45.5% of its managers thought that people are not proud of belonging to their organization. On the other hand, more than 63% of New Halfa managers indicated that people are proud of belonging to this organization.

In statement 2, about 82% of Sennar managers expressed the feeling that they were members of a well functioning team, followed by Kenana managers (71.4%) and New Halfa managers (68.2%). The head-quarter (58%), Guneid (50%), and Assalaya (41.2%) were, however, on the negative side. In line with the positive attitude reflected by Sennar managers in regard to the team work spirit noted previously (82%), they also scored the highest figure in relation to personal loyalty to their organization (77.2%) followed by Kenana managers (61.9%). On the other hand, the majority of Guneid managers (63.6%) indicated that there was not much personal loyalty to the organization, followed by Assalaya managers (58.8%).

Sennar also scored highest in regard to statement 4 where 63.6% of its managers denied the assumption that people of their organization look for their own interest. This is not too surprising since they already reflected a favourable attitude on the issue of loyalty. On the other hand, however, Guneid managers represented the opposite extreme, that is, 72.7% of them indicated that in their organization people were pretty much concerned with their own interest, followed by Kenana (71.4%).

IdentityTABLE 6.4(a)Statement 1People are proud of belonging to this organization

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	16.7%	33.3%	50.0%
Guneid	27.3	45.5	27.3
New Halfa	63.7	18.2	18.2
Sennar	54.6	27.2	18.2
Assalaya	23.5	41.2	35.3
Kenana	52.3	28.6	19.0
All Organizations	42.2	31.9	25.9

TABLE 6.4(b)Statement 2I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	41.6%	58.3%	0%
Guneid	50.0	50.0	0
New Halfa	68.2	18.2	13.6
Sennar	81.8	13.6	4.5
Assalaya	35.3	41.2	23.5
Kenana	71.4	19.0	9.5
All Organizations	60.4	31.0	8.6

TABLE 6.4(c)Statement 3As far as I can see, there is not very much personal  
loyalty to the organization

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	58.3%	41.6%	0%
Guneid	63.6	27.2	9.1
New Halfa	59.1	36.3	4.5
Sennar	18.2	77.2	4.5
Assalaya	58.8	23.5	17.6
Kenana	38.1	61.9	0%
All Organizations	48.3	45.7	6.0

TABLE 6.4(d)Statement 4In this organization people pretty much look  
out for their own interests

Organizations	Respondents		
	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Strongly Disagree Disagree	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office)	50.0%	41.7%	8.3%
Guneid	72.7	18.2	9.1
New Halfa	63.6	31.8	4.5
Sennar	22.7	63.6	13.6
Assalaya	41.1	35.3	23.5
Kenana	71.4	19.0	9.5
All Organizations	54.3	34.5	11.2

## 6.2.4 Description of Organizations by Their Managers

PerformanceTABLE 6.5(a)

Organizations	Successful	Unsuccessful	Neither
H.Q. (co-ordinating office)	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%
Guneid	50.0	39.9	9.1
New Halfa	45.4	13.6	31.8
Sennar	45.4	22.7	31.8
Assalaya	47.1	23.5	23.5
Kenana	76.2	0	19.0
All organizations	53.6	20.6	23.3

TABLE 6.5(b)

Organizations	Productive	Unproductive	Neither
H.Q. (co-ordinating office)	66.7%	31.3%	0%
Guneid	45.5	45.5	9.1
New Halfa	81.8	0	4.5
Sennar	71.8	9.1	9.1
Assalaya	64.7	23.5	5.9
Kenana	85.7	4.8	0
All organizations	71.6	18.1	5.2

TABLE 6.5(c)

Organizations	Efficient	Inefficient	Neither
H.Q. (co-ordinating office)	58.3%	33.7%	8.3%
Guneid	50.0	40.9	9.1
New Halfa	50.0	18.1	27.3
Sennar	72.7	13.6	13.6
Assalaya	41.2	29.4	23.5
Kenana	66.7	4.8	19.0
All organizations	56.9	22.4	17.2



Though it can apparently be seen from Table 4.1 concerning the factories production of sugar, that all of them, except Kenana, have generally been producing at less than half their designed capacities, Tables 6.5(a) - 6.5(c) reflect that the managers of these organizations saw the situation in a different way. They indicated that their organizations were successful, productive and efficient. This seemingly unrealistic verdict on the organizations' performance was not too surprising. They believed that the measure of success was not the figures of production alone. All the managers interviewed and almost all those who responded to our questionnaire combined two or more measures as criteria for assessing organizational performance.

We recall that most respondents have indicated earlier in this chapter that the policies of the organizations were not clearly defined. So this might have left a lot of room for them to perceive 'success' and 'efficiency' in their own terms.

The most frequently mentioned measures (perhaps in order of importance to them) are the following combination of factors:

- Combination of "Increasing production, making profit reducing cost, providing jobs, and providing other facilities and services to the community."
- Combination of "Increasing production, reducing cost, providing other facilities and services to the community."
- Combination of "Increasing production, providing other facilities and services to the community."
- Combination of "Increasing production, reducing cost, providing jobs."
- Combination of "Increasing production, reducing cost."
- Combination of "Increasing production, reducing cost, making profit."
- Combination of "Increasing production, making profit."

It can be noted that the only objective mentioned in all combinations was "increasing production" which always came before the rest of other measures. However, the provision of jobs, and other facilities and services to the community had many times been mentioned as a higher priority than reducing cost and making profit. This is so because to the majority of managers 'these organizations are public enterprises and as such, they have social objectives and obligations towards the community that should be achieved beside contributing to the national income'.

Another area that received noticeable attention from respondents particularly at the interviews was the aspect of organization and style of management. It is apparent from Table 6.6(a) there were more respondents who described the Management of the Sugar Industry as authoritarian than those who believed it was democratic. The majority of Guneid managers (68.2%) were among the former category, followed by Kenana (47.6%) and Sennar managers (45.6%). This view of many managers, however, did not prevent even bigger numbers of them from expressing their satisfaction with the way most organizations were organized and run. It can be seen from Table 6.6(d) for instance, that 81% of Kenana managers believed that their organization was quite organized and 61.9% indicated that it was well run. Around the same number, in Sennar, had a similar opinion about their organization. Guneid and New Halfa also seemed to comprise a pair but less proportions of their managers than those of their colleagues at Kenana and Sennar were satisfied with the way their organizations were managed.

MANAGEMENT

TABLE 6.6 (a)

TABLE 6.6 (b)

Organizations	Democratic	Authoritarian	Neither	Well run	Badly run	Neither
H.Q.	41.6%	41.7%	16.7%	58.4%	33.3%	8.3%
Guneid	13.5	68.2	13.6	40.9	45.5	13.6
New Halfa	27.3	27.2	27.3	54.5	13.6	22.7
Sennar	31.8	45.6	22.7	81.8	9.1	9.1
Assalaya	29.4	41.1	17.6	35.3	23.5	41.2
Kenana	19.1	47.6	23.8	61.9	19.0	14.3
All Organizations	25.8	45.7	20.7	56.0	23.3	18.1

TABLE 6.6 (c)

TABLE 6.6 (d)

Organizations	Flexible	Bureaucratic	Neither	Organized	Unorganized	Neither
H.Q.	33.3%	50.0%	16.7%	41.7%	58.4%	0
Guneid	36.4	40.9	22.7	45.4	31.8	22.7
New Halfa	40.9	36.7	13.6	50.0	13.6	22.7
Sennar	54.5	22.7	22.7	63.6	13.6	18.2
Assalaya	41.2	35.2	17.6	41.2	29.7	23.5
Kenana	52.4	9.5	28.6	81.0	4.8	4.8
All Organizations	43.9	31.0	20.7	55.2	22.4	16.4



ATMOSPHERE AND MORALETABLE 6.7 (a)TABLE 6.7 (b)

Organizations	Workforce enthusiastic	Workforce uninterested	Neither	High morale	Low morale	Neither
H.Q.	66.6%	33.3%	0%	41.7%	58.4%	0%
Guneid	45.4	31.8	18.2	27.2	54.5	18.2
New Halfa	50.0	13.6	31.8	50.0	27.2	18.2
Sennar	68.2	22.7	9.1	72.7	13.6	9.1
Assalaya	47.0	35.3	11.8	29.4	41.2	23.5
Kenana	71.4	14.3	4.8	52.3	9.5	28.6
All Organizations	57.7	24.2	13.8	46.6	31.9	17.2

TABLE 6.7 (c)TABLE 6.7 (d)

Organizations	Good team spirit	Poor team spirit	Neither	Friendly atmosphere	Unfriendly atmosphere	Neither
H.Q.	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	58.3%	16.7%	25.0%
Guneid	40.9	54.5	4.5	31.8	50.0	13.6
New Halfa	40.9	27.3	22.7	59.1	13.6	22.7
Sennar	77.2	18.2	4.5	70.6	4.5	22.7
Assalaya	35.3	41.1	17.6	47.1	35.3	11.8
Kenana	57.1	9.6	23.8	57.1	4.8	23.8
All Organizations	50.9	29.4	15.5	53.4	20.7	19.8

Tables 6.7(a)-6.7(d) provide yet another evidence of the diversion of managers' perception of organizational climate throughout the organizations we studied. Sennar generally continued to score highest majorities; 70.6% of its managers believed that their factory has a friendly atmosphere, an enthusiastic workforce (68.2%), with a high morale (72.7%) and good team spirit (77.2%).

Guneid, on the other hand, represented the opposite extreme; 50% of its managers indicated that their factory has an unfriendly atmosphere, an uninterested workforce (31.8%), with low morale (57.5%) and poor team spirit (54.5%). The other organizations could somehow be placed between Sennar and Guneid with Kenana closer to Sennar. However, from the overall judgement of all organizations by managers, it can be seen that the Sugar Industry has a fairly friendly atmosphere, good team spirit and enthusiastic workforce with reasonably high morale.

### **6.2.5 Terms of Employment**

It was mentioned earlier (in Chapter 4) that the Sugar Corporation used to provide a central service to assist the factories with the recruitment of higher level personnel and all that related to the conditions of service which were standard (and still are) though the factories have been transformed into public companies. However, it can be seen from Table 6.8 below, that managers expressed different feelings about their terms of employment. On average it is apparent that 46.6% of all managers described the terms of employment between very good and good, 39.7% as average and 4.3% thought they were bad. Kenana alone looks slightly higher than the average as 52.4% of its managers indicated that the terms of employment were very good/good.

This is quite understandable, as Kenana was originally established on the basis of private company status, which has been regarded as having relatively better employment conditions than many of other governmental enterprises. What is rather surprising is that there was an even bigger number of managers at Sennar who believed that their employment conditions were very good/good (59.1%). While those who shared this opinion at the headquarter, Guneid, New Halfa and Assalaya where the conditions are similar, ranged between 35% - 45%. We suggest that the explanation of this kind of attitude could be found in the responses to the question asking subjects whether they would leave their present organization if they were offered a job somewhere else where the terms of employment were much better. Though a significant number of managers (65%), stated they would accept such an offer, money was not mentioned as a major concern. The list below shows the most important reasons why managers would or would not leave their present organization for a better offer. It is apparent that in either case the economical factor was not the strongest. On top of the list of reasons by those sticking to their present organizations came the job satisfaction people think they find at present, followed by 'a matter of being used to', . . . loyalty to the organization, family reasons and so on and no direct mention was made of money. On the other hand, even those who had the tendency to leave their present employer did not indicate that their main motive was money though it was mentioned among the other reasons. Their main concern was the future certainty and job satisfaction which they indicated their present employment did not provide. Then they recorded their concern about poor management and bureaucracy before expressing their dissatisfaction with the terms of employment and other benefits.



TABLE 6.8

How Managers see their terms of Employment

Organizations	Very good/ good	Average	Very bad /bad	Undecided
H.Q.(co-ordinating office	41.7%	16.7%	0%	8.3%
Guneid	40.9	40.9	4.5	0
New Halfa	45.4	40.9	4.5	0
Sennar	59.1	31.8	9	0
Assalaya	35.3	58.8	5.9	0
Kenana	52.4	42.9	0	0
All organizations	46.4	39.7	4.3	0.9

**6.2.6 Why Managers Prefer to Stay at Present Organization**

Job satisfaction and challenge at present organization

A matter of being used to

Prospects of improvement

Continuity of service

Loyalty to the organization

A matter of convenience and family reasons

Special interest

Gaining more experience

Age factor

Facilities and services provided by present employer

Chances of promotion and career development

**Why Managers prefer to leave Present Organization for better terms of Employment**

Uncertainty about the future in present organization

Looking for job satisfaction and better opportunities for promotion

Poor Management and Bureaucracy

To gain experience at a different place

To increase income and secure future for family

Terms of employment at present organization not satisfactory.

Frustration due to scarce chances of training

Boredom and isolation

Lack of appreciation and proper performance appraisal

### 6.3 Managerial Assumptions of Respondents about Subordinates and Leadership

It will be recalled from Chapter 5 that Part 2 of the questionnaire was designed to explore our respondents' managerial thinking concerning the abilities of their subordinates and about appropriate styles of leadership. The rationale of this part is that managers manage according to their assumptions about human nature. Our direct concern in this study is not whether these assumptions are accurate or not, but rather that they are made, as Haire and his colleagues note:

the crucial point here is not what abilities and traits the employees actually have, but rather what their capabilities are seen

to be by the manager.

The classic work on managerial assumptions by McGregor (1960) was taken as the basis for this part of our questionnaire. McGregor called the two extremes concerning managerial assumptions about human nature Theory **X** and Theory **Y**. Theory **X** advocates the following assumptions about human nature and behaviour:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Most people must therefore be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort towards the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average person prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.



At the opposite extreme Theory Y assumes that:

1. The expenditure of physical effort and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. Average human beings learn, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

This part of our questionnaire on attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices, consists of eight statements about the relationship between the leader and his subordinates, each item was relevant to an assumption or attitude on which the two types of theories differed, and respondents were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement as presented.

By preparing these items, it was intended to cover four distinct areas of disagreement between the traditional - directives and the democratic - participative approaches. These four areas and the two items pertaining to each of them are as follows:

#### A. Capacity for Leadership and Initiative

Statement 1 : The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.

Statement 2 : Leadership can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities.

## B. Sharing of information and objectives

Statement 5 : A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details.

Statement 7 : A superior should give his subordinates only that information which is necessary for them to do their immediate job.

## C. Participation by Subordinates

Statement 4 : In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me then I lose some of my influence on them.

Statement 6 : Group goal setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal setting.

## D. Internal Control

Statement 3 : The use of rewards (pay, promotion etc.) and punishment (no promotion etc.) is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.

Statement 8 : The superior's authority over his subordinates in an organization is primarily economic.

The questionnaire was thus structured so that:

- Agreement with statements 1, 5, 7 and 8 reflects attitudes favouring the 'traditional-directive' style of management.
- Agreement with statements 2, 3, 4 and 6 reflects attitudes in favour of the 'democratic-participative' approach.

From this structure it was possible to construct a table by scoring each question so that a low score would tend to reflect a preference for 'traditional-directive' approaches and a high score a preference for 'democratic-participative' approaches to the management of subordinates. In the table of raw scores, therefore, countries and



clusters of countries whose managers favour the more 'democratic-participative' approach have the higher mean values.

On the 1 - 5 rating scale our sample of Sudanese managers scored as indicated in Table 6.9.

TABLE 6.9  
Attitude towards Management Practices,  
Sudanese Managers (Raw Scores) (N = 116)

	Capacity for Leadership & Initiative	Sharing Information and objectives	Participation	Control
Sudanese Managers	2.84	2.94	2.41	3.01

Higher mean values indicate stronger endorsement of democratic attitudes

For the comparison of our data with the findings of Haire and his colleagues' international study, the Haire et al (1966) findings are reproduced and the Sudanese raw scores are added (in Table 6.10). This comparison is also graphically represented in Figure 6.8 where again the data of our Sudanese sample have been imposed on Haire et al figure for the five clusters in their study (Nordic-European, Latin-European, Anglo-American, Developing Countries and Japan).

- Capacity of Subordinates for Leadership and Initiative

From the data of our Sudanese sample compared with Haire **et al's** findings, it will be realized that the Sudanese managers reflected a slightly higher opinion of their subordinates for leadership and initiative than did other developing countries in Haire's sample. In fact their opinion of their subordinates' capacity for leadership and

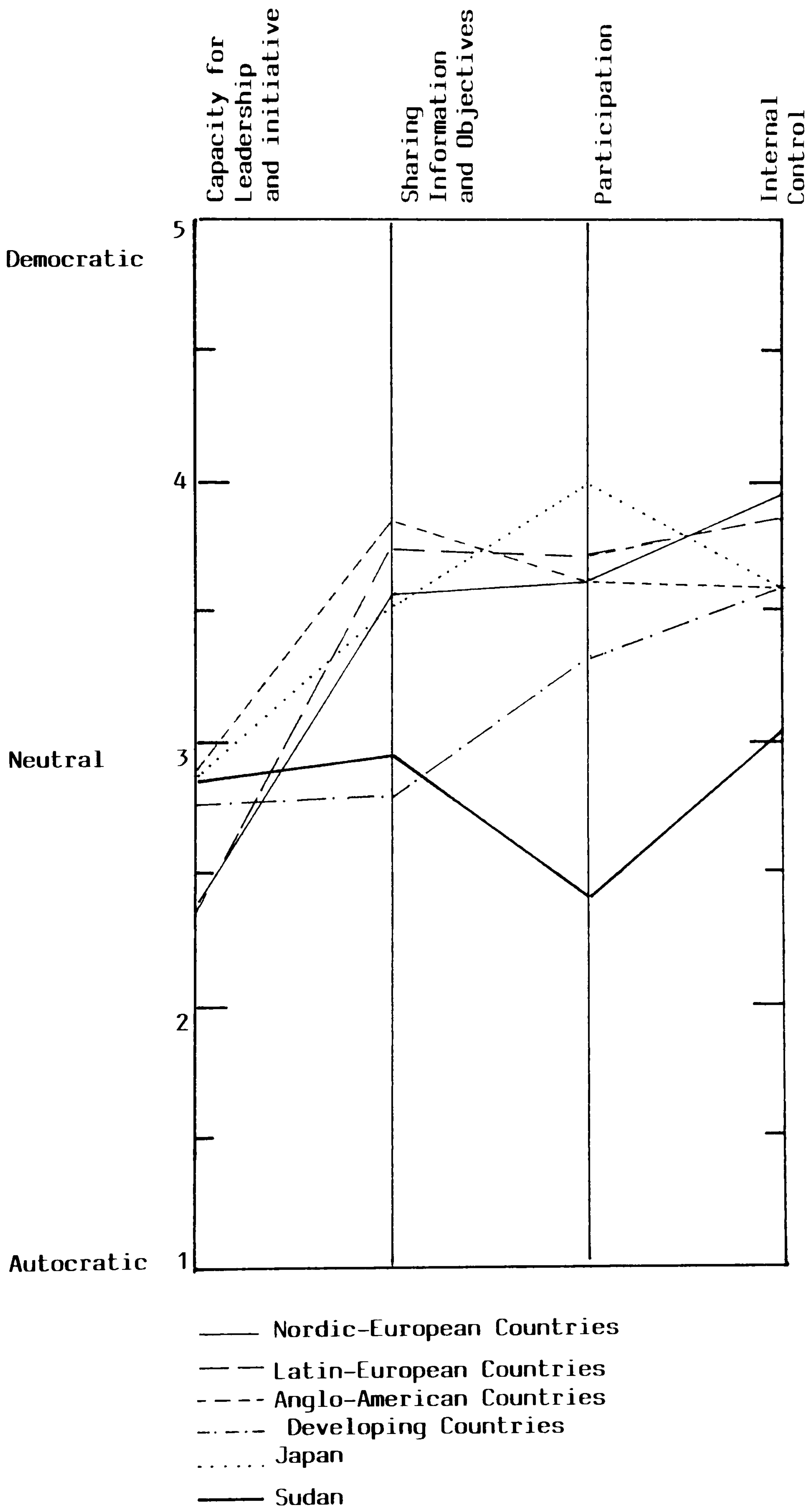


TABLE 6.10  
Attitudes Towards Management Practices (Raw Scores)  
Haire *et al* Sample and Sudanese Sample

	Capacity for Leadership Initiative	Sharing information & Objectives	Participation	Internal Control	N
Nordic-European Countries					
Denmark	2.54	3.09	3.68	3.90	149
Germany	2.38	3.17	3.52	3.88	586
Norway	2.52	4.04	3.47	3.90	221
Sweden	2.22	4.01	3.35	3.88	342
Average	2.42	3.58	3.51	3.89	
Latin-European Countries					
Belgium	2.29	3.74	3.88	3.74	378
France	2.42	4.04	3.82	3.80	154
Italy	2.40	3.64	3.16	3.72	267
Spain	2.52	3.56	3.65	3.78	203
Average	2.41	3.75	3.63	3.76	
Anglo-American Countries					
England	2.72	3.78	3.48	3.56	239
United States	3.13	3.98	3.56	3.58	464
Average	2.93	3.88	3.52	3.57	
Developing Countries					
Argentina	2.64	2.96	3.31	3.62	198
Chile	2.80	3.08	3.32	3.65	159
India	2.81	2.96	3.35	3.38	114
Average	2.75	3.00	3.33	3.55	
Japan	2.88	3.58	3.98	3.77	165
All Managers (Haire <i>et al</i> )	2.59	3.55	3.54	3.73	
Sudan	<b>2.84</b>	<b>2.94</b>	<b>2.41</b>	<b>3.01</b>	<b>116</b>

Higher mean values indicate stronger endorsement of democratic attitudes.

FIGURE 6.8 : ATTITUDES TOWARDS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES : BY CLUSTERS OF COUNTRIES (RAW SCORES)  
(HAIRE ET AL - 1966 - MODIFIED)



initiative is even much higher than all the managers of the 14 countries of the Haire et al study, other than the U.S.A. and Japan. The Sudan mean score was 2.84, as compared with a mean of 2.59 for all the managers in the Haire et al study. A score of 3 on the 1 - 5 rating scale indicates a neutral view. Thus with the exception of the U.S.A. (3.13) all the countries exhibit negative attitudes, the lowest scores being those of the Latin-European (2.41) and the Nordic-European (2.42) clusters. The three developing countries' score as a cluster was 2.75. It is worth mentioning that although the U.S.A. score is higher than those of the other countries, it is, nevertheless, not that much above the neutral point (+ 0.13) and thus can be described to be mildly positive in terms of managerial views about the capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative. Haire and his colleagues note that this finding about the U.S.A. may be explained by the fact that the majority of the modern theories of organization have originated there (1966 : 31-34) more significantly, they suggest that the low mean scores for the European clusters can be seen as evidence that:

cultural traditions, within society at large, as well as within the business world, do have an impact on managerial philosophies and assumptions, especially with regard to something as basic as the nature of man.

- Sharing Information and Objectives

From the figures shown in Table 6.10 which were graphically represented in Figure 6.8 it can be seen that the Sudan score concerning managers' thinking about sharing information and objectives with their subordinates was among the lowest scores compared with the managers of Haire et al 14 countries. In comparison with a mean score



of 3.55 for all managers in the Haire et al study, the Sudanese managers in our sample scored 2.94. However, the Sudan score is just slightly lower than that registered by the developing countries (3.00) as a cluster, the lowest individual country scores in Haire et al sample of the 14 countries being those of Argentina and India (both 2.96). It will be recalled again that the two statements in this section of the questionnaire were structured in such a way that agreement with each indicated a 'traditional-directive' approach. Haire and his colleagues remark that the three developing countries in their sample (i.e. Argentina, Chile and India):

hold decidedly negative views (relative to other countries) concerning this method of exercising leadership. . . the managers in developing countries, while recognizing the potentialities of the average person, nevertheless feel that the typical subordinate or employee would not be accustomed, nor would respond favourably, to such sharing. Of course, they may be wrong in this belief, but the important point is that they seem to hold it.

The data revealed by the sample of Sudanese managers is not far short of reinforcing this finding. In fact it is quite in line with it and the contradiction of their thinking is even more evident, being third most positive (to the U.S.A.) on the first dimension concerning subordinates' capacity for leadership and initiative and most negative in this dimension of sharing information and objectives.

- Participation by Subordinates

The two items in this category were both phrased in line with modern organization theory:

1. "In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me, then I lose some of my influence on them."
2. "Group goal-setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting."

Positive response to these statements indicated a belief in line with democratic-participative approaches to the managerial job.

Haire and his colleagues note that the lower range of means, registered by their sample of managers in the 14 countries of their study in this category of items, 'indicates that any existing cultural differences or even differences in industrialization had less of an impact on this category than on the previous two categories'. The nature of the situation produces 'a certain uniformity of opinion among managers regarding just how much participation is likely to be effective'. The mean score for all managers in the Haire et al study was 3.54. The only countries that deviate from the total sample mean are Japan and several of the Latin-European countries. The highest score was that of Japan (3.98) whose managers are the 'most favourable towards the use of participation', and the lowest are that of Italian managers (3.16). The developing countries are also found to be relatively mildly negative. The Sudanese score (2.41) indicates that our sample can as well be placed among the category of the negative attitude toward this type of managerial practice.

- Managerial Internal Control

This category was concerned with the nature of authority and control in the organization. For this category, as can be seen from Table 6.10 and Figure 6.8, the degree of homogeneity in responses for the 14 countries studied by Haire and his colleagues was even greater than for the previous one concerning participation. The range of means among the 14 countries was only 0.52, suggesting that for this category as for the previous one 'the impact of cultural and industrialization differences was minimal'. Of all 14 countries, only the

Indian score deviated from the grand mean by more than 0.20. The score for our Sudanese sample on this category is 3.01, just above the neutral point of 3, representing a deviation (0.72) from the grand mean of the 14 countries in the Haire **et al** study.



Discussion:        Attitudes and Assumptions Underlying  
                           Management Practices

From the survey we have just made about the attitudes and assumptions underlying the management practices of our Sudanese sample, we can summarize that the managers in our sample deviate in their thinking about their subordinates from the grand mean scores for the managers of the 14 countries in the Haire **et al** study as follows:

TABLE 6.11  
Deviation of Sudanese means from  
Haire **et al** grand means

	Capacity for Leadership & Initiative	Sharing of Information & Objectives	Participation by Subordinates	Self control by Subordinates	Sample
Haire <b>et al</b> means	2.59	3.55	3.54	3.73	3641
Sudan means	2.84	2.94	2.71	3.01	116
Deviations	+ .25	- .61	- 1.13	- .72	-

We have stated earlier the major finding of this part of the Haire **et al** questionnaire: that 'despite the wide variety of cultures represented by the fourteen countries . . . . there was considerable similarity among the managers from these various countries' in the relatively negative view they held about their subordinates' capacities for initiative and leadership (the U.S.A. being the exception), while at the same time displaying relatively positive thinking concerning the sharing of information with them and advocating that the best methods of leadership are the democratic-participative methods.

When we look at the data of the Sudanese case, the situation may seem rather different. We find that the managers in our sample indicate a less negative view of the capacities of their subordinates for leadership and initiative, while at the same time displaying a negative position about the use of participative management approaches and a mildly negative view about sharing information and objectives with their subordinates. As far as self-control is concerned, however, the view of the Sudanese managers about their subordinates is hardly above the neutral point.

Considered in isolation from other cases, the Sudan means regarding all areas of attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices can generally be regarded close to the point of neutrality except in relation to the area of participation where the mean is found to be much lower than the neutral point i.e. the managers of our sample, as previously noted, display negative attitudes towards using participative management approaches.

However, viewed against the grand means of the managers in the Haire **et al** study, the Sudan figures show considerable deviations, especially in the areas of participation by subordinates, views of subordinates' capacity for self-control and the sharing of information and objectives.

When compared with the data for the three developing countries (Argentina, Chile, India), the pattern for our Sudanese managers does not emerge so distinctively. But the area where they tend to deviate significantly from their counterparts in the developing countries of Haire **et al** study, is again the participation category. We recall that the Sudan figures also show a considerable deviation in this area



when viewed against the grand mean of the managers in the Haire et al sample. Now, if we look at these two comparisons together, we will find that the deviation of Sudanese managers from the mean of developing countries (- .92) is obviously less than their deviation (- 1.13) from the grand mean of all 14 countries, and this clearly indicates that Sudanese managers are much closer to managers of developing countries than to all managers of Haire et al sample in as far as the attitude toward the democratic-participative methods in management, is concerned

#### **6.4 Data Concerning Managerial Motivations and Satisfaction**

Part 3 of our questionnaire (based on the Haire et al original) was intended to obtain data about 'managers' perceptions of their need fulfilment, their satisfactions, and the importance they attach to different kinds of needs'. In their study Haire and his colleagues adopted the Maslow classification system with some slight modifications (they dropped the questions about biological needs and divided Maslow's Esteem category into Esteem and Autonomy) so that they ended up investigating five types of needs. Therefore the hierarchy of needs reflected in the questionnaire is: Security, Social, Esteem, Autonomy, and Self-Actualization. Under each of these headings specific questionnaire items were used to measure these needs. The need categories and their specific items are as follows:

##### Security

- . The feeling of security in my management position

##### Social

- . The opportunity, in my management position, to give help to other people
- . The opportunity to develop close friendships in my management position



## Esteem

- . The feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in my management position.
- . The prestige of my management position outside the company (that is, the regard from others not in the company).

## Autonomy

- . The authority connected with my management position
- . The opportunity for independent thought and action in my management position.

## Self-Actualization

- . The opportunity for personal growth and development in my management position.
- . The feeling of self-fulfilment a person gets from being in my management position (that is, the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities, realizing one's own potentialities).
- . The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in my management position.

These items were arranged at random in the questionnaire rather than in a theoretical order. For each of these 11 items, the respondent was asked to indicate his response on 7-point rating scales:

- (a) the level of the characteristic connected with his management position at present;
- (b) the level of the characteristic which he felt should be connected with his management position; and
- (c) the importance to him of that characteristic in his management position.

As we mentioned earlier a check of 1 on the scale indicated a minimum amount and a check of 7 a maximum amount. To measure fulfilment, we used the response to question (a) for each of the 11 items, and to measure the satisfaction with the current fulfilment of a felt

need for a particular characteristic, we used the response to question (b), minus the response to question (a) for each of the 11 items. All of our results, however, will be presented, following the Haire **et al** method in terms of the five categories of needs rather than in terms of the 11 specific items used to measure the categories.

As we have done in the previous section of this chapter, we first indicate the scores of the Sudanese sample of managers and then the scores are superimposed on the Haire **et al** data.

### Need Fulfilment

Haire and his colleagues pointed out (1966 : 79-91), that in this part of the questionnaire, to measure the degree of fulfilment of a certain need, they asked the question 'How much are you getting from your job?'

Table 6.12 shows the scores recorded by our Sudanese sample on this dimension.

TABLE 6.12  
Need Fulfilment : Sudanese Managers (Raw Score)  
(N = 116)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-Actu- alization
Sudanese Managers	4.17	4.36	4.20	3.83	4.02

Higher values indicate greater need fulfilment.

Table 6.13 presents the results for the individual groups of countries and for individual countries in terms of the mean raw scores for each of the five categories of needs and the scores recorded by our Sudanese sample of managers as well.

Haire and his colleagues noted that there was a rather small difference in the degree of fulfilment from one need to the other. The managers in their sample registered a high degree of fulfilment (5.38) in respect of security needs and about the same level in the Esteem (5.06), Autonomy (5.03) and Self-Actualization (5.05) needs. 'That is, managers in general regard their jobs as providing about the same degree of Self-Actualization needs as, for example, Esteem or Autonomy needs'. Security, the most basic need studied, is seen as relatively more highly fulfilled compared to higher-order or less basic needs, while the next most basic type of need, Social, is seen as less well fulfilled than the higher-order needs. This, then, led Haire and his colleagues to comment that '... there does not appear to be any direct relationship between the position of a need in the hierarchical system indicated by theory and its position in a ranking of the needs by degree of fulfilment'.

Another point emphasized by Haire **et al** concerning fulfilment of the various needs across all countries in their sample is that managers generally recorded a high degree of fulfilment. All scores for all countries were above 4.0, which is considered the midpoint of the 7-point rating scale.



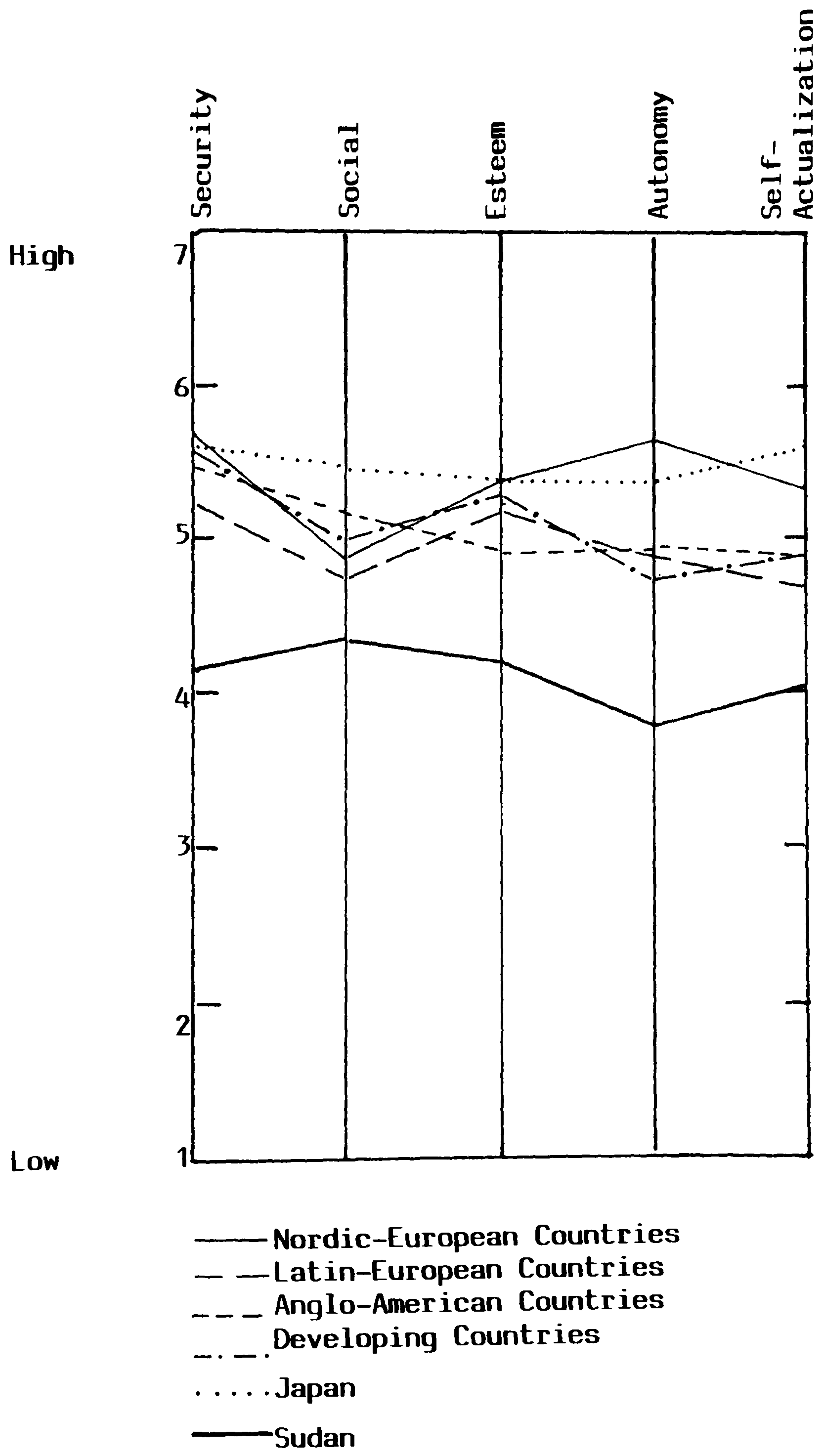
TABLE 6.13

Need fulfilment : Haire et al Sample  
and Sudanese Sample (Raw scores)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-actual- ization	No.of cases
Nordic-European Countries						
Denmark	5.51	4.56	4.58	5.45	5.43	149
Germany	5.48	4.27	5.23	5.32	5.22	586
Norway	5.53	4.79	5.17	5.44	5.29	221
Sweden	5.57	5.06	5.33	5.61	5.39	342
Average	5.52	4.67	5.15	5.45	5.33	
Latin-European Countries						
Belgium	5.23	4.58	5.05	5.07	5.04	378
France	4.99	4.40	4.89	4.90	4.95	154
Italy	5.16	4.31	4.94	4.52	4.41	267
Spain	5.18	4.70	5.17	4.89	4.82	203
Average	5.14	4.49	5.01	4.84	4.80	
Anglo-American Countries						
England	5.53	4.92	4.85	5.01	4.97	239
United States	5.25	5.11	4.81	4.80	4.96	464
Average	5.39	5.01	4.83	4.90	4.96	
Developing Countries						
Argentina	5.50	5.08	5.43	4.95	5.07	198
Chile	5.28	4.83	5.22	4.81	5.06	159
India	5.67	4.50	4.72	4.46	4.67	114
Average	5.48	4.80	5.12	4.74	4.93	
Japan	5.50	5.10	5.17	5.26	5.54	165
All Managers (Haire <b>et al</b> )	5.38	4.72	5.06	5.03	5.05	
Sudan	<b>4.17</b>	<b>4.36</b>	<b>4.20</b>	<b>3.83</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>116</b>

Higher values indicate greater need fulfilment

FIGURE 6.9 : NEED FULFILMENT : BY CLUSTERS OF COUNTRIES  
(RAW SCORES. (HAIRE ET AL - 1966 - MODIFIED.



The profile for our sample of Sudanese managers is distinctly different from the Haire **et al** sample of managers of the 14 countries. Regarding the fulfilment of the security needs, Sudan's score (4.17) is obviously lower than any in the Haire **et al** sample, and lower than the mean figure for all the managers of the 14 countries collectively (5.38). It is also lower than the scores of the three developing nations in the Haire **et al** study: Argentina (5.50), Chile (5.28), India (5.67). The same pattern holds in respect of Esteem needs: Sudan (4.20), all managers in the Haire **et al** study (5.06). Autonomy needs: Sudan (3.83), all managers (5.03); and Self-Actualization needs: Sudan (4.02), all managers (5.05). A similar picture also emerges regarding the Social needs: Sudan (4.36), all managers (4.72) with the exception of Germany (4.27) and Italy (4.31). As Table 6.13 indicates the level of need fulfilment among our Sudanese sample of managers was lower than for those in the fourteen countries studied by Haire and his colleagues. The only category of needs where the Sudanese managers recorded a relatively closer level of fulfilment (4.36) to the Haire **et al** grand mean (4.72) is the social needs dimension.

#### Need Satisfaction

Haire **et al** note that the dependent attitude variable of need satisfaction would appear to be the most crucial of the three measures in terms of its motivational implications. They observe that 'it is not how much of something we get which influences our behaviour as much as it is what we think about what we get'. It has been mentioned earlier that the degree of satisfaction of a certain need could be



measured by the difference between the perceived fulfilment and the perceived expectation of fulfilment. It is this perception of the degree to which the manager's expectations are currently being met which is likely to influence his behaviour at work. Using the above mentioned way we arrived at the scores concerning our Sudanese managers which are summarized in Table 6.14 below:

TABLE 6.14

Need Satisfaction : Sudanese Managers (Raw Scores)

(N = 116)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-Actualization
Sudanese Managers	2.04	1.55	1.27	1.49	1.72

Higher values indicate greater dissatisfaction

Table 6.15 and Figure 6.10 present the relevant raw score data for clusters of countries and for the individual countries of the Haire et al sample of 14 countries studied as well as the superimposed data of our Sudanese sample summarized above. A clear fact that emerges from the bottom row of Table 6.15 is that the three lower-order needs of Security, Social and Esteem are better satisfied than are the two higher-order needs of Autonomy and Self-Actualization. Thus Haire and his colleagues observed that 'this fact indicates, therefore, that there is some relationship between the position of a need in the theoretical hierarchy and the degree to which it is seen as being satisfied in the job' (1966-88). That means Maslow's theory is

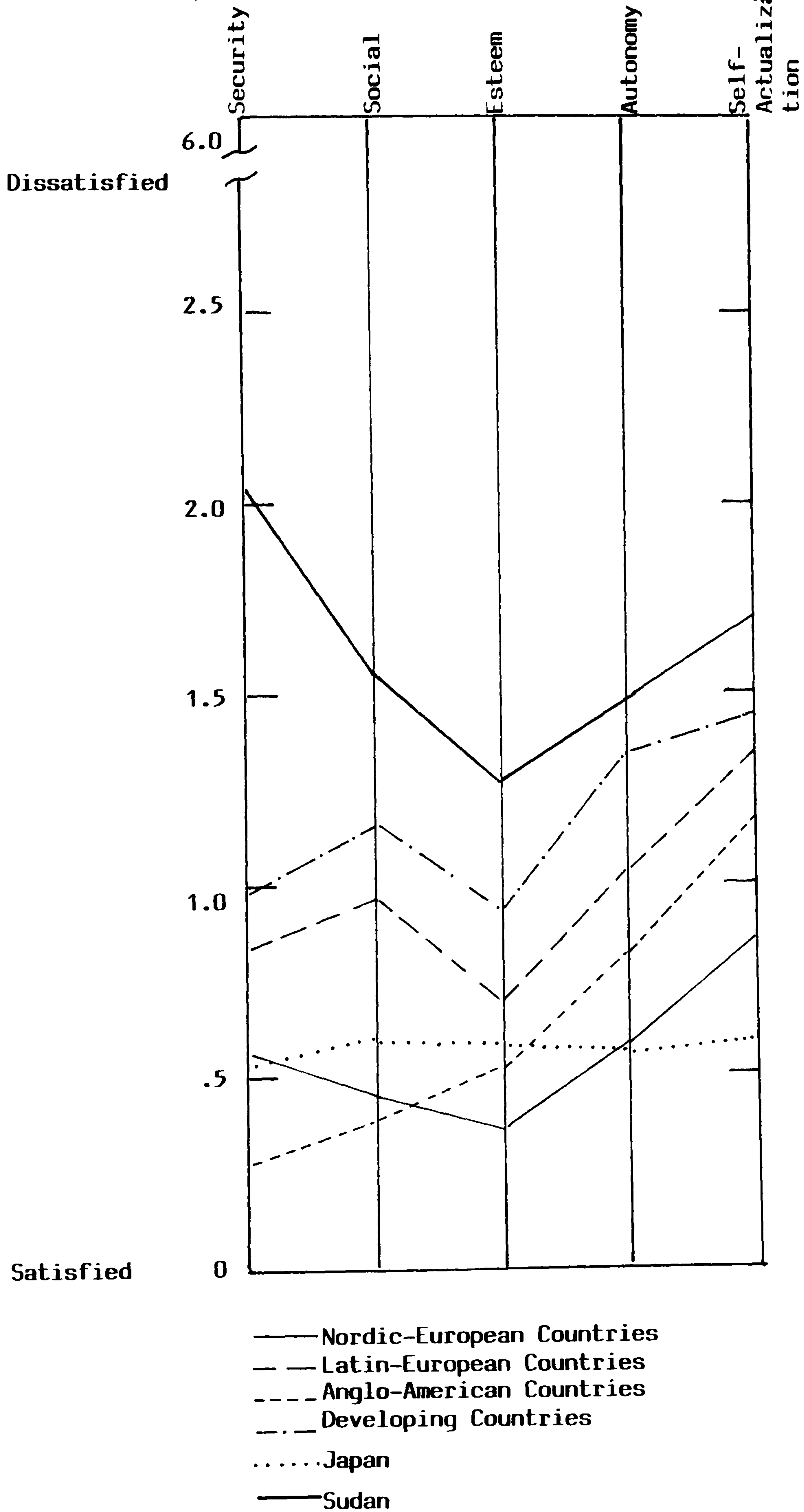
TABLE 6.15  
 Need Satisfaction : Haire **et al** Sample  
 and Sudanese Sample (Raw scores)  
 (Haire **et al** - 1966 - modified)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-actual- ization	No. of cases
Nordic-European Countries						
Denmark	.60	.57	.32	.58	.75	149
Germany	.77	.52	.62	.86	1.02	586
Norway	.57	.41	.32	.40	.87	221
Sweden	.33	.40	.20	.48	.79	342
Average	.57	.47	.36	.58	.86	
Latin-European Countries						
Belgium	.80	.84	.45	.79	1.15	378
France	.64	.98	.63	1.06	1.34	154
Italy	.79	.83	.84	1.12	1.46	267
Spain	1.08	1.26	.85	1.19	1.40	203
Average	.83	.98	.69	1.04	1.34	
Anglo-American Countries						
England	.29	.37	.42	.69	1.14	239
United States	.29	.38	.60	.93	1.20	464
Average	.29	.38	.51	.81	1.17	
Developing Countries						
Argentina	1.15	1.18	.89	1.34	1.51	198
Chile	1.10	1.14	.81	1.13	1.25	159
India	.72	1.19	1.12	1.52	1.57	114
Average	.99	1.17	.94	1.33	1.44	
Japan	.52	.59	.56	.55	.58	165
All Managers (Haire <b>et al</b> )	.69	.76	.62	.90	1.14	
Sudan	<b>2.04</b>	<b>1.55</b>	<b>1.27</b>	<b>1.49</b>	<b>1.72</b>	<b>116</b>

Higher values indicate greater dissatisfaction

**FIGURE 6.10**

**Need Satisfaction : By clusters of Countries  
(Raw scores). (Haire et al - 1966 modified)**





largely supported here in that 'in general, the more the basic the need, the better it is satisfied in the management job, as the theory might predict'. Esteem is, however, the only need which is not consistent with the theoretical hierarchy since it is seen as being better satisfied than the two lower-order needs. Table 6.15 indicates that the managers in the three developing countries in the Haire et al study expressed the greater level of dissatisfaction compared to the grand mean of all managers of the 14 countries especially in the areas of Self-Actualization (1.44) and Autonomy (1.33), the Indian managers reflecting the most dissatisfaction of any individual country: 1.58 for Self-Actualization needs and 1.52 for Autonomy needs. Haire and his colleagues comment that the managers from these three countries together with those of the Southern European countries, to some extent, 'are reasonably well fulfilled in their needs but . . . not very satisfied with their degree of fulfilment'. Thus they assume that these managers may be demonstrating 'unrealistically' high expectations. Scores of the Sudanese sample again show a distinctive profile. In comparison to Haire et al's fourteen countries, the Sudanese managers expressed the highest degree of dissatisfaction in all areas: Security needs (2.04), Social needs (1.55), Esteem needs (1.27), Autonomy needs (1.49), and Self-Actualization needs (1.72). These scores are higher than those for any country or group of countries in the Haire et al study, that is no country in the sample of Haire et al study registered lower levels of dissatisfaction in the area of security (0.99), but the Sudanese score (2.04) represents even a much higher level of dissatisfaction. This also applies to the other areas of needs though at a lesser degree.

In general terms, as Haire and his colleagues note, the result of their study tended to go in line with Maslow's theory of the hierarchy of human needs, especially the scores of the Anglo-American pair of countries i.e. managers from Britain and America are most satisfied in the most basic needs: Security (0.29), Social (0.38), Esteem (0.51) and so on up to the least basic need of Self-Actualization which represents the least satisfied need for them (1.17). The Sudanese managers, by contrast were most dissatisfied in the need area of Security (2.04) and then the Self-Actualization (1.72), registering in both areas higher scores than the Haire et al grand mean. However, the Sudan scores indicate a noticeable pattern that they tend to be closer to the three developing countries than to other clusters.

#### Need Importance

Turning back to the last row in Table 6.15, which gives the mean satisfaction of the five types of needs across all countries, Haire and his colleagues observe that '... there is a fairly close relationship between the importance of a need and the degree to which it is dissatisfied... it seems clear that there is a fairly strong, if by no means perfect, tendency for the perceived importance of needs and the perceived degree of dissatisfaction to vary together'. It seems natural to assume that when a particular need is not fulfilled to the degree of the individual's expectation, then that need will tend to assume greater importance than a need which is relatively well satisfied. The scores for our Sudanese sample concerning this dimension, are indicated in Table 6.16 below.



TABLE 6.16  
Need Importance : Sudanese Managers (Raw Scores)  
(N = 116)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-Actualization
Sudanese Managers	5.84	5.50	5.50	5.77	6.05

Higher values indicate greater importance.

It can be seen from Table 6.17, when we compare one need with another in terms of its importance to the total sample of managers, that the five types of needs are not seen as of equal importance. In the Haire **et al** study it is evident that the most important of the needs studied was the Self-Actualization need, followed by Autonomy, Security, Social and Esteem. Again if we turn back to Table 6.17 about the mean satisfaction of the five types of needs, we will realize that the Self-Actualization heads the list as well; that means Self-Actualization needs are seen as the most important and the least satisfied type of needs. Autonomy needs are seen as the second most important needs and, clearly, the second least satisfied needs.

From Table 6.18 it can be seen that Haire and his colleagues are justified to observe the degree of correlation between need importance and dissatisfaction as far as the figures for all the managers in their study are concerned.

The correlation between need importance and dissatisfaction is clearly evident in terms of Self-Actualization, Autonomy and Esteem needs, with Security and Social needs closely, if not perfectly, related. Taking the Anglo-American pair of countries, we find correlation in the areas of Self-Actualization, Autonomy and Social needs.



TABLE 6.17

Need Importance : Haire **et al** Sample  
and Sudanese Sample (Raw scores)

	Security	Social	Esteem	Autonomy	Self-actual- ization	No.of cases
Nordic-European Countries						
Denmark	5.53	4.96	4.50	5.65	6.00	149
Germany	6.04	4.66	5.28	5.96	6.19	586
Norway	4.80	4.93	4.76	5.54	6.05	221
Sweden	5.52	5.19	4.85	5.96	6.10	342
Average	5.47	4.93	4.89	5.77	6.08	
Latin-European Countries						
Belgium	5.70	5.32	4.95	5.87	6.24	378
France	5.22	5.08	4.83	5.83	6.35	154
Italy	5.68	5.18	5.73	5.72	6.17	267
Spain	6.07	5.86	5.58	5.86	6.13	203
Average	5.66	5.36	5.27	5.82	6.11	
Anglo-American Countries						
England	5.56	5.08	4.89	5.88	6.23	239
United States	5.30	5.37	5.09	5.80	6.30	464
Average	5.43	5.22	4.99	5.84	6.26	
Developing Countries						
Argentina	6.49	6.18	6.15	6.36	6.59	198
Chile	6.31	5.94	5.97	6.10	6.48	159
India	6.42	5.66	5.82	6.16	6.37	114
Average	6.40	5.92	5.98	6.20	6.48	
Japan	5.81	5.83	5.23	5.99	6.30	165
All Managers (Haire <b>et al</b> )	5.74	5.37	5.23	5.90	6.25	
Sudan	<b>5.84</b>	<b>5.50</b>	<b>5.50</b>	<b>5.77</b>	<b>6.05</b>	<b>116</b>

Higher values indicate greater importance

FIGURE 6.11.

Need Importance : By clusters of Countries  
(Raw Scores). (Haire et al - 1966 - modified)

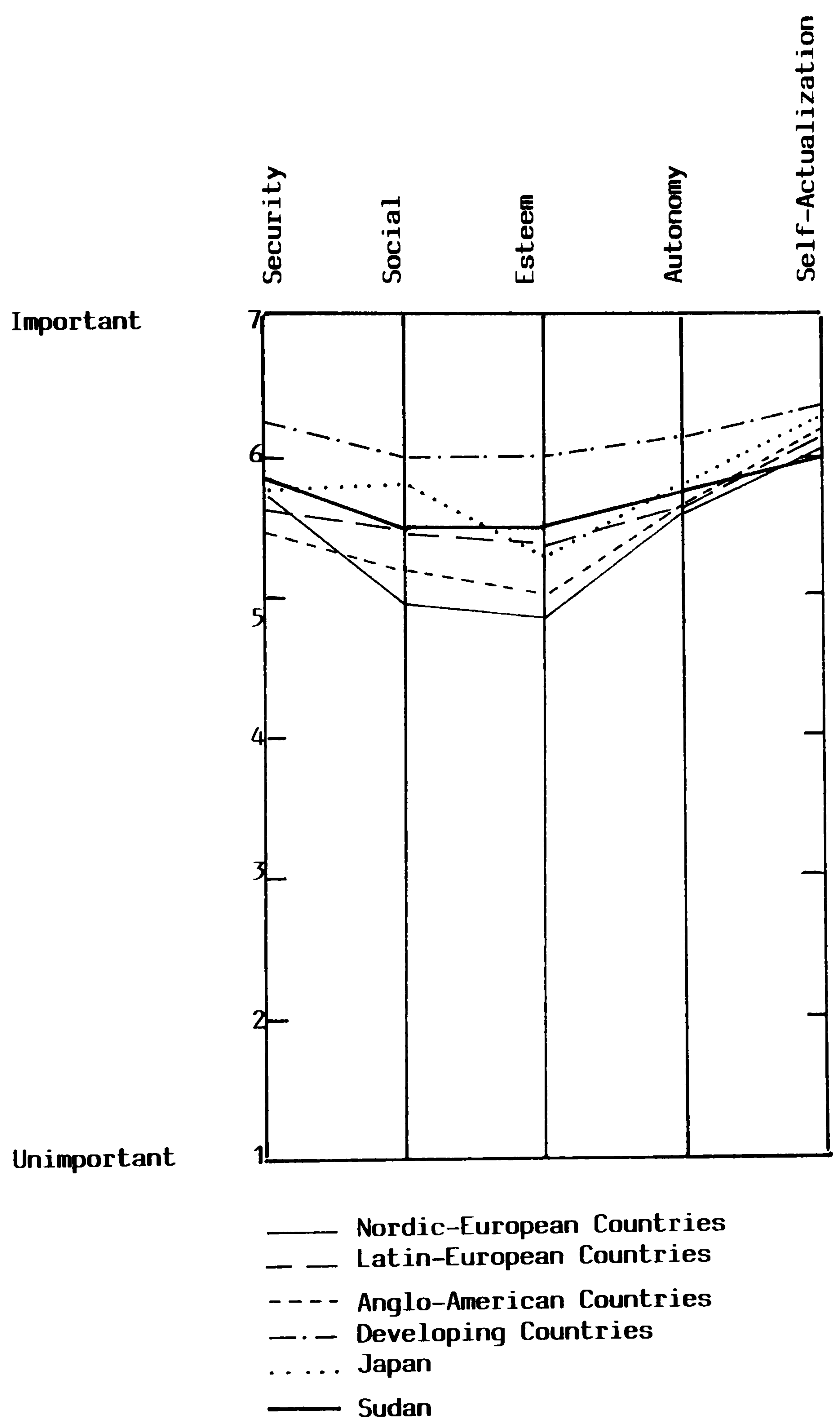


TABLE 6.18

Comparative Ranking of Need Importance and Dissatisfaction

		1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
All Managers (Haire et al) (14)	Importance Dissatisfaction	Self-Act. Self-Act.	Autonomy Autonomy	Security Social	Social Security	Esteem Esteem
Anglo-American (2)	Importance Dissatisfaction	Self-Act. Self-Act.	Autonomy Autonomy	Security Esteem	Social Social	Esteem Security
Developing Countries (3)	Importance Dissatisfaction	Self-Act. Self-Act.	Security Autonomy	Autonomy Social	Esteem Security	Social Esteem
India	Importance Dissatisfaction	Security Self-Act.	Self-Act. Autonomy	Autonomy Social	Esteem Security	Social Esteem
Sudan	Importance Dissatisfaction	<b>Self-Act.</b> <b>Security</b>	<b>Security</b> <b>Self-Act.</b>	<b>Autonomy</b> <b>Social</b>	<b>Social/ Esteem</b> <b>Autonomy</b>	<b>Esteem</b>



In the case of the three Developing countries, however, we find only one correlation: Self-Actualization needs are recorded as the most important and the least satisfied.

In the Indian scores there seems to be no direct correlation between importance and dissatisfaction of any need, though Self-Actualization is registered as the least satisfied area of needs, followed by Autonomy needs. Sudan data also did not reflect any correlation between importance and dissatisfaction of needs. However, the area of Self-Actualization needs is recorded as the most important of all needs to Sudanese managers. This is in conformity with the pattern of all managers of the 14 countries studied by Haire and his colleagues, where they noticed that for managers in general, for the Anglo-American managers, and for the Developing Countries managers, Self-Actualization needs are the most important and least satisfied. Autonomy is for all managers, and the Anglo-American pair the second most important and least satisfied. For the Developing Countries, Autonomy is the third most important and second least satisfied and for Sudan it is also the third most important but fourth least satisfied. A noticeable factor revealed by the score (see Table 6.18) is that the Sudan ranking of needs in terms of importance is following the Developing countries pattern. Haire and his colleagues note that the Developing countries managers in their study registered the highest scores for all five needs. This is indicated in Table 6.17. The Sudan scores in general follow a similar pattern, though at a slightly lower level, as reflected in Table 6.17, with the exception of the Autonomy and Self-Actualization needs.

Discussion : Managerial Motivation and Satisfaction

As mentioned earlier, this part of the questionnaire was geared to obtain information concerning managers' perceptions of their needs at work in three related areas:

- a. the degree of fulfilment;
- b. the level of satisfaction;
- c. the degree of the importance of needs.

The relationship between these categories is illustrated in Table 6.19, where the data of the Sudanese managers have been incorporated in the original table of Haire et al study.

TABLE 6.19

Comparison of Difference Among Clusters  
of Countries (Haire et al - 1966-modified)

COUNTRIES	Fulfilment	Satisfaction	Importance
Nordic-European	High	High	Low
Latin-European	Low	Low	Medium
Anglo-American	Medium-Low	Medium-High	Medium-Low
Developing Countries	Medium	Very Low	High
Japan	High	Medium-High	Medium-High
Sudan	Low	Very Low	High

Haire and his colleagues note that it is evident from Table 6.19 that managers in the Nordic-European countries 'find themselves relatively well off, compared to managers from any other group of countries'; their needs are both highly fulfilled and satisfied, and generally the importance of these needs is reported as relatively low. The same practice seems to hold for Japan. That means 'the job environment is, by and large, living up to expectations'.



As concerning British and American managers, it can be said from an overall point of view that they are neither highly satisfied nor highly dissatisfied and that the importance they attach to the various needs is about average.

The other two groups of countries (the Latin-European and the Developing Countries) are clearly different from the previously mentioned groups of countries. The managers of both groups report low to quite low satisfaction, and attach moderate to high importance to the various needs. However, these two groups differ primarily from each other in the degree of fulfilment of needs. 'Somewhat surprisingly, the developing country managers report about average fulfilment (relatively speaking, compared to all countries) whereas the Latin-European managers indicate low need fulfilment as well as low satisfaction.' Thus, it appears that the reason for the managers in the Developing countries reporting low satisfaction is different from that for their counterparts in the Latin-European countries. Haire et al note that the managers in the Developing countries they studied (Argentina, Chile, India) generally -

report low to quite low satisfaction and attach moderate to high importance to the various needs . . . seem to be receiving fairly adequate need fulfilment but they are dissatisfied with this degree of fulfilment because of exceptionally high expectations. In fact one might say their expectations are unrealistic, since in many instances they exceed the expectations of managers in much more economically-developed countries.

The profile of the Sudanese managers is most similar to that of their counterparts in the three Developing countries. They apparently attach a relatively high degree of importance to their needs at work and they express a very low level of satisfaction of these needs,



though the above stated comment does not quite apply to the case of Sudan where its managers, like the Latin-European managers, perceive their level of fulfilment of their needs somewhat lower than do others in the survey.

#### **6.5.1 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (The Questionnaire)**

As mentioned in Chapter 5, we included in our questionnaire a Part 4, which was an addition to the original Haire **et al** instrument. The aim of this part was to give respondents an opportunity to reflect on their own experience as managers and to record some of their feelings to ascertain whether any themes or consistencies would appear which might illuminate the data surveyed above. The managers were asked about the important aspects of the managerial job, the best and worst things of being a manager, how they would describe the job of a manager and how respondents had learned to be managers.

In the first question a list of 30 activities was given. Respondents were asked to indicate with an **X** the five activities which they felt are most important in the work of a manager.

It can be seen from Table 6.20 that Planning was the most commonly selected function (89), followed by Deciding (63), Problem solving (47), Leading (38) and in fifth place came both Organizing and Setting objectives (35). The least mentioned functions were checking on subordinates (3), Adjusting and integrating (3), Mediating in disputes (2), Bargaining (1), and Explaining to subordinates (1). As indicated earlier (Chapter 2) there is no one set of functions of managing and yet it is generally acknowledged there are certain basic ones which managers universally perform regardless of their level in the hierarchy. However, the time and effort involved in each of these functions will depend on the management level (see Figure 2.2). If

TABLE 6.20

Most Important Activities in the Work of a Manager

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Times Mentioned</u>
Planning	89
Deciding	63
Problem Solving	47
Leading	38
Organizing	35
Setting objectives	35
Communicating	27
Delegating Authorities	25
Coordinating	25
Controlling subordinates	22
Forecasting	18
Analysing	17
Evaluating	15
Training subordinates	13
Disciplining subordinates	13
Directing subordinates	13
Innovating	12
Motivating subordinates	10
Helping subordinates	9
Obtaining and Developing Personnel	6
Advising superiors	5
Obtaining finance	5
Supervising subordinates	4
Reporting to superiors	4
Checking on subordinates	3
Adjusting and integrating	3
Mediating in disputes	2
Bargaining	1
Explaining to subordinates	1

we look at the scores registered by the Sudanese sample of managers for the commonly acknowledged functions of the manager we find: Planning (89), Organization (35), Staffing (6), Directing (13) and Controlling (22). The question focusing on the ways managers had learned to be managers asked the respondents to select from a list of 13 ways the five which they had found most effective in their development as managers. Table 6.21 shows that the top five learning methods selected by our Sudanese managers as the most effective were Learning by doing (99), Discussing with colleagues about real problems (78), Analysing successes and failures (77), Observing effective managers in the Organization (63), and Case studies (51). Formal learning methods mentioned included Reading Management theories (48), Listening to a lecture or talk (32), and Management/business games (10). However, our data revealed also that seven of the respondents mentioned, among the most effective ways of learning to be a manager, that they were 'born managers'.

The managers were asked to describe the job of a manager by writing five objectives which in their experience most appropriately described the job. Some objectives were presented as examples. Table 6.22 indicates the managers' responses. It can be seen that the most popular choices were Challenging (74), Important (67), Influential (57), Demanding (45), Rewarding (39), and Authoritarian (39). Other adjectives not provided in the questionnaire but were mentioned by respondents were Creative (1), Exhaustive (1) and Helpful (1). Of the adjectives which were mentioned more frequently, six times or more, 6 could generally be said to have positive implications for the manager (these are Challenging, Important, Influential, Rewarding, Authoritarian and Prestigious); another 6 might be seen as negative (they are Demanding, Critical, Risky, Frustrating, Boring and Lonely).



TABLE 6.21  
Most Effective Learning Methods in  
Development as a Manager

<u>Ways of Learning</u>	<u>Times Mentioned</u>
Learning by doing	99
Discussing with colleagues about real problems	78
Analysing successes and failures	77
Observing effective managers in the organization	63
Case studies	51
Reading Management Theories	48
Training by boss	44
Listening to a lecture or talk	32
Observing and reading about famous leaders	17
Management/business games (simulation)	10
Born Manager	7
Reading Novels	6
Others	6

TABLE 6.22  
Adjectives which most accurately describe  
the Management Job

<u>Adjectives</u>	<u>Times Mentioned</u>
Challenging	74
Important	67
Influential	57
Demanding	45
Rewarding	39
Authoritarian	39
Critical	35
Risky	33
Prestigious	31
Frustrating	14
Boring	12
Lonely	6
Creative	1
Decisive	1
Remarkable	1
Exhaustive	1
Interesting	1
Unstable	1
Exciting	1

The respondents were also requested to reflect on their experience as managers and asked to write very briefly (a) the best thing about being a manager, and (b) the worst thing about being a manager. It can be seen from Table 6.23 that Power and Authority came at the top of the best things about being a manager (30), followed by the Sense of Achievement (29), Ability to decide (25), Freedom of Action/Self-Actualization (25), and opportunity for Self-Expression (22). Table 6.24, on the other hand, illustrates that Sudanese managers regarded Accountability for all failures and shortcomings as the worst thing about being a manager (35), followed by Being subject to unfair criticism and misjudgement (25), . . . and Having to accept responsibility for decisions (20). These scores revealed that while the managers enjoy the power and authority connected to their position, the sense of achievement, the ability to decide and the freedom to act etc., they are, on the other hand, not prepared to be accountable for the results of using this power and authority or to be blamed for the failures attributed to their decisions.

As previously mentioned, when respondents were asked to write the best and worst things about being a manager, they were left to express their opinions freely and no attempt was made to direct their responses into any predetermined pattern. However, most of their answers appeared to have some correlation to the Hierarchy of needs. Thus, another way of looking at the managers' responses to this question is by classifying them according to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs - used in the original questionnaire of Haire et al - as illustrated in Table 6.25.



TABLE 6.23  
The Best Thing about being a Manager

Power and Authority	30
Sense of achievement	29
Ability to decide	25
Freedom for action/opportunity for self- actualization/and fulfilment	25
Opportunity for Self-expression	22
Setting/realizing objectives	20
Creativity and initiative	20
Being one's own boss	19
Opportunity to integrate resources/ efforts/action	15
Opportunity to prove oneself in leadership	13
Feeling of responsibility	12
Ability to encourage/help others	9
Status and privileged position	9
Opportunity to gain knowledge, more experience and develop one's career	7

TABLE 6.24  
The Worst Thing about Being a Manager

Accountability for all failures and shortcomings	35
Being subject to unfair criticism and misjudgement	25
Inability to get along with the job because of external factors	22
Responsibility without adequate authority or sufficient resources	20
Having to accept responsibility for decisions	20
Physical and mental strain	19
Excessive demands and lack of leisure time	18
Losing control and influence over subordinates	17
Making unpleasant decisions such as disciplining employees	15
Insecurity and Risk	13
Getting frustrated when knowing the right action that should be taken but not having the authority	13
Misbelief by others that the manager has unlimited powers to solve all problems	11
Being overruled by superiors for no convincing reasons	10
Not being able to satisfy all subordinates	10
Having to deal with matters unrelated to work	9
Unpopularity when the job is objectively done	9
Dealing with trivial problems when everything is raised to the manager	8
Facing endless problems	8
Inability to discipline employees due to inadequate laws and regulations	5

TABLE 6.25  
Classification of the Best and Worst Aspects of  
Managerial Job in Relation to Need Hierarchy

NEEDS	Best (+) and Worst (-) Things of Being a Manager
Self-actualization	Sense of Achievement (+) Freedom of Action/opportunity for Self-actualization/fulfilment (+) Opportunity for Self-expression (+) Setting/Realizing objectives (+) Creativity and Initiative (+) Opportunity to develop one's career (+) Opportunity to prove oneself in Leadership (+)
Autonomy	Power and Authority (+) Ability to decide (+) Not having adequate authority (-) Losing control over subordinates (-) Being overruled by superiors (-) Inability to discipline employees(-)
Esteem	Being one's own boss (+) Status and privileged position (+)
Social	Ability to encourage/help others (+) Making unpleasant decisions (disciplining employees) (-) Lack of leisure time (-) Unpopularity (-) Inability to satisfy all subordinates (-)
Security	Accountability for failures and shortcomings(-) Being subject to unfair criticism and misjudgement (-) Having to accept responsibility for decisions (-) Insecurity and Risk (-)



### 6.5.2 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking: (The Interview)

It was mentioned earlier that setting the interview questions was, of course, guided by the focus of our research questionnaire and thus, some of the questions were similar to those which appeared in the questionnaire. A major difference, however, was that respondents were free in the interview to express their feelings in depth about particular aspects of their jobs.

Within the broad framework of the semi-structured format, the interview generally took the form of a relaxed, informal conversation lasting about 30-40 minutes on average. The degree of the managers' frankness varied considerably; some managers were so open and expansive and talked at length while others confined themselves more strictly to the boundaries of the interview questions.

Responses to some of the interview aspects have already been presented, combined with answers to the relevant questions of the questionnaire, to support discussion in the preceding sections of this chapter and, therefore, they will not be reproduced here. Yet in this section it is only intended to present and discuss the findings about particular aspects of the interview which, we suggest, have more relevance to managerial thinking and in which the respondents themselves have shown special interest.

The aspects are:

- (i) Relationships of managers with immediate superiors;
- (ii) Strong or good points giving sense of satisfaction or pride in organization.  
Weak or bad points giving sense of dissatisfaction or disappointment in organization.
- (iii) Feeling about working under supervision of national supervisor or expatriate.

Themes (i) and (ii) were basically intended in order to elaborate the data from the major sections of the questionnaire and obtain a sense of the climate of the organization. The selection of theme (iii) has just been timely; mounting debate was going on about the Sudan Government's intention to hire foreign expatriates to look after the sugar projects rehabilitation programme and ultimately take over full management of the newly formed companies. This intention was unmistakably met, to say the least, with discontent from employees of the sugar factories particularly the managers. Thus this situation was seen to provide opportunities for the managers to express their feelings about this controversial aspect.

(i) Relationships of Managers with immediate Superiors:

From Table 6.26 below, it is apparent that the majority of managers across all organizations generally expressed satisfaction with their relationships with their immediate boss. There were actually very few managers who described their relationships with their superiors as very bad or bad. However, almost every manager in the sample mentioned some sort of problem either regarding relationships with more senior managers or about conduct of top management in general which caused a sort of dissatisfaction to them. Among the most commonly mentioned complaints are the following:

- Superior being arrogant and too bossy.
- Boss overruling subordinates.
- Boss bypassing subordinates dealing directly with lower level staff.
- Boss disregarding subordinate's opinions.
- Top executives not applying rules consistently.
- Top managers and bosses favour their friends in organization.
- Top management not interested in new ideas from subordinates.



TABLE 6.26  
Relationships of Managers with immediate superiors

Organizations	Very good/ good	Average	Very bad /bad	Undecided
H.Q. (co-ordinating office)	58.3%	41.7%	0%	0%
Guneid	72.7	22.7	4.5	0
New Halfa	77.3	18.2	4.5	0
Sennar	59.1	31.8	9.1	0
Assalaya	70.5	17.6	5.9	0
Kenana	61.9	38.1	0	0
All organizations	67.2	27.6	5.3	0

A number of managers complained that their bosses did not treat them as fellow managers and thus, they claimed, they did not delegate enough authority to them. One respondent who was unhappy with the authoritarian style of his 'insensitive' superior described the situation in his own words as 'school-master style of management'... 'There is no management in the true sense of the word, but there is a group of people who have been put on the top of the organizational hierarchy and they do things as they come to them in a haphazard manner.'

Numerous respondents reflected concerns about what they termed 'political appointments'. They suspected that if this practice is not stopped, incompetent and less entitled personnel may soon find their way to senior executive positions at the expense of their colleagues who are more capable and consequently at the expense of public interest. A considerable number of interviewees also expressed fears that if appointments are based on political affiliation this may have demoralizing effects on the workforce and hence productivity may even



be further reduced.

(ii) Organizational Strong and Weak points:  
(Managers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction)

It will be recalled that in previous sections of this chapter respondents were given opportunities to reflect on the best and worst things about being managers which they personally experienced which gave them satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Respondents' opinions were intended then to relate directly to their job and experiences.

In this section, however, the aim was to give respondents an opportunity to talk about general organizational aspects (strong or weak, good or bad) that might give them satisfaction or dissatisfaction, pride or disappointment in the organization. This did not only give a feeling about the organizational climate and how it was perceived by the managers working within it, but it also reflected respondents' attitudes and managerial thinking.

It is apparent that the list of points presented below are mostly about organizational factors; respondents hardly mentioned things of personal nature. For instance, the team spirit, enthusiasm and determination of the workforce gave the managers great satisfaction and the mere fact, they indicated, that they were working in a national organization producing an important strategic commodity was an important source of pride to them. Their organization's contribution to national development at large either through provision of employment opportunities or other facilities to the community was also a major factor of satisfaction and gave them particular sense of pride in the organization.

Strong or good points giving Managers particular sense of satisfaction or pride in the Organization

- Team spirit, enthusiasm and determination of employees.
- Strategic importance of the product and its significant role in the national economy.
- Good social relationships and friendliness.
- Provision of employment opportunities.
- Provision of facilities and services to the community.
- Raising the standard of living of a large proportion of the country's workforce.
- It has highly qualified and experienced staff.
- Good relationship between management and trade unions.
- It is a well established organization with big investment and a strong financial position.
- Being a national organization.

Weak or bad points giving particular Sense of Dissatisfaction or Disappointment

- Bad organization and planning.
- Lack of consistent management.
- Misuse of resources.
- Lack of identity, clear policy and long term strategy.
- Bad system of information.
- High cost of production.
- Poor industrial relations.
- Insufficient autonomy.
- Political interference.
- Unsatisfactory terms of service.
- Overstaffing and disguised unemployment.
- Unavailability of spare parts.
- Declining rates of production.
- Nepotism.
- Inadequacy of training programmes.
- Automatic promotion to top executive positions.
- Lack of clear incentive scheme.
- Lack of clear job description.
- Too many expatriates.

On the other hand, there were also a lot of factors about which interviewees expressed discontent and disappointment. Almost every respondent mentioned something about bad organization and mal planning. Some complained bitterly about the misuse of resources and lack of awareness about public interest. This, they suggested, could be one of the major causes of the declining rates and high cost of production. Another most commonly quoted concern to many managers was the lack of identity of the organization. They indicated that too much time has lapsed since the factories have been transformed into companies and yet nothing has really changed. They claimed that the process has just remained in paper and no 'serious steps' have been taken to put it into practice. One manager suggested that 'to improve managerial effectiveness the identity of the factories should be clarified and objectives should clearly be stated: either profit-oriented companies or job-providing and charity organizations'.

(iii) Views on National and Expatriate Managers

It was mentioned earlier that the intention by the Government to recruit foreign staff to run the public Industrial Sector has already aroused vigorous discussions and controversy among wide sectors of employees particularly the managers and trade unions.

Interviewees were given opportunities to express their feelings and give opinions about this controversial issue in anticipation that some themes might emerge which could throw light on the managers' sphere and their ways of thinking.



As a direct answer to the question whether respondents would prefer to work under direct supervision of a national supervisor or an expatriate, it can be seen from Table 6.27 that there was relatively near unanimity that managers in principle preferred the national supervisor to the expatriate across all organizations (majorities ranging between 72.7%-86.4% for national supervisor). However, the arguments for or against either national supervisor or expatriate seemed to stem from varied motives and experiences of the respondents (the lists presented below summarize almost all significant arguments mentioned by respondents). For instance, some managers working in Kenana, where there were already many expatriates, previously expressed that 'too many expatriates' was one of the weak and bad points about their organization which gave them a particular sense of dissatisfaction and disappointment. As we have noted earlier the relationship with immediate boss emerged as an important concern of many of our respondents and in a number of cases it was claimed to be a source of dissatisfaction and frustration. Thus when the managers were asked specifically to focus on the issue of expatriates they responded vividly and recorded a large number of strong statements which revealed distinctive interconnected themes.

The first reflected a sense of national pride and integrity. One manager emotionally expressed that, 'when this Nation had its independence more than thirty years ago, when we did not have as many qualified and well trained people as we have today, we did not face any problem when we Sudanized our civil service. Now what is the meaning of independence if after all we are going to import foreigners

TABLE 6.27

Managers' preference to work under expatriate  
or National Supervisor

Organizations	Respondents for	
	Expatriate	N. Supervisor
H.Q. (co-ordinating office)	16.7%	75.0%
Guneid	13.6	86.4
New Halfa	27.3	72.7
Sennar	22.7	77.3
Assalaya	17.6	76.5
Kenana	4.8	85.7
All organizations	17.2	79.3

to get things done for us?' Most interviewees indicated that national supervisors know the local environment better and, therefore, if they are qualified for the job they would be more effective in pursuing national objectives. Those who argued for expatriate effectiveness, on the other hand, stated that they would just be there for certain assignments and they would have nothing to do with the sovereignty of the country. They are time conscious, objective and more professional in handling the mission and their only concern, is getting the job done.' However, this 'favourable' attitude towards expatriates was not without disadvantages according to anti-expatriate respondents. They claimed that expatriates would not care about human relations and 'treat people like machines' once their only concern is getting the job done. Such arguments about expatriates' commitment to organiza-

Arguments for Working under the Supervision of a national Supervisor/  
against expatriate

National supervisor knows local environment better.

Having many things in common with national supervisor.

Mutual understanding to national objectives.

Easy communication with national supervisor.

Acquaintance of national supervisor with social problems and local background.

Sovereignty and national pride.

A matter of trust.

Expatriates not caring about human relations.

National supervisor is relatively more economical; expatriates are too expensive.

National supervisor is more loyal to the organization and the country.

Foreign attitudes and way of thinking are not suitable to local environment.

Expatriates are not necessarily more efficient.

Sudanese supervisors are highly qualified and capable.

Expatriate's only concern is getting the job done.

Expatriates intend to stay longer for their own interest, and therefore they are not keen to train their counterparts.

Expatriates have the illusion that they are more knowledgeable and thus they do not accept other opinions.

Arguments for Expatriates

Opportunity to gain knowledge of advanced methods and techniques.

Expatriates are more organized and time conscious.

Expatriates are more objective.

Expatriates are free of external influence and personal relationships.



tional business-like objectives from one hand and national supervisors' devotion to other demands as well, reflected a socio-cultural factor in the debate. Freedom of expatriates from personal relationships and external influences and their insensitivity to social demands which were considered by some managers as advantages in performing the managerial role, were regarded as disadvantages of expatriates by many other managers who believed that the socio-cultural role of the manager's job is equally important.

Another theme on which interviewees placed much emphasis was the question of communication with expatriates. Though many managers stated that there would be no problem of communication with expatriates as far as they are concerned, they expressed fears that a big barrier would be created between expatriates and the rest of employees and therefore misunderstanding may result.

From the most frequently repeated expression by a number of managers that 'expatriates are not necessarily more qualified or competent', the interviewer was given the impression that the policy of recruiting expatriates was interpreted as an indication of national supervisor's inefficiency. 'This interpretation, right or wrong, has already upset many managers and left its demoralizing effect on them', so did a department manager make his point. This area, it seems, was a two-fold one. Some interviewees, though not directly, expressed worries that the presence of expatriates could threaten their own position and hinder their potential chances in further promotion and career development. Out of such kind of frustration a senior executive suspected that '... no one can convince me with any need for the expertise of these people. The whole matter to me is nothing but surrender to the conditions of foreign aid'.

A self-explanatory remark by a seemingly indifferent supervisor that is worth quoting in conclusion to this section is that:

When one is overwhelmed by the sense of nationalism one should of course say 'yes' to the national manager and 'no' to the expatriate. But what can you do when you are surrounded by frustrated, incompetent and indecisive managers who make you prefer to work with the devil sometimes?

## 6.6 SUMMARY

As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, tentative comments concerning the data will be briefly presented in this final part of the chapter, so that they will be elaborated in the next (and final) chapter of the thesis.

Beside this concluding part, the chapter basically included another five main parts covering data of both questionnaire and interview:

1. The sample
2. The organizational climate of the Sugar Industry.
3. The managerial assumptions of respondents about subordinates and leadership.
4. Managerial motivations and satisfactions.
5. Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (data from questionnaire and interview).

### 1. The Sample:

It was mentioned that a total number of 150 questionnaires were distributed to all persons filling positions at the Top and Middle levels of the organizational structure of both the Headquarter and production units of the Sugar Industry. The usable number of questionnaires was about 77% of the total potential respondents. All respondents happened to be from the male sex, and 47% of the sample were



aged between 35 and 40 years. Their minimum education was secondary level and more than half of them obtained a university degree. The maximum work experience of the majority of the sample did not exceed 15 years and 89% of the managers were in Top Management positions.

## 2. The Organizational Climate of the Sugar Industry:

Organizational climate has become an important theoretical and empirical issue in the study of organizations. A manager can improve the climate and thereby raise the level of motivation and performance within his organizational unit. Forehand and Gilmer (1964) defined organizational climate as '... the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that -

- (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations.
- (b) are relatively enduring overtime, and
- (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organization.

The selected dimensions of organizational climate which have been investigated in this study were; structure, responsibility, identity, and terms of employment.

### Structure:

Data reflected by the tables concerning the 8 statements on the dimension of structure indicated that the managers held different opinions about this issue. However, there was clearly general discontent about the lack of organization and planning, the excessive rules, and administrative details and red tape though managers' degree of dissatisfaction varied from one organization to the other.



### Responsibility

Responses to the statements on this dimension also reflected diversified perceptions throughout the organizations. However, it can be seen from the data that the majority of managers indicated that the policy of the organization encourages employees to take the responsibility of solving their problems themselves, but individuals were not prepared to take the responsibility.

### Identity:

In this dimension the managers reflected more distinct positions than with previous issues, but again managers' perceptions varied across the organizations. While the majority of managers at many organizations were proud of belonging to their organization, some at other organizations did not seem to share this feeling.

### General Descriptions of Organizations:

It seems that most managers did not believe that figures of production alone are appropriate criteria to assess organizations' performance. They combined economic and social factors and, therefore, they indicated that their organizations were successful, productive and efficient.

As far as the style of management was concerned, there were more respondents who described the management of the sugar industry as authoritarian than those who believed it was democratic. However, from the overall figures reflecting responses of the managers, it can be seen that the sugar industry has a friendly atmosphere, good team spirit and enthusiastic workforce.

### Terms of Employment:

Despite the fact that conditions of service were supposed to be identical across the sugar organizations, the managers expressed different feelings about them. Those who had favourable attitudes, it seems, were not too concerned about material benefits. This was revealed by the responses to the question of why managers would or would not leave their present organization if they were offered another job where the terms of employment are much better than at present organization. The data indicated that in either case the economical motive was not the strongest. The job satisfaction and future certainty were the major concern.

### 3. Managerial Assumption of Managers about Subordinates and Leadership

It was mentioned that the questionnaire was designed to explore the respondents' managerial thinking concerning the abilities of their subordinates and appropriate styles of leadership. Rationale of this part is that managers manage according to their assumptions about human nature. The classic work of McGregor's managerial assumptions (Theory X and Theory Y) was taken as the basis for this part which consisted of 8 statements about the relationship between the leader and his subordinates, covering four distinct areas between the traditional-directives and the democratic-participative approaches:

- A. Capacity for Leadership and Initiative.
- B. Sharing of information and objectives.
- C. Participation by subordinates.
- D. Internal Control.

The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that agreement with some statements reflects attitudes favouring the 'traditional-directive styles of management and agreement with the others reflects attitudes in favour of the 'democratic-participative' approach.



For the comparison of the data concerning the sample of the Sudanese managers with the findings of Haire and his colleagues international study, the Haire et al (1966) findings, were reproduced and the Sudanese raw scores were added (both presented in tables and graphically when appropriate).

A. Capacity of subordinates for Leadership and Initiative:

From the data of the Sudanese sample compared with Haire et al findings, it was found that Sudanese managers reflected a slightly higher opinion of their subordinates for leadership and initiative than did managers of developing countries studied by Haire and his colleagues. Their opinion of their subordinates' capacity for leadership and initiative is even much higher than all the managers of the 14 countries of the Haire et al study other than the U.S.A. and Japan.

B. Sharing Information and Objectives:

It has been realized from the data that the Sudan scores concerning managers' thinking about sharing information and objectives with their subordinates was among the lowest scores compared with the managers of the 14 countries. But, nevertheless, the Sudan score is just slightly lower than that of the developing countries - as a cluster. Data revealed by the sample of Sudanese managers reinforced Haire and his colleagues' findings that the three countries in their sample 'hold decidedly negative views . . . concerning this method of exercising leadership . . .'



#### C. Participation by Subordinates:

Haire and his colleagues note that the lower range of means, registered by their sample of managers in the 14 countries in this category, 'indicates that any existing cultural differences or even differences in industrialization had less of an impact on this category than on the previous two categories'. The nature of the situation produces 'a certain uniformity of opinion among managers regarding just how much participation is likely to be effective'. The Sudanese score indicates that the sample can well be placed among the category of Haire **et al** developing countries which were found to have negative attitudes towards this type of managerial practice.

#### D. Managerial Internal Control:

This category was concerned with the nature of authority and control in the organization. For this category the data revealed even greater degree of homogeneity in responses for the 14 countries than for the previous one. This suggests that as far as participation is concerned, like the previous category, 'the impact of cultural and industrialization differences was minimal'. The score for the Sudanese sample in this category is just above the neutral point.

#### 4. Managerial Motivations and Satisfaction:

Part 3 of our questionnaire was intended to obtain data about managers' perceptions of their need fulfilment, their satisfactions and the importance they attach to different kinds of needs. The hierarchy of needs reflected in the questionnaire is: Security, Social, Esteem, Autonomy and Self-Actualization.

Like what was done in the previous section, first the scores of the Sudanese sample of managers were indicated and then they were superimposed on the Haire **et al** data.

Need Fulfilment:

Haire and his colleagues noted that there was a rather small difference in the degree of fulfilment from one need to the other, and it appeared from the data that there was no direct relationship between the position of a need in the hierarchical system indicated by theory and its position in a ranking of the needs by degree of fulfilment. The profile for our sample of Sudanese managers, however, seems to be distinctly different from the Haire et al sample of managers. The level of need fulfilment among the Sudanese managers was generally lower than for those in the 14 countries.

Need Satisfaction

Haire and his colleagues observe that 'it is not how much of something we get which influences our behaviour as much as it is what we think about what we get'. The degree of satisfaction of a certain need was measured by the difference between the perceived fulfilment and the perceived expectation of fulfilment. The data of Haire et al study of the 14 countries revealed a clear fact that the three lower-order needs of security, social and esteem are better satisfied than are the two higher-order needs of Autonomy and Self-Actualization. Thus they note that 'this fact indicates, therefore, that there is some relationship between the position of a need in the theoretical hierarchy and the degree to which it is seen as being satisfied in the job'.

Sudanese managers expressed the highest degree of dissatisfaction in all areas of needs compared to all the 14 countries studied by Haire and his colleagues, taken individually or in groups. However, the Sudan scores tend to be closer to the three developing countries than to other clusters.



### Need Importance:

Data of Haire **et al** indicated that, '... there is a fairly close relationship between the importance of a need and the degree to which it is dissatisfied...' It is assumed that when a particular need is not fulfilled to the expected degree then that need will tend to assume greater importance than a need which is relatively well satisfied. Data of Haire **et al** study suggested that the five types of need are not of equal importance. The study revealed that the most important of the needs studied was the Self-Actualization need, followed by Autonomy, Security, Social and Esteem. In the case of the developing countries there was found only one correlation: Self-Actualization needs are recorded as the most important and the least satisfied.

Sudan data did not reflect any correlation between importance and dissatisfaction of needs. However, in conformity with the pattern of all managers of the 14 countries, the area of Self-Actualization needs is recorded as the most important of all needs to Sudanese managers. The Sudan scores revealed that the Sudan ranking of needs in terms of importance is following the developing countries' pattern.

### **5.1 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (The Questionnaire)**

In this part the managers were asked about important aspects of the managerial job, the best and worst things of being a manager, how they would describe the job of a manager and how respondents had learned to be managers.

Regarding important aspects of the managerial jobs, the data revealed that Planning was the most commonly selected function followed by Deciding, Problem Solving, Leading and in fifth place Organizing.



Responding to the question focusing on methods of learning to be a manager, respondents selected Learning by doing, Discussions with colleagues, Analysing successes and failures, Observing effective managers and Case studies as the most effective five ways of learning.

When managers were asked to describe the job of a manager, their most popular choices of objectives describing the job of a manager were 'Challenging', 'Important', 'Influential', 'Demanding', 'Rewarding' and 'Authoritarian'.

Concerning the best things about being a manager, respondents indicated that Power and Authority came first, followed by the sense of Achievement, Ability to decide, Freedom of action and so on. On the other hand, Accountability for all failures, being subject to unfair Criticism, and having to accept responsibility for decisions were regarded among the worst things about being a manager.

## **5.2 Additional Aspects of Managerial Thinking (Interview):**

Managers were given the opportunity to express their feelings freely and in depth about particular aspects of their jobs:

- (i) Relationships of managers with immediate superiors.
- (ii) Strong or good points/weak or bad points about organization.
- (iii) Feelings about expatriates.

About the first aspects, responses generally indicated that the majority of managers across all organizations expressed satisfaction with their relationships with immediate boss. However, some sort of problems regarding either relationships with more senior managers or conduct of Top management have been mentioned.

In response to the question concerning strong and weak points about the organization, respondents hardly mentioned personal things. Among the organizational factors, however, which they regarded as important sources of pride and satisfaction to them, the managers mentioned 'team spirit', and 'enthusiasm and determination' of the workforce. On the other hand, they indicated that factors like weak organization and bad planning, misuse of resources, and lack of awareness about public interest, were among other aspects giving sense of dissatisfaction and disappointment in their organization.

As far as the issue of expatriates is concerned, reactions of respondents were mixed. However, it can be seen from the data that a clear majority of the managers preferred to work with the national supervisor to working with expatriate. The arguments given for or against either national supervisors or expatriates covered a wide range of motives from which distinctive interconnected themes emerged: the sense of national pride, the dimension of the environment, expatriate's time consciousness and professionalism, the socio-cultural factor, the question of communication, and the question of personal interests.

Themes that appeared to emerge from these data which suggest distinctive aspects of managerial Thinking in Sudan will be discussed in the next (and final) chapter.

CHAPTER 7SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

- 7.1 Distinct Aspects of Managerial Thinking in Sudan.
  - 7.2 Implications for Organizational Change and Management Training.
  - 7.3 Suggestions for Further Research.
- 

The aims of this thesis have been stated as:

- to investigate organizational climate of the Sudan Sugar Industry as reflected in the attitudes of its managers;
- to examine and understand the managerial thinking of top and middle managers working in the sugar industry; and
- to compare data from this investigation with those produced by similar studies in other countries.

The major intention was to reflect the perspective of the Sudanese managers in order to gain some insight into the meanings and significance for them of the contextual phenomena which influence their thinking and behaviour so as to consider appropriate training for them and to suggest possible avenues for further research.

The basis upon which the conclusions of this analytical study were drawn was Haire **et al**'s study (1966). The task of that study was to find an empirical answer to the question of similarities and differences in managers' attitudes.

When managers think about managing, are their ideas pretty much all the same, or does managerial thinking differ from one country to country?



Haire and his colleagues' findings were based on a sample of 3,641 managers from 14 countries and their study focused on three phases of managerial thinking:

- (i) Views on leadership and how one gets work done well and efficiently;
- (ii) the way in which the role and practices of the manager are seen by managers themselves; and
- (iii) the satisfactions a manager wants and gets from his job.

The authors note that there is a very strong tendency for managers to express similar beliefs about what they do as managers. 'In this sense, the values, perceptions, and attitudes of management can be said to be universal. To be a manager is to have a philosophy of management much like that of other managers everywhere'(p.9). It was noted earlier that three major explanatory factors tend to predominate in accounting for common and distinctive features of managerial thinking and behaviour in cross-cultural studies:

- socio-cultural influences;
- impact of the national stage of economic development;
- differences in level of industrialization.

The research methodology of the Haire **et al** study was described in Chapter 5 of this study. For the comparative focus of our present study, the Haire **et al** Questionnaire was selected as a primary basis for its research methodology with some appropriate alterations and additions made to it (see Appendix 5.1):

Part 1 of the questionnaire utilized some scales of the revised L. & S.O.C.Q. to describe a set of measurable properties of the work environment.

Part 2 used Part 1 of the Haire **et al** Questionnaire about attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices.

Part 3 dealt with managerial motivations and satisfactions.

Part 4 attempted to get at the managers' perceptions of the role and practices of the manager reflecting on their own experiences.

Part 5 included questions designed to collect demographic data about respondents.

The questionnaire was supplemented with interviews; the central areas around which questions were asked were as follows:

- Structure, formal and informal organizations, jobs definitions, delegation of authority etc.
- Loyalty and belonging to the organization.
- Performance and criteria of measuring success.
- Factors most appealing when joining organization.
- Relationships with superiors.
- Feeling toward working with expatriates.
- Motivational factors.
- Leadership; and
- Criteria for selection to management positions.

The data produced by this study and on which we base our exploration of the above noted issues, have been analysed and summarized in the preceding chapter.

## **7.1 DISTINCTIVE ASPECTS OF MANAGERIAL THINKING IN SUDAN**

- Managers' perceptions of Organizational Climate.

Our findings in the previous chapter showed that when managers respond to questions about their organizations' climates, they tend to reflect diverse attitudes. Data regarding selected dimensions of

organizational climate i.e. structure, responsibility, identity, and terms of employment indicated different perceptions among managers within the same organization and showed that companies differ substantially in their climate patterns even though they are similar to one another in their business profiles. It was noted earlier (Chapter 1) that properties of organizational climate are the results of the perceptions of the people within the organization and that climate reflects the 'patterns of expectations and incentive values that impinge on, and are created by, a group of people that live and work together' (Litwin and Stringer, 1966). Findings of this study appear to confirm this notion, as managers tend to describe 'similar' dimensions differently. This is not too surprising as the kinds of work groups and types of individuals differ from one organization to another and perhaps differences may appear within the same organization as a consequence of each system's internal climate. Thus it has been suggested that 'there are potentially as many climates as there are people in the organization' (Johannesson, 1971, p.38). However, our data did not totally rule out the other assumption that individuals within a given organization, or subunits of that organization, will have similar perceptions about their climate as there are considerable numbers of managers who indicated similar perceptions about certain aspects of the climate prevailing in their organization.

Investigation of organizational climate revealed yet another important finding; despite the general trend of dissatisfaction of managers about various dimensions particularly the structural aspect and terms of employment, managers still expressed great sense of



belonging and loyalty to their organization and reflected a friendly atmosphere, enthusiasm and good team spirit. This may be an indication that material benefits alone are not the only motivating factor to many employees and that the key to the creation of loyalty in organizations is essentially their ability to offer a career, and the social climates they are able to provide.

- Relationships with Subordinates.

The questionnaire and interview surveys revealed a clear picture about the Sudanese managers regarding their relationships with subordinates. It was mentioned earlier that the rationale of this part is that managers manage according to their assumptions about human nature. The Sudanese managers indicated a generally favourable opinion of their subordinates as individuals. They reflected a relatively greater confidence in subordinates' capacity for leadership and initiative than all the managers of the fourteen countries studied by Haire and his colleagues except the U.S.A. and Japan. However, this favourable attitude of the Sudanese managers towards their subordinates' capacity for leadership and initiative was not combined with a similar view in regard to sharing information and objectives. Compared with the managers of Haire **et al** 14 countries, the Sudanese managers' thinking about sharing information and objectives with subordinates was found to be among the lowest scores. They showed very little inclination to share information and objectives with their subordinates. Haire and his colleagues remark that the three developing countries in their sample 'hold decidedly negative views (relative to other countries) concerning this method of exercising leadership...'. Views of the Sudanese managers in this respect seemed to reinforce

this finding. These views were also combined with the managers' negative attitude toward participative management. In comparison to the Haire **et al** study, the Sudanese managers are the least favourable towards the use of participation. The highest favourable attitude towards this type of managerial practice was shown by Japanese managers. However, Haire and his colleagues note that the generally lower range of means registered by their sample of managers in terms of this type of managerial practice indicates that cultural and industrialization differences did not have a significant impact on this category. The nature of the situation produces 'a certain uniformity of opinion among managers regarding just how much participation is likely to be effective'. Concerning the nature of authority and control in the organization, the Sudanese managers, compared to the same study, recorded a neutral view about the capacity of subordinates for self-control and direction. Haire and his colleagues suggest that for this category also 'the impact of cultural and industrialization differences was minimal'.

The favourable opinion held by managers about their subordinates as individuals with relatively great confidence in their capacity for leadership and initiative, combined with generally negative views about the use of participative management, and sharing information and objectives with their subordinates reflects a contradicting situation faced by managers in the Sudan Sugar Industry. We would suggest that this dilemma in which Sudanese managers found themselves was created by their high regard for others and emphasis on the significance of the social factor in management on the one hand and their love of power and authority on the other. The Sudanese managers' regard for socio-



cultural factors was evident when they indicated that one of the disadvantages of expatriates is their insensitivity to personal relationships. At the same time, however, they demonstrated their love of power and authority by admitting that power and authority is the best thing about being a manager. Fear of losing authority and control over subordinates, we would suggest, might be one explanation of Sudanese managers' reluctance to share information and objectives with their subordinates. An interesting remark made by a manager during our interviewing programme about some of his colleagues may throw light on the managerial mentality concerning this issue; he revealed that some managers were so secretive that they used to 'lock up official cabinets and desk drawers' when intending to go on holidays. He suggested that this kind of behaviour could be attributed to either:

- these managers lack self-confidence and therefore they are afraid their mistakes and ill practices may be discovered during their absence, **or**
- they distrust their subordinates, **or**
- they intend to prove they are indispensable by denying their subordinates access to essential information and documents and thus making the job difficult for them to handle.

Haire and his colleagues' explanation of this kind of attitude (i.e. high regard for subordinates as individuals and recognition of their potentialities combined with negative views about use of participative management) was noted earlier; they remark that -

... the managers in developing countries, while recognizing the potentialities of the average person, nevertheless feel that the typical subordinate or employee would not be accustomed, nor would he respond favourably, to such sharing. Of course they may be wrong in this belief, but the important point is that they seem to hold it.

Our Sudanese managers, too, seem to share this belief with their counterparts in developing countries. We may recall (from Tables 6.3(a) - 6.3(c) in Chapter 6 that a clear majority of managers



stressed that the policy of the organization tends to encourage employees to take responsibility, but individuals refrain from it.

Implications of these perceptions on Managerial Practices:

1. - Managers tend to give detailed and complete instructions to their subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details.
  2. - To control and maintain influence over subordinates, managers believe it is necessary to assume close supervision and double-check everything with them.
  3. - Managers are reluctant to delegate authority. As a result relatively minor decisions have to be taken at senior management levels and hence unnecessarily wasting time that should be devoted to planning and policy-making.
- Subordinates maintain dependent relationship with bosses, tend to lose initiative and eventually they may get frustrated.

- Managerial Motivations and Satisfactions

The intention was to explore managers' perceptions of their need fulfilment, their satisfactions, and the importance they attach to different kinds of needs at work.

Unlike the managers in Haire **et al**'s (1966) fourteen country study, the Sudanese managers in general reported relatively low perceived levels of need fulfilment, with the exception of the social needs category where they registered a relatively closer level of fulfilment to the Haire **et al** grand mean. Concerning the needs satisfaction at work, in comparison to the same study, our Sudanese managers expressed the highest degree of dissatisfaction in all areas: Security, Social, Esteem, Autonomy, and Self-Actualization needs. They were most dissatisfied, however, in the need area of security

followed by the Self-Actualization category. The significance of the Sudanese records becomes more evident when it is particularly compared with those of the three developing countries in the Haire **et al** study. Haire and his colleagues note that although managers from these three countries are reasonably well fulfilled in their needs, they are not so satisfied with their degree of fulfilment: the Sudanese managers recorded even much higher levels of dissatisfaction than those of the three developing countries, being the highest dissatisfaction records when compared to all managers of the Haire **et al** study. However, in general terms, the Sudan scores tend to be closer to the three developing countries than to other clusters. In regard to the importance attached to the various needs at work, we can say that Sudanese managers attached very high importance to their needs at work placing the Self-Actualization, like the general pattern of all countries' managers in Haire's study, as most important.

We noted earlier that our Sudanese managers placed more emphasis on this category of needs and the security needs during the interviewing programme indicating that the security needs were least satisfied followed by the Self-Actualization category of needs. It can be seen that their managerial thinking in regard to these aspects was influenced by certain problems concerning their relationships with their superiors. Though most of the managers described their relationships with immediate superiors as satisfactory, almost every manager had complaints and certain reservations related to the behaviour of more senior managers and the conduct of top management in general that cause them some sort of dissatisfaction. As far as the security needs are concerned, concern was expressed about uncertainty at work due to



'superiors' arrogance' and what they described as 'personalized relationships'. Superiors tend to take decisions based on unknown criteria and in response to factors which will be difficult to anticipate and cope with. At the same time managers themselves sometimes hesitate to take decisions within their own departments in anticipation that they will be overruled or bypassed by superiors.

The emphasis placed on the category of the Self-Actualization needs by the Sudanese managers was unmistakable. It was clearly recorded in both our questionnaire survey and interviewing programme. It will be recalled that, when asked to indicate the best things about being a manager, our Sudanese managers placed emphasis on aspects like power, status, and prestige. This reflects the managers' concern about personal development and Self-Actualization which they regard as most important and second least satisfied of all needs at work.

Another area of concern to our Sudanese managers which reflects their dissatisfaction about their relationships with their bosses is the category of Autonomy needs. Managers expressed discontent in regard to the autocratic style of leadership adopted by their superiors and complained that they do not treat them like fellow managers. Consequences of this approach were reflected in:

- less delegation of authority to managers;
- superiors' disregard managers' opinions;
- superiors' disinterest in new ideas from managers.

This kind of attitude can be explained by what was noted earlier that some managers believe that their positions will be threatened if they use a participative style of management and share information and objectives with their subordinates. Therefore they view authority and



information as personal possessions and should be guarded so as to maintain their positions. Thus in such a situation where managers place so much emphasis on authority and status as important sources of satisfaction, it can be anticipated that they become frustrated when their superiors, like themselves, advocate in theory the principle of delegation as an important function of management, but when it comes to reality they are reluctant to practice it. The situation becomes even more depressing for them when decisions and policies, as we noted earlier, are made on personal grounds and based on unknown criteria and managers are, therefore, uncertain about their authority. Managers also find themselves under severe restrictions and close supervision attributed to superiors' strict directions and tight rules and regulations. Thus it can be expected that our Sudanese managers should express such a high level of dissatisfaction in regard to their autonomy needs.

In aggregate, however, the profile of the Sudanese managers is generally most similar to that of their counterparts from the three developing countries studied by Haire and his colleagues. They attach a high degree of importance to their needs at work, express a very low level of satisfaction of these needs and perceive a low level of fulfilment of their needs (perhaps lower than the level of fulfilment of their counterparts from the three developing countries). Therefore, it can be concluded that Haire **et al**'s question: Are the expectations of the developing countries' managers unrealistically high? is even more applicable to the Sudanese managers.

The high aspirations of the managers of the Sugar Industry compounded with the uncertainties and insecurity they feel at work may make many of them seek fulfilling their expectations somewhere else should opportunities arise. We noted earlier that many of them already expressed such intentions and this may again confirm what Haire and his colleagues had suggested i.e. 'the dependent attitude variable of need satisfaction would appear to be the most crucial . . . in terms of its motivational implication'.

- Expatriate Managers

It was mentioned earlier that the intention by the Sudan Government to hire foreign management to run the industrial public sector has already made a big row and generated vigorous debates among various sectors in society particularly the managers and trade unions of the industrial sector. So this study aimed to investigate the opinions and feelings of managers about this controversial aspect in anticipation that some themes might emerge which could reflect part of the managers' way of thinking. As expected, in the questionnaire survey and during the interviewing programme, concerns of Sudanese managers about expatriates emerged distinctively. Overwhelming majorities of managers do not prefer to work under supervision of foreign expatriates. This is not surprising in a work environment where, as noted earlier, the relationship with immediate superiors emerged as an important concern of our Sudanese managers. Foreign expatriates are accused of indifference to personal relationships and insensitivity to social factors. However, this seemingly adverse verdict by opponents of expatriates is considered as an advantage of expatriates by



supporters who believe that since expatriates are free of such obligations they will act in an impartial, rational and thus professional way. Arguments have already started over the identity of the newly formed sugar companies; are they going to care for social demands any more or have they become purely profit-oriented enterprises? Foreign expatriates are viewed as representatives of the latter thinking and hence in pursuit of this totally business-like objective, the function of expatriate manager is seen as a controller and director of resources including people, who, according to respondents against hiring foreign management, 'will be treated like machines'. Concerns were also expressed in regard to expatriates' unawareness about the local environment and related aspects like barriers of communication which will cost a lot of time and effort before expatriates could understand organizational and social environments and their benefit can possibly be realized.

We noted earlier that our Sudanese managers placed considerable emphasis on authority and status as important sources of satisfaction and raised some complaints about their relationships with their superiors in this connection. Therefore it seems natural when they expressed fears that foreign supervisors will make the situation for them even worse and may threaten their positions and career development.



**Discussion:**

As was suggested before, the two basic questions of Haire **et al**'s study are:

Are the managers' attitudes the same or different?

How do the countries cluster together?

To these a third was added: Within the segments of the study - Leadership, the concept of manager's role, and motivation - how do countries and managers differ from one another?

The results of Haire **et al**'s study are based on a sample of 3,641 managers from 14 countries of various cultures, at different stages of economic development, and having varied levels of industrialization (Denmark, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Belgium, France, Italy, Spain, England, United States, Argentina, Chile, India and Japan). Haire and his colleagues report that it seems from the data that there is a very high degree of similarity among managers' attitudes in all the countries studied. They note that the considerable similarity among managers' responses lends some real support to the belief of the universality of managerial philosophy. They suggested, on the other hand, that of all the differences they observed among managers, about 25% of the variations were associated with national differences.

To investigate and understand the managerial thinking of the Sudanese managers and then compare it with Haire **et al**'s international study, our present study adopted and used the same questions and methodology of that study.

From the preceding survey of our data in relation to the data of Haire **et al**'s study, it can be seen that the Sudanese managers, like the managers of Haire's study, shared similarities in many managerial aspects and indicated differences in others with managers across the various countries studied by Haire and his colleagues. However, in general terms, the profile of the Sudanese managers is most similar to that of managers from the three developing countries.

It can be noticed from the data concerning Sudanese managers that there are aspects of managerial thinking in Sudan that appear to reflect the imperatives of organizational life, and the view that there is a strong and consistent tendency for managers to express similar beliefs about management; for example, the views of the Sudanese managers about the important aspects of the management job reflected adoption of the classical (universal) management functions of planning, organizing, directing and controlling. Our data also revealed a common concern with performance and individual competence and the Sudanese managers placed considerable emphasis on aspects like power, status, and prestige and Self-Actualization which might be universally viewed as highly important managerial needs.

Therefore our findings, we would suggest, can provide more evidence to the conclusion of Haire and his colleagues that -

Cross cultural studies of managers are fiendishly complex; no single explanation for similarities and differences is likely to be adequate, the emergence of a world-wide 'culture' of industrial organization, the influence of national cultures, and the stage of economic development are not alternatives, but interconnected influences on managerial thinking behaviour.



## 7.2. IMPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Haire and his colleagues note that the cultural patterns in managerial strategy that emerge from their study would seem to have immediate and practical implications for managers, particularly for those interested in international business, in establishing operations in other countries, or in developing foreign nationals within their own organizations. They suggest that three main issues stand out:

- The opportunity to examine and understand managerial attitudes in one's own country;
- The implication for firms sending managers to work in foreign climates; and
- The problems of executive development across cultures.

Responses of managers from a particular country tend to provide the profile of the country's managerial attitudes. What does the manager think is the way to lead? What does he see to be the role of the manager? What does he hope for from his job? What does he get? How dissatisfied is he?

Haire and his colleagues recommend that it would be a useful exercise for concerned people in any country to examine these profiles and ask themselves: Is this the way it is here? Is this the way it should be here? And if it is not: What can we do about it? Such an analysis and understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses is of special importance in a world of intensified competitiveness among countries in international business.

Therefore, to help analyse and assess the organizational and managerial situation in the Sudan Sugar Industry, we propose from our data which attempted to find answers to the previous questions, the following general statements about Sudanese Managers and the organiza-



tions in which they work which, we believe, could be a useful base for suggesting relevant organizational and training strategies:

1. Production units of the sugar industry have generally been producing at much lower rates than designed capacities. Therefore, the target of Sudan's sufficiency in the sugar commodity has not yet been reached.
2. Objectives of sugar organizations are vaguely defined, roles are not adequately specified and there are no clear criteria for measuring success and performance appraisal.
3. Sugar organizations are expected to provide social benefits and facilities regardless of realizing economic objectives. Thus primary objectives are disregarded in favour of secondary activities.
4. There is uncertainty and lack of clarity as to the identity of the sugar organizations. Successive organizational changes due to overall lack of consistent coherence policies gave rise to managerial instability and administrative deficiencies.
5. Contrary to the nature of public corporations characterised by autonomy and flexibility, the sugar organizations were established on headquarter basis following the traditional government departmentalization pattern. Therefore, they inherited bureaucratic structures characterised by rigid procedures, excessive rules and administrative details.  
There is little delegation and relatively minor decisions have to be taken centrally or at senior management levels.
6. The job titles are not necessarily job-related as there are no proper job descriptions and there is often uncertainty over accountability.

7. Top and middle level managerial positions are dominated by 'technical' or what are commonly described as production staff (i.e. agriculturalists, engineers, chemists, etc.). Consequently, almost all Managing Directors at the headquarter and General Managers of the factories came from this category.

This phenomenon is viewed as a natural outcome of the existing system of automatic promotion whereby top positions are acquired through seniority and long service instead of merit and leadership qualities. Such a situation which has spread security and guaranteed promotion tends to cause discontent, reduce competition among employees and hamper incentive and creativity. Promoting technical specialists, regardless of having leadership qualities, to the top managerial positions in the Sugar Industry is still the rule rather than the exception. There is a general belief among the managerial staff (the majority of whom have technical background) that management is not a specialized science, like other technical disciplines, and thus can be practised and mastered by anyone who has common sense. Too often, however, a brilliant technologist is promoted to a manager with the consequent loss of a highly trained technologist without a gain in management expertise as technical competence is not enough to ensure effective leadership.

It is true that common sense and experience are valuable assets for top management, but such qualities cannot replace the need for knowledge and skills in management functions (of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling). Thus the importance of management influence on others, the need for the effective leader in management is probably greater than the number of available 'nature born' leaders. Plenty of men may have such qualities as ambition, drive, enthusiasm without necessarily being particularly effective leaders.



Thus, despite the fact that no one can agree on a comprehensive list of the qualities of effective leadership, a manager today must be a person of intelligence and character, a person with good intuitive judgement, and at the same time, a person with a rational approach, a person with an open mind and broad vision.

8. Managers of sugar organizations are of relatively young age, short working experience and yet in terms of education they are highly qualified.
9. Managers tend to reflect different perceptions about the organizational climate of the sugar industry.
10. Managers consider terms of employment of sugar industry unsatisfactory. However, for other factors like job satisfaction, social facilities, friendliness, convenience and so on, they would prefer to stay at present organizations than joining other employers even if their terms of employment are much better. For instance, educational and social needs of children could keep a manager in one place for as long as they are dependent on him.
11. People seem to be proud of belonging and loyal to organizations of the sugar industry which is characterised by a friendly atmosphere, good team spirit and enthusiastic workforce.
12. Managers have high regard for their subordinates as people and therefore great emphasis is placed on personal relationships at work.



13. Individualistic criteria tend to influence organizational behaviour, hence insecurity is increased because decisions cannot be consistently anticipated, and blames for mistakes tend to be assigned on a personalized basis.
14. There is growing concern about appointments in senior executive positions on the basis of political affiliation at the expense of entitled competent candidates.
15. There is common concern about misuse of resources and lack of awareness about public interest.
16. Though managers tend to reflect high opinion about individual's capacity for leadership and initiative, they are reluctant to share objectives and information with or delegate authority to their subordinates. They consider authority and information as personal possessions necessary to retain status and prestige and maintain influence and control over subordinates.
17. Managers' needs at work seem to be poorly fulfilled and there is common concern among managers about their relationships with immediate superiors and conduct of Top Management in general. They indicated
  - dissatisfaction with their perceived opportunities for Autonomy and Self-Actualization;
  - that Leadership is autocratic and power-centred;
  - that there is no appreciation for hard work and no encouragement for initiative.

18. There is general feeling of insecurity and uncertainty among managers that makes some of them think of leaving present organization if better opportunities arise.
19. Most managers expressed furious protest to the policy of hiring expatriate managers and reflected clear preference to work under national supervisors. Reasons and motives for this attitude are numerous. However, expatriates' lack of knowledge about local environment, their insensitivity to personal relationships and social factors, and the issue of nationalism are viewed as most important factors.

We noted earlier that public enterprises exist primarily to represent a government's interventionist objectives in an economy. They exist as distinctive institutions, however, because of governments' effort to create agencies with the management capability to conduct business activities effectively and efficiently. The public enterprise sector, therefore, is distinguished prominently and importantly by its management characteristics as well as by its economic functions. It is this aspect of the public enterprise sector that makes it especially significant to the administration of development.

From the foregoing discussion it is obvious that there is a complex set of interrelated factors that hindered the achievement of Sudan Sugar Industry's objectives and undermined its expected role in the administration of development. Its administrative deficiencies can be seen in the lack of effective leadership, poor planning and the bureaucratic regularized system where efficiency, profitability and goal-achievement are of secondary importance. Decision-making also

tends to become centralized and, in most cases, decisions are either not made at the right time or they are made about trivial issues. Conflicting demands and interests of various parties tend to create tensions, dissatisfactions and poor relationships. Based on the findings of our present study, the following recommendations are intended to assist in improving the efficiency of the sugar industry and its managerial effectiveness:

- Because a certain level of operational autonomy is required for effective management, we suggest that the process of transforming the sugar factories into autonomous companies be completed without any further delay. The need for autonomy has proved to be a crucial management motivator. This will ensure clarity of organizations' identity and flexibility and provide room for quick response, innovative acts and initiative (specimen of Memorandum and Articles of Association in Appendix 7.1 shows details in this respect).
- Obviously successful execution of this process of change and the effective management of the newly formed companies calls for different styles of leadership from those that characterised the former bureaucratic and excessively centralized system;
- Insecurity seems to be a major motivating force behind excesses of centralization and the reluctance of senior executives and bosses to delegate authority. It is important that managers clearly be aware of the consequences of the excessively centralized and autocratic management style which tends to involve them in trivial acts, reduce opportunities of training



and improving capabilities of their subordinates, cause dissatisfaction among employees and encourage dependent subordinate/superior relationships. Therefore managers must be taught about the benefits related to decentralization and sharing of information and objectives, delegation of authority and style of participative management and learn that leadership is a relationship rather than a function performed by one man. The leader's task must be to try to satisfy three inter-related but distinctive requirements: the job, the team and the individual needs. If the leader concentrates only on the task, for example in going all out for production schedules while neglecting the training, encouragement and motivation of his team individuals he may do very well in the short term. Eventually, however, those people will give him less effort than they are capable of. Similarly a leader who concentrated only on creating team spirit while neglecting the task and the individuals will not get a maximum contribution from his people. They may enjoy working in a happy fashion in his team but will lack the real sense of achievement which comes from accomplishing a task to the utmost of individual ability. So the leader must try to achieve a balance by acting in all three areas of overlapping needs.

- Managers should be taught that decentralization serves to improve communication channels and the level of co-ordination both within and among various departments. Improved co-ordination would tend to remove time consuming, excessive checks and counter checks, references and cross references and consultations about unimportant matters.

- Administrative decentralization promotes participation, access and responsiveness and increases subordinates opportunities for initiative, job satisfaction, autonomy and Self-Actualization. Data of our present study show that dissatisfaction of such needs appears to be of major concern to managers of the sugar industry. Therefore senior executives and bosses should learn to pay special attention to these aspects in order to improve relationships with subordinates to guarantee their commitment and participation. Of course there is no one best way of doing things, but there is no doubt that autocratic suppression will have an adverse effect on the morale of the worker. The formation of unions, work slow downs are obvious examples of reactions by the worker. The traditional rules of classical organization theories, like **Theory X**, assume that workers must be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled and directed if coordination of effort is to be achieved. Taylor's 'scientific management' which is largely based on this Theory is criticised on several shortcomings:
  1. It assumes that there is one best way to perform any task. This assumption is obviously not true if we allow for individual differences.
  2. It describes how things ought to be done without considering the differences of the people expected to accomplish the task.
  3. It ignores the complex behaviour of people in an organization. In contrast with **Theory X** McGregor suggests a different theory of managing, **Theory Y**, based on more adequate knowledge about human nature and motivation. According to McGregor 'the essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve



their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives'. However, what kind of conditions and methods to be arranged, the approach to be adopted and how much participation is likely to be effective, will be decided by the law of the situation and the nature of the task in question.

- Personnel practices and other related administrative procedures need to be reviewed to allow for adequate personnel selection, fair promotion and effective motivation. Selection and promotion should be strictly on merit and competence. At the same time criteria for evaluation of performance and competence should be clearly stated, specifically determined, and made well known by all concerned to avoid all kinds of biases by the management and discontent on the side of employees. In our questionnaire survey and interviewing programme managers expressed concern and discontent about appointments made on political affiliation. Traditional ways of introducing incentive schemes in sugar industry rely on extrinsic rewards, bonuses and the like, as the only means of motivation. However, managers should learn that intrinsic rewards can equally be important. We already note that respondents in our present study indicated major concern about future certainty, job satisfaction and self-expression. So, to increase employee motivation and performance, we suggest providing managers with satisfying experience when they perform well. Performance will lead to sense of accomplishment when the task is highly on variety, identity, autonomy and feedback.
- We note that the Sudanese managers in our study are highly qualified and many of them obtained post-graduate studies and attended training programmes inside the country and abroad particularly in Western countries. They indicated that they found Learning by



doing, Discussions with colleagues, Analysing successes and failures, Observing effective managers, Case studies and Reading management theories etc. as most effective methods of learning to be a manager. However, academic qualifications and training programmes could be excessively theoretical, traditional and not directed toward specific purposes. Therefore it is important to make a sharp distinction between the mere availability of academic qualifications and training programmes and their effectiveness in performing managerial functions and achieving objectives.

- Our research findings show that overwhelming majorities of managers in the sugar industry expressed opposition to hiring expatriate managers on the grounds of expatriates' lack of knowledge of the local environment, their indifference to personal relationships, insensitivity to social factors and many other reasons. However, in an environment where managers place considerable emphasis on authority and status as important sources of satisfaction, a large scale introduction of expatriate personnel could seriously undermine morale and result in the loss of key Sudanese personnel on whom the long term future of the industry depends. Therefore if there is a certain need for selective expatriate technical assistance in specific roles, for specified periods of time, Sudanese managers should be reassured that this will not endanger their career prospects. It must be understood that expatriates will have identified assignments to do, for instance to provide assistance and professional guidance to Sudanese managers in certain areas and train counterparts who will take over from them when they accomplish their assignments, without undermining their line management authority. In addition, we recall that managers in our study indicated that they learned to be managers, among other

methods, by observing effective managers in the organization. So if they could develop a favourable attitude toward expatriates and maintain good relationships with them, they could still learn a good deal more and benefit from expatriates who are supposed to come from countries highly advanced in methods and techniques especially in areas like:

- organization and discipline
  - time consciousness
  - effective and efficient use of scarce resources, in a society where there is more concern for social relationships and community demands than for performance.
- Very little reference is made to research aiming at improving administrative methods and procedures and thus when certain administrative deficiencies or technical problems are realized they are assigned to ad hoc committees to handle. The problem with such committees is that, because they are often of a temporary nature, they may propose hasty recommendations and consequently decisions based on them may turn out to be inappropriate. Therefore, the management of the Sugar Industry must be conscious of the need for any benefits from proper scientific research at all levels to provide data on permanent and continuous basis to help
- provide required information at the right time;
  - improve organization and methods;
  - facilitate the process of decision-making and formulate policies in the long run;
  - overcome administrative deficiencies and solve technical problems;
  - identify training needs and evaluate training programmes; and
  - establish regular performance appraisal, co-ordination, control and follow up.



### 7.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

We mentioned earlier that the present study, which focussed on the similarities and differences of managerial thinking between Sudanese managers and other managers from the 14 countries studied by Haire and his colleagues, is the first of its kind to be carried out in Sudan. Therefore the mere fact that it has been possible to undertake it in such a satisfactory manner and the interesting findings that emerged from it in regard to motivations, needs and behaviour of managers of the Sugar Industry, encouraged the researcher to emphasize the importance and possibility of undertaking similar studies in regard to all environmental and managerial aspects in all Sudanese organizations to meet the urgent need for valuable data about the management of organizations in the country. In this sense, however, it may not be possible to mention all areas that tend to demand priority, but in connection to issues raised by the present study, the following avenues are suggested for future research:

1. The present study examined the managerial thinking of top and middle managers working in the sugar industry. Future studies could focus on the rest of employees at the lower levels of the hierarchy of the organization to assess their needs, satisfactions, attitudes and their perceptions about the leadership and how their organization is run.
2. It is expected that managers working in industrial and commercial sectors of economy should primarily be business-minded and concerned with productivity. Now that the sugar factories of Sudan are undergoing transformation into autonomous companies to be run on commercial basis, managers working there are expected to demonstrate more concern about productivity and per-



formance than before. Therefore it seems important to investigate the relationship between performance and satisfaction in order to explore and suggest appropriate ways and means to increase employee motivation and performance.

3. As the ultimate purpose of training is to increase productivity and accelerate development through changing employees' attitudes and raising their performing capabilities, the researcher emphasizes the importance and urgency of undertaking research in this respect. Training programmes should be evaluated to assess training effectiveness in productivity and performance in the sugar industry so that its training requirements could adequately be identified.
4. The researcher very strongly recommends that future research should be undertaken in the sugar industry to assess if transformation of the factories into autonomous public companies has been effective and achieved expected benefits in terms of productivity and efficiency or brought about any change in attitudes, needs, and behaviour of managers.
5. There seems to be no significant differences to be taken into account between managers of the present study in regard to age, education, experience and seniority level, and they all belong to the male sex. Future studies may benefit from considering the effects of such factors on motivation, need satisfaction, and managerial assumptions.
6. For further collection of data about the management of organizations in Sudan, the researcher recommends that a similar research be carried out in other sectors of the economy, within the industrial sector and in other sectors (public and private) along the same pattern of the present study, to investigate whether Sudanese

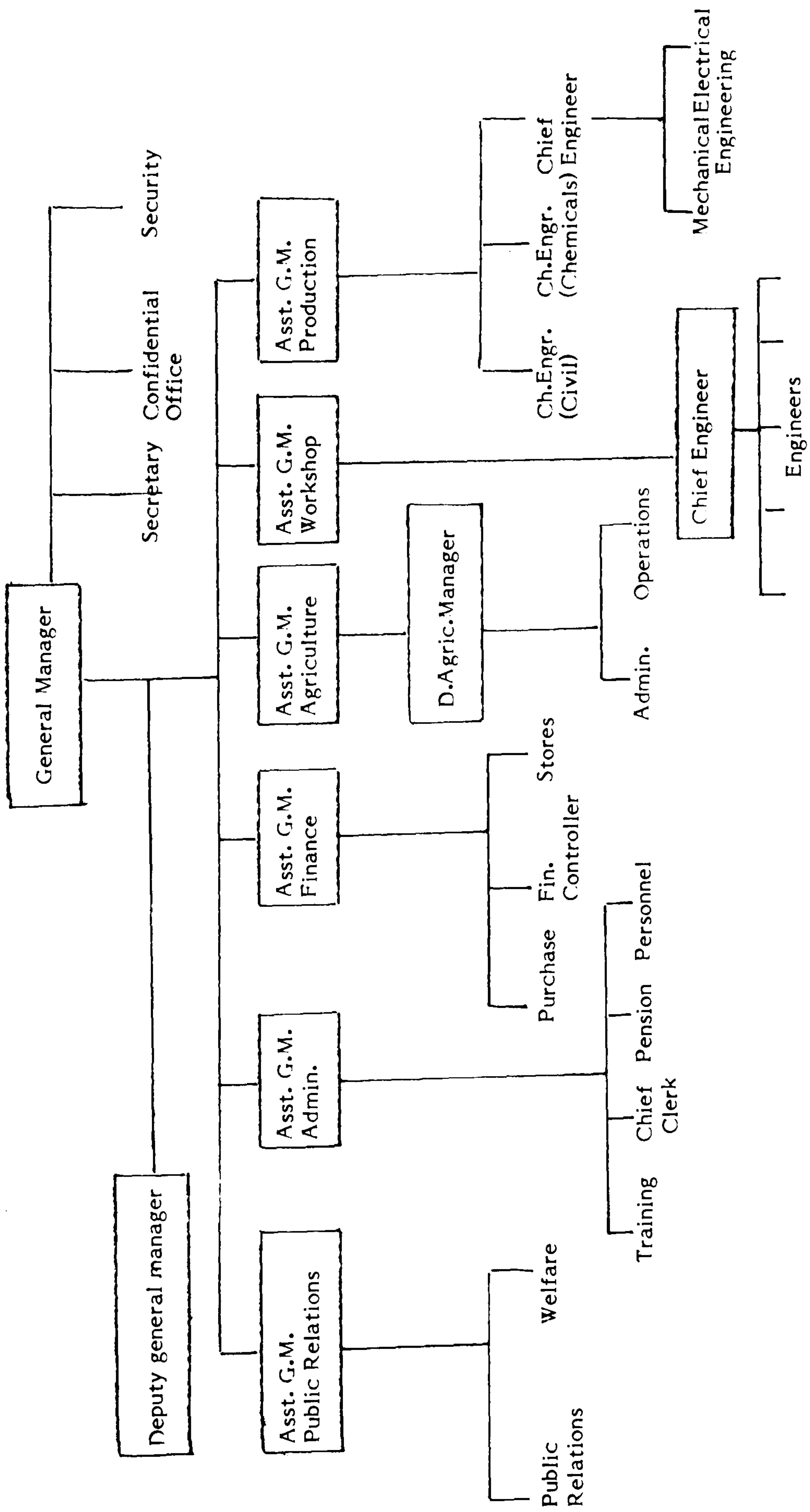
managers in any organization can represent their counterparts in other organizations across the country in terms of motivations, needs, and behaviour, or if there are variations among them due to the impact of internal organizational culture.

7. For comparative purposes, the present study followed exactly the method and pattern of Haire **et al**'s study which did not intend to discuss in detail cultures of the 14 countries involved in that study. Therefore it was also beyond the scope of the present study to discuss in detail the various cultural aspects prevailing in Sudan. However, stimulated by his own present study and the unique composition of Sudan (being an amalgam of many ethnic groups, some of Arabic origin and others from African background, with Islamic religion predominating and influence of Western culture), the researcher believes it would also be interesting to see further research on the implications of these dimensions on specific organizational processes and facets in comparison to Islamic, African, and Arab countries.

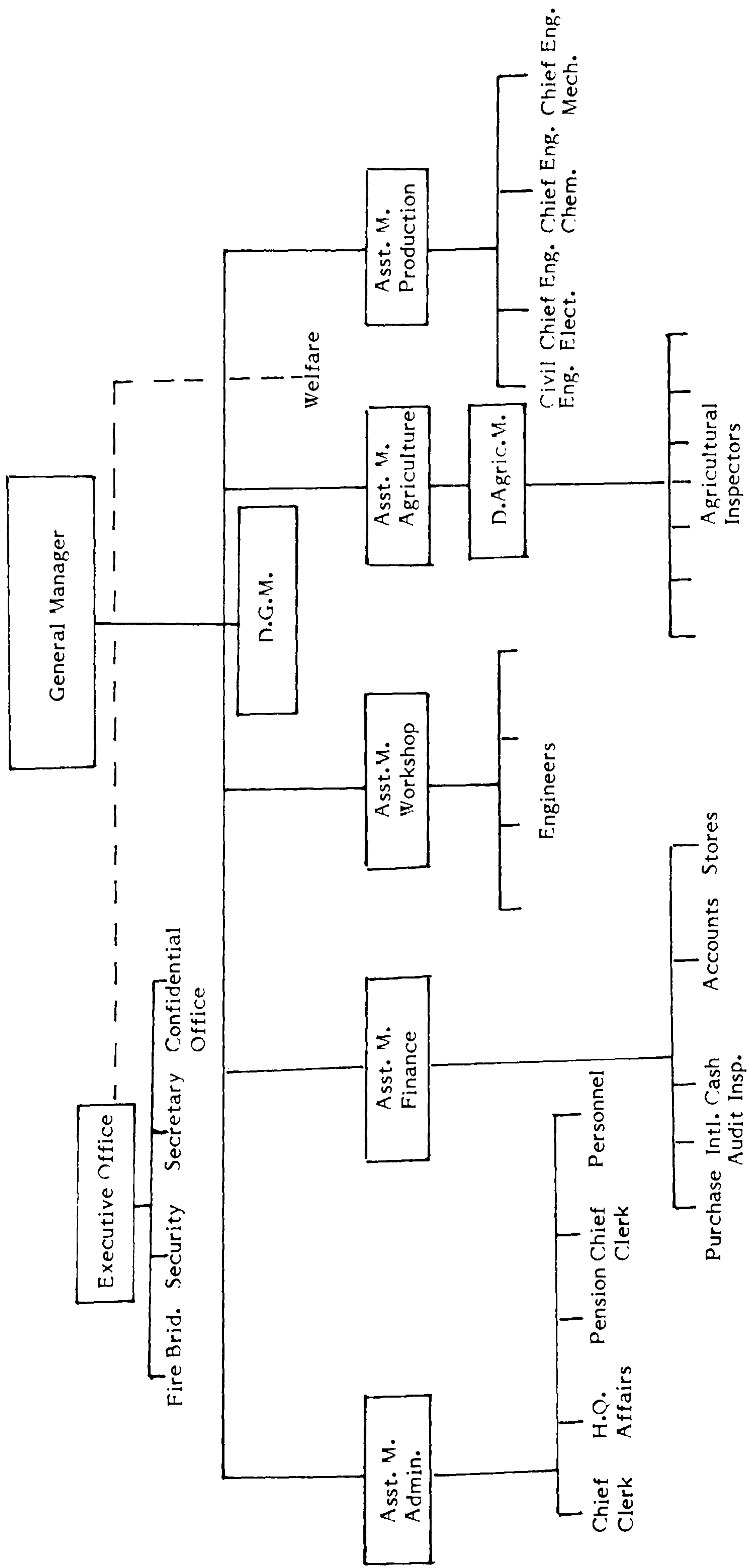
## APPENDICES



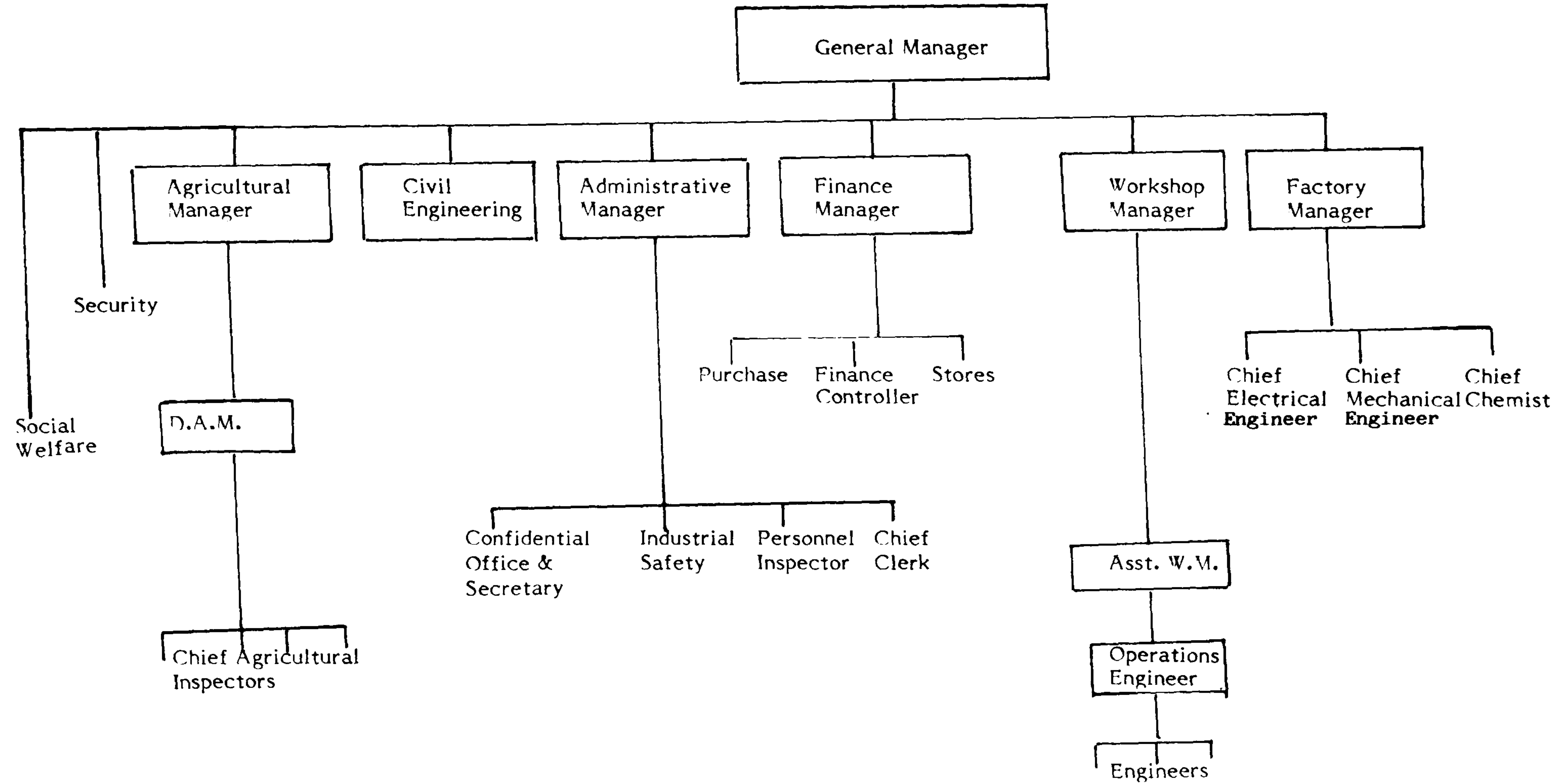
APPENDIX 4.1  
GUNEID SUGAR FACTORY  
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART - 1987



APPENDIX 4.2  
 NEW HALFA SUGAR FACTORY  
 ORGANIZATIONAL CHART - 1987

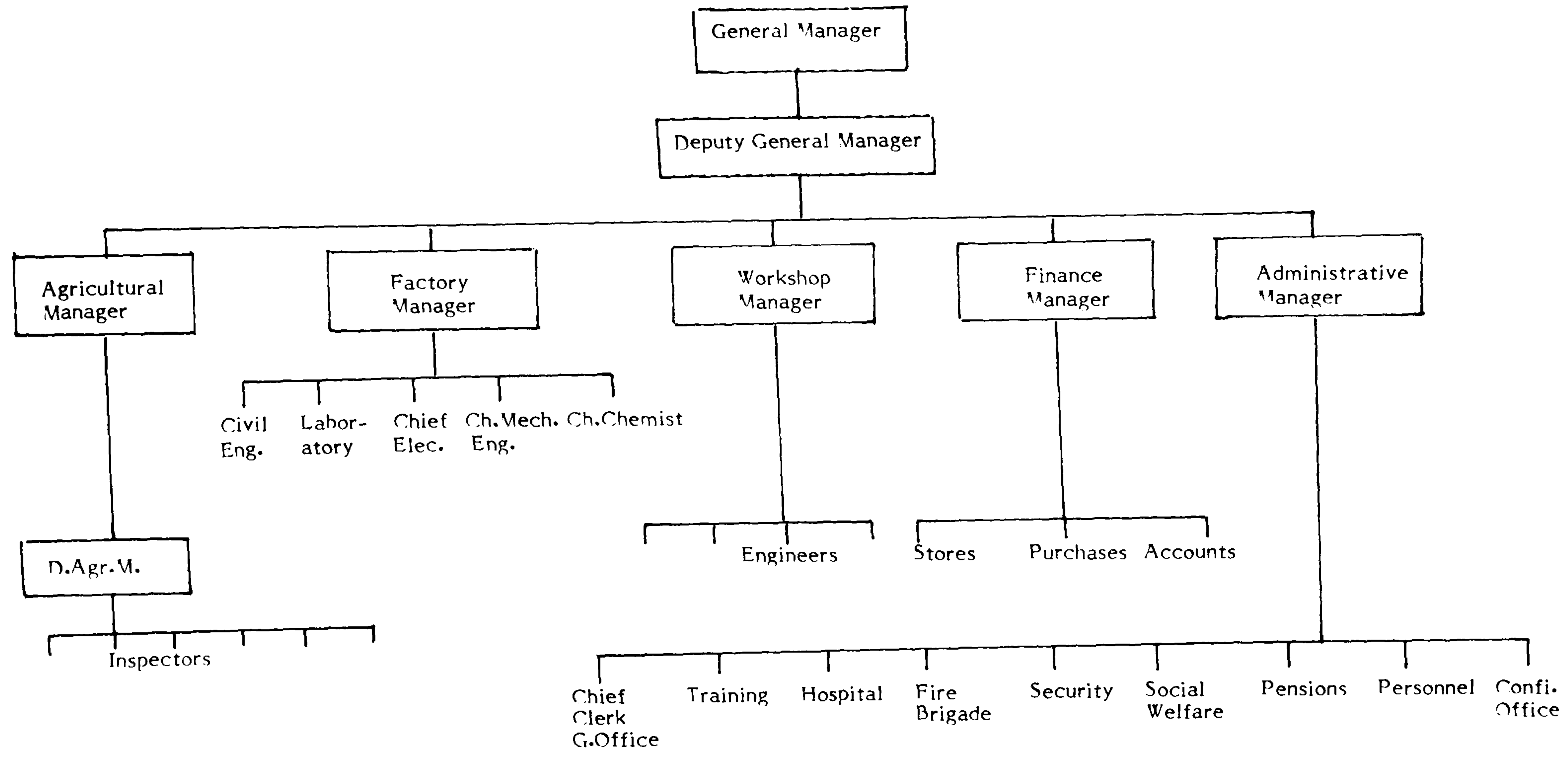


APPENDIX 4.3  
SENNAR SUGAR FACTORY  
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART - 1987

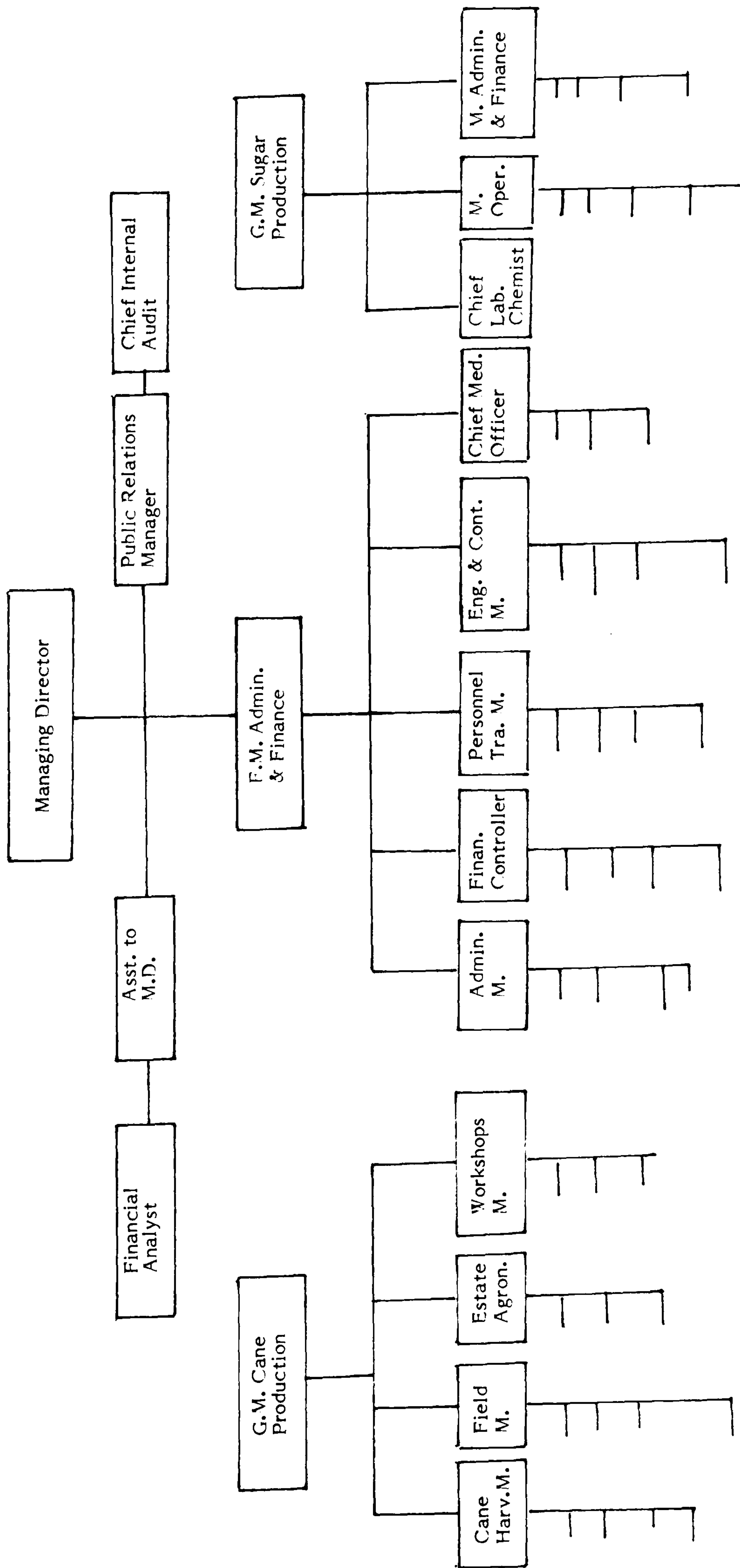




APPENDIX 4.4  
ASSALAYA SUGAR FACTORY  
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART -1987



APPENDIX 4.5  
KENANA SUGAR FACTORY  
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART -1987



APPENDIX 4.6Note on S.P.I.C.Sugar Project Implementation Committee (SPIC):Membership

An advisory team, positioned in the Ministry of Industry, with a team leader seconded by the World Bank (July, 1983) and four experts from John H. Payne Inc., Hawaii, U.S.A. (August, 1983).

The Chairman of SPIC, the Technical Director and Deputy Chairman (both appointed in 1986), Procurement Manager, Financial Manager, are all Sudanese personnel.

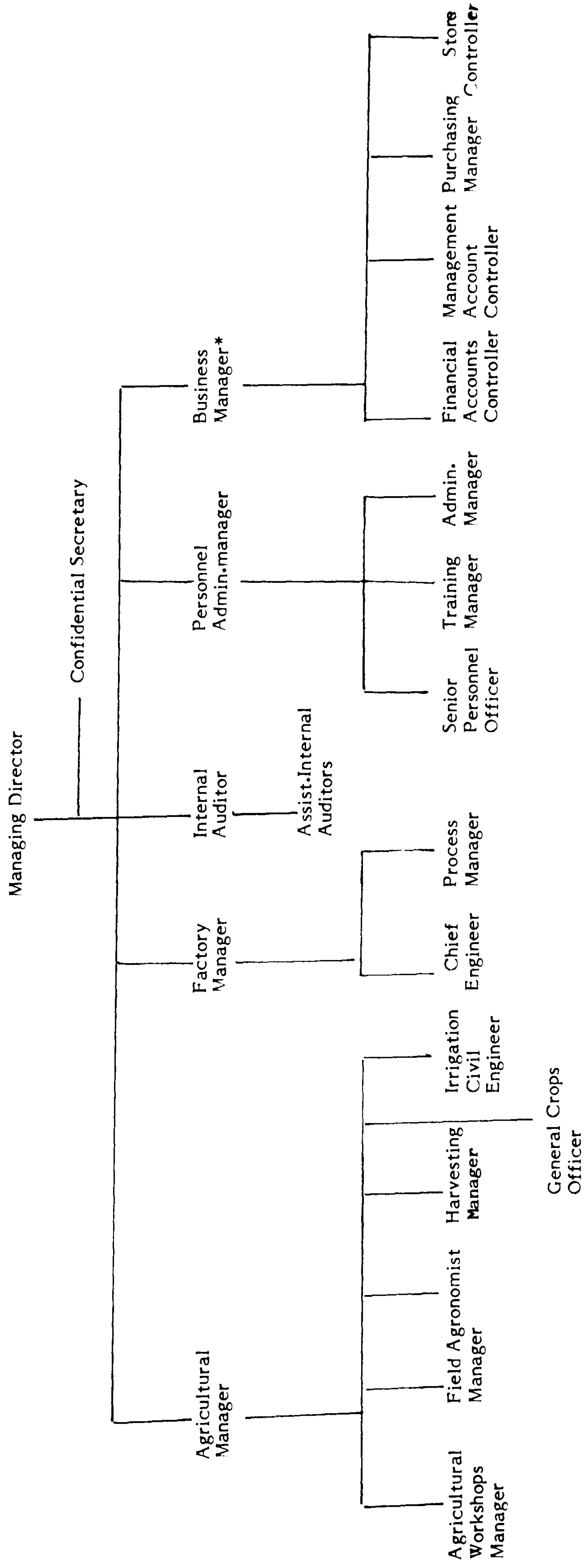
With the increasing work load projected for the coming years, additional staff are being and will be recruited for the SPIC office.

The following is a broad outline of SPIC activities for 1987/88:

- Specifications, and packaging designs for procurement.
- Preparation of tender documents, processing of bids and evaluation for presentation to Project Procurement Committee (PPC).
- Monitoring project progress, and sending progress reports to Funds.
- Finalisation of co-financing arrangements.
- Project Accounting.
- Monitoring companies project cash flow, costs, and collection of financial data for forwarding to Funds.
- Advice on sugar pricing.
- Advice on Training schemes for companies.
- Co-ordination with the Agricultural Research Corporation.



APPENDIX 4.7  
RECOMMENDED STANDARD MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE FOR THE COMPANIES



\*Expatriate

APPENDIX 5.1QUESTIONNAIRE ON ORGANIZATIONAL  
CLIMATE AND MANAGERIAL THINKING

I am Mohammed Osman Ibrahim, a Senior Lecturer at the Sudan Academy for Administrative Sciences, currently on a study course at the University of Liverpool.

In partial fulfilment for the requirements of the degree of Ph.D. in Public Administration, I am undertaking a research project on 'Organizational Climate and Managerial Thinking' in the Sugar Industry of Sudan.

To this end, I would like to seek your help in answering the attached questionnaire. I should like to emphasize that the information obtained will only be used for the purpose of this research and will be treated with the strictest confidentiality.

Your selection has been made on the basis of statistical methods and your name is not required.

· Thank you for your co-operation.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON  
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND  
MANAGERIAL THINKING IN THE  
SUGAR INDUSTRY OF SUDAN

This questionnaire consists of 5 parts:

- Part 1 : Deals with organizations and organizational climate.
- Part 2 : About attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices.
- Part 3 : On managerial motivations and satisfactions.
- Part 4 : Contains questions specifically about managerial activities and experiences of respondents.
- Part 5 : Designed to obtain background information about respondents.

All questions are either presented in the form of statements that just require respondents to state their agreement or disagreement by placing an X in the appropriate place (on a scale or in a box); OR in a form that requires a brief written answer.



Please indicate your agreement or disagreement to the statements with an X using the scale below or boxes opposite to each statement.

For example: take the statement -

It is easier to work in cool weather than in hot weather.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : X : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

If you think it is easier to work in cool weather, put an X above "Agree"; if you think it is much easier to work in cool weather, put a mark above "Strongly Agree". If you think it does not matter, put a mark over "Undecided" and so on.

Another example:

Which of the following methods do you think is most effective in providing motivation?

1. The negative one of supervision and disciplinary action
2. The positive provision of some reward, financial or non-financial
3. Combination of (1) & (2)
4. Do not know

X

If you think the negative method is most effective, put an X in the box opposite to answer number 1; if you think the combination of (1) and (2) is the most effective, then put an X in the box opposite to answer 3, and so on.

Please note that ONLY ONE X is required for each statement.

PART 1ORGANIZATIONS & ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATEStructure:

1. The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

2. In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

3. The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly defined.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

4. Red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

5. Excessive rules, administrative details and red tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

6. Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

7. In some of the projects I have been on, I have not been sure exactly who my boss was.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

8. Our management is not so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrates instead on getting the right people together to do the job.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

Responsibility:

1. We do not rely too heavily on individual judgement in this organization; almost everything is double-checked.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

2. Around here management resents your checking everything with them; if you think you have the right approach you just go ahead.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

3. Supervision in this organization is mainly a matter of setting guidelines for your subordinates; you let them take responsibility for the job.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

4. You will not get ahead in this organization unless you stick your neck out and try things on your own sometimes.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree

5. The philosophy of this organization emphasizes that people should solve their problems by themselves.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree      Agree      Undecided      Disagree      Strongly Disagree



6. There are an awful lot of excuses around here when somebody makes a mistake.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

7. One of the problems in this organization is that individuals will not take responsibility.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

Identity:

1. People are proud of belonging to this organization.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

2. I feel that I am a member of a well functioning team.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

3. As far as I can see, there is not very much personal loyalty to the organization.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

4. In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interests.

:\_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly  
 Agree Disagree

1. Here is a list of words which are often used by people to describe the company they work for. As you will see, the words are presented as paired opposites (for example, 'good' versus 'bad').

What we want you to do is to tick the space between the two words that best describes how you feel about the organization you work for.

As your immediate reaction is required, please do not take time completing this list.

	Very	Quite	Neither	Quite	Very	
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bad
Unsuccessful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Successful
United as a Company	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Divided as a Company
Caring	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Uncaring
Impersonal	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Personal
Authoritarian	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Democratic
Productive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unproductive
Status conscious	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not status conscious
Badly run	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Well run
Cooperative	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Uncooperative
Management take						Management pass the
Responsibility	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	buck
Secretive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Open
Inefficient	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Efficient
Going places	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Stagnant
Workforce						Workforce
Enthusiastic	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Uninterested
Backward	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Progressive
Flexible	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bureaucratic
Indecisive Management	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Decisive Management
Friendly						Unfriendly
Atmosphere	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Atmosphere
Organized	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unorganized
Management consistent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Management inconsistent
High morale	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Low morale
Hard working	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Easy going
Good team spirit	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Poor team spirit

2. Is there anything else you would like to add?

---



---

3. When joining this industry which of the following factors was of the most appeal to you?

- 1. Salary
- 2. Security
- 3. Other working conditions
- 4. Or it was the only appropriate job at that time
- 5. Do not know


4. Have you worked for any other employer before joining the present organization?

- 1) YES
- 2) NO


5. How would you compare your organization as an employer to your previous employer?

- 1) Better
- 2) Same
- 3) Worse
- 4) Do not know


Would you say that its terms of employment are

- Very good
- Good
- Average
- Bad
- Very bad
- Do not know


6. If you are now offered a job in another organisation where the terms of employment are even much better compared to your present employer's, would you accept the offer and leave your present organization

- 1) YES
- 2) NO


Please state why?

---

---



7. Which of the following is most important as a measure of the success of an organization like the one you are working in?

- 1. Increasing production
- 2. Making profit
- 3. Reducing cost
- 4. Providing jobs
- 5. Providing other facilities & services to the community
- 6. Or combination of some or all of these (in this case please state them) \_\_\_\_\_
- 7. Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

8. Is there anything else you would like to add?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

9. Referring to your answers of previous questions, do you think your organization is a successful one?

- 1) YES
- 2) NO
- 3) Do not know

10. If the answer is NO, why do you think it is not successful?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

11. In your opinion, how should the situation be improved?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

12. Thinking about the strong or good points you know about your organization, are there any which give you a particular sense of satisfaction or pride in the organization? If so, please specify:

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

13. And what would you say are its weak or bad points?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

14. Thinking about the weak or bad points, are there any which give you a particular sense of dissatisfaction or disappointment. Please specify:

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

PART 2

1. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

2. Leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

3. The use of rewards (pay, promotion, etc.) and punishment (failure to promote, etc.) is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

4. In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me then I lose some influence on them.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

5. A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

6. Group goal setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal setting.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
 Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

7. A superior should give his subordinates only that information which is necessary for them to do their immediate tasks.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

8. The superior's authority over his subordinates in an organization is primarily economic.

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
Strongly Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

9. What do you think of your relationship with your immediate superior? Would you say it is:

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
Very good Good Satisfactory Bad Very bad Undecided

10. Which of the following tasks do you think your immediate supervisor is more concerned with:

- 1. Having the job done
- 2. Your training, advancement and encouragement
- 3. Both 1) and 2)
- 4. Do not know


11. Would you prefer to work under the supervision of an expatriate or a national supervisor?

: \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ :  
Expatriate National Supervisor

Please state why?

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PART 3

In this part will be listed several characteristics or qualities connected with your own position in your organization. For each such characteristic, you are asked to give three ratings:

- a. How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your position in your organization?
- b. How much of the characteristic do you think should be connected with your position in your organization?
- c. How important is this position characteristic to you?

Each rating will be made on a seven-point scale, which will look like this:

:     :     :     :     :     :     :     :  
 (minimum) 1    2    3    4    5    6    7    (maximum)

Please put a mark X above the number on the scale that represents the amount of the characteristic being rated. Low numbers represent low or minimum amounts, and high numbers represent high or maximum amounts. If you think there is "very little" or "none" of the characteristic presently associated with the position, you would place an X above number 1. If you think there is "just a little", you would place an X above number 2, and so on. If you think there is a "great deal but not a maximum amount", you would place an X above number 6.

For each scale, place an X-mark above only one number.

Please do not omit any scales.



6. The feeling of security in my management position:
- a) How much is there now? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- b) How much should there be? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- c) How important is this to me? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
7. The feeling of self-fulfilment a person gets from being in my management position (that is, the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities, realizing one's potentialities:
- a) How much is there now? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- b) How much should there be? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- c) How important is this to me? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
8. The prestige of my management position outside the company (that is, the regard received from others not in the company):
- a) How much is there now :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- b) How much should there be? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- c) How important is this to me? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
9. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in my management position:
- a) How much is there now? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- b) How much should there be? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- c) How important is this to me? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
10. The opportunity, in my management position, to give help to other people:
- a) How much is there now? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- b) How much should there be? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :
- c) How important is this to me? :  $\frac{\quad}{1}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{2}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{3}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{4}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{5}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{6}$  :  $\frac{\quad}{7}$  :



11. The opportunity to develop close friendship in my management position:

- a) How much is there now?           :     :     :     :     :     :     :     :
- 1    2    3    4    5    6    7
- b) How much should there be?       :     :     :     :     :     :     :     :
- 1    2    3    4    5    6    7
- c) How important is this to me?     :     :     :     :     :     :     :     :
- 1    2    3    4    5    6    7

12. Please describe the circumstances in which you became manager (supervisor):

---



---

13. Why have you accepted the position?

- 1. Seeking status
- 2. Seeking authority
- 3. Seeking responsibility
- 4. It is a rewarding job
- 5. Existing leadership was ineffective
- 6. Simply because no one else would do the job
- 7. Other reasons (please state)


---



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PART 4

In this part you will be asked to answer several questions about your job as a manager. Some questions require you just to place a X in the appropriate place, while others require a brief written answer.

1. Below is a list of activities. Reflecting on your own experiences please indicate with a X the five activities which you feel are most important in the work of a manager.

ACTIVITY	X	ACTIVITY	X
Innovating		Leading	
Forecasting		Evaluating	
Disciplining subordinates		Supervising subordinates	
Helping subordinates		Deciding	
Communicating		Explaining to subordinates	
Bargaining		Motivating subordinates	
Controlling subordinates		Mediating in disputes	
Problem solving		Delegating authorities	
Analysing		Directing subordinates	
Training subordinates		Organizing	
Reporting to Superiors		Advising superiors	
Planning		Co-ordinating	
Supporting subordinates		Checking on subordinates	
Obtaining and developing Personnel		Adjusting and integrating	
Setting objectives		Obtaining finance	

2. All jobs are good in some ways and not so good in other ways. Please write, very briefly, reflecting on your own experience:

a) The best thing about being a manager.

---

b) The worst thing about being a manager.

---

3. How would you describe the job of a manager? Again reflecting on your own experience as a manager, please write 5 adjectives which most accurately describe the manager's job. (e.g. risky, demanding, important, influential, lonely, rewarding, frustrating, challenging, boring, prestigious, authoritarian, critical, etc.)

ADJECTIVE (Single word)
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

4. How have you learned to be a manager? Please select from the following ways of learning five which you have found most effective in your development as a manager. (MARK 5 ONLY).

WAYS OF LEARNING	X
Listening to a lecture or talk	
Management/business games (simulations)	
Learning by doing	
Case studies	
Observing and reading about famous leaders	
Reading management theories	
Training by my boss	
Analysing my successes and failures	
Observing effective managers in my organization	
Discussing with colleagues about real problems	
Reading novels	
Born manager	
Other (please specify _____	



PART 5

This part is designed to help us in analysing the data. You are not required to give your name or any other information which identifies you personally.

Please answer the following questions:

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1. Age	_____ Years
2. Sex (delete whichever does not apply)	Male/Female
3. Total years of employment	_____ Years
4. Years of employment in this organization	_____ Years
5. Years as a manager in this organization	_____ Years
6. Department	
7. Your group/scale	
8. How many employees are under your immediate supervision?	
9. How many levels of supervision are there above your position?	
10. Highest Educational level achieved	

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

APPENDIX 7.1

THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN

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The Companies Act 1925

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PRIVATE COMPANY LIMITED BY SHARES

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Memorandum

and

Articles of Association

OF

GINEID SUGAR COMPANY  
LIMITED

Incorporated in the Sudan this .....day of.....1983

**THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN**

The Companies Act, 1925

**PRIVATE COMPANY LIMITED BY SHARES**

**MEMORANDUM OF ASSOCIATION  
OF**

**GINEID SUGAR COMPANY LIMITED**

1. The name of the Company is:  
"GINEID SUGAR COMPANY LIMITED".
2. The Registered Office of the Company will be situate in the DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN.
3. The objects for which the Company is established are:-
  - A) (1) To acquire and take over as a going concern the business of El Gineid Sugar Factory now carried on at El Gineid in the Democratic Republic of the Sudan, and all or any of the assets and liabilities of the proprietor of that business used in connection therewith or belonging thereto, and to carry on the same with or without modifications or alterations.
  - (2) To carry on the business of planters, growers and producers of sugar cane, beet and other crops suitable for or used in connection with the production and manufacture of sugar and all its by-products including molasses, filter fertilizers, spirits, yeast, pulp, paper, bagasse-borad, citric acid, gums, glues, and other by-products capable of manufacture from sugar or by the by-products thereof.
  - (3) To carry on the business of millers, refiners and processors of sugar cane and other pertinent agricultural produce.
  - (4) To carry on the business of sellers, Exporters, Sales Agents, wholesalers, distributors, processors and packers, of sugar and sugar products and by-products.
  - (5) To do all such acts and things as are incidental and conducive to the attainment of its main objects.
  - B) For the purpose of attaining its objects and in relation to them the Company shall have the following powers:-
    - (1) To act as builders, building contractors, civil engineers, quantity surveyors, architects, appraisers, valuers, brick and tile makers and lime burners; and to undertake the construction, erection, management and equipping of public or private works or conveniences of every kind for the purpose of developing a sugar project and the infrastructure necessary for such project.
    - (2) To act as quarry masters and stone masons and to buy or otherwise acquire, work, shape, hew, carve, crush, polish and prepare stone of all kinds, and to purchase and manufacture timber, bricks, tiles, slate, chalk, sand and other materials of similar kind for use in the development of the project and its infrastructure or for the personal use by the Company's employees and to sell or otherwise dispose of surplus materials.



- (3) To act as wholesale and retail merchants and storekeepers in all its branches and in particular to buy, sell and deal in haberdashery, materials, groceries, provisions, stores, consumable and other articles, furniture and other household goods, chattels and effects, crops and agricultural produce of all kinds, cigarettes and all other goods from, to and with residents and workers in the estate area.
- (4) To act as carriers by air, road, rail, sea, river, canal or otherwise and to operate omnibuses and trucks for the carriage of persons and goods for the purpose of developing the project and operating the Company.
- (5) To act as manufacturers of and buying agents, representatives, brokers, customs and clearing agents and importers and exporters in all produce, materials, plant, machinery, equipment, chattels, goods, merchandise, wares, commodities and things required by or produced by the Company for the furtherance of any of its objects.
- (6) To finance the purchasing, hire-purchase and deferred payment sales of all machinery, equipment, motor vehicles, tractors, motorcycles, boats, barges and all other plant, machinery, electrical and other goods and spare parts thereof in connection with the objects of the Company.
- (7) To undertake the analysis and testing of soils, sugar cane, sugar plants and materials of all kinds and to act as analytical chemists and to undertake analytical research work of every kind relating to the objects of the Company.
- (8) To act as technical advisers, investment and business consultants in the field of sugar production and the by-products thereof.
- (9) To acquire, construct and maintain reservoirs and dams for catching or impounding water and to acquire erect and maintain pumps, canals, pipelines, aqueducts and other means for the conveyance of water for the irrigation of sugar cane and other crops or for industrial or domestic use or consumption by the Company, its employees, its contractors, and all persons resident on the land leased or owned by the Company.
- (10) To purchase or otherwise acquire, lease, construct, equip, establish and operate sugar mills, refineries, cubing and other plant, machinery and equipment for crushing cane, refining, treating and processing sugar and other agricultural crops and the by-products thereof related to the operation of sugar estates and any crop rotations thereon.
- (11) To construct warehouses, sheds and all other erections and buildings which may be necessary or expedient for any of the purposes of the Company.



- (12) To acquire construct, carry out, maintain, improve, manage, work, control and superintend any roads, ways, tramways, railways, bridges, reservoirs, water courses, aqueducts, wharves, mills, crushing works, hydraulic works, electrical works and conveniences which shall be conducive to any of the objects of the Company and to contribute to, subsidise or otherwise aid or take part in any such operations related to the development and maintenance of the project and sugar by-products thereof.
- (13) To manufacture, buy, sell, exchange, alter, improve, manipulate, and otherwise deal in all kinds of plant, machinery, apparatus, tools, utensils, hardware and other substances, materials, and things whatsoever necessary to facilitate the production of sugar and the by-products thereof.
- (14) To acquire easements and other rights of all kinds over or in respect of the land or property of any other person and to grant easements and other rights over any property of the Company to any other persons subject to the payment therefor or otherwise.
- (15) To purchase or otherwise acquire and to undertake all or any part of the business, property and assets or the debts and liabilities of any person or company carrying on any business which this Company is authorized to carry on, or possessed of property or assets suitable for the purposes of the Company.
- (16) To form, promote, subsidise and assist companies, syndicates and partnerships carrying on business or about to carry on business which the Company is authorised to carry on and to issue on commission or otherwise subscribe for and take any shares, stocks, debentures, or other capital of any such companies, syndicates and partnerships.
- (17) To lend or advance money to any person, firm or company on such terms as may seem expedient and in particular on the security of any real or personal property or upon mortgage of any lands or hereditaments of whatever tenure provided that the company shall not carry on the business as a money lender.
- (18) To establish, promote and otherwise collaborate with any company or to enter into partnership or into any arrangement for sharing profits, union of interests, co-operation, reciprocal concession or otherwise with any other person, company or association carrying on a business which the Company is authorised to carry on or from which the Company would or might derive any benefit whether direct or indirect.
- (19) To acquire, subscribe, take and hold, sell and exchange shares, stocks, debentures, bonds, obligations or securities of any government, authority or company and to promote, effect, insure, guarantee, underwrite, participate in, manage and carry out any issue, public or private of State Municipal or other loans or of shares, stock, debentures or debenture stock of any company, corporation or association.



- (20) To avoid any Government or local authority or other body corporate or any company, association or individual with capital, credit, means or resources for the prosecution of any works, undertaking, project or enterprise related to the objects of the Company or of a social nature for the benefit of the residents on the land leased or owned by the Company and the surrounding area.
- (21) To pay either in cash, shares (whether fully or partly paid up) or otherwise as may be deemed expedient for any business, property or services acquired by or agreed to be acquired by or rendered to the Company.
- (22) To purchase, take on lease and otherwise acquire any estates, land, buildings, easements and other rights and interests in real property of any tenure in the Sudan and elsewhere and to sell, let on lease, exchange or otherwise dispose of or grant rights over any real property belonging to the Company.
- (23) To acquire any concessions, grants, decrees, rights, powers and privileges whatsoever which may seem to the Company capable of being turned to account and to work, develop, carry out, exercise and turn to account, or to dispose of the same.
- (24) To sell, improve, manage, develop, lease, mortgage, pledge or otherwise charge or encumber, dispose of, turn to account or otherwise deal with all or any part of the real or personal property of the Company.
- (25) To raise or borrow money in such manner and on such terms as may seem expedient and in particular by the issue of shares or the creation and issue of mortgage, debentures, or debenture or loan stock to secure the repayment of any money borrowed, raised or owing or to secure and guarantee the performance by the Company of any obligations or liability it may undertake.
- (26) To receive money on deposit with or without allowance of interest thereon, provided that the Company shall not carry on the business of banking.
- (27) To guarantee the payment or performance of any debts, contracts or obligations of or to become surety for any person, firm or company and in particular to guarantee payment of the capital and principal of, and dividends and interest on any stocks, shares, debentures or securities of any associated company, firm or person and to act as agents for the collection, receipt or payment of money and to give guarantees and indemnities for any purpose both directly or indirectly to further the objects of the Company.
- (28) To draw, make, accept, issue, discount and negotiate cheques, bills of exchange, promissory notes, bills of lading, warrants, debentures and other negotiable and transferable instruments.



- (29) To invest monies of the Company not immediately required in such manner other than in shares of the Company as may be decided from time to time.
- (30) To sell the whole or any part of the undertaking of the Company or the assets thereof or any part of such assets for such consideration as the Company may think fit and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Company.
- (31) To procure the Company to be registered or recognised in any country or place.
- (32) To pay all costs, charges and expenses incurred or sustained in or about the promotion, establishment and registration of the Company, or which the Company shall consider to be in the nature of preliminary and development expenses including the cost of any soil or geotechnical surveys and any feasibility and market studies and costs relating to the preparation and completion of any reports including the cost of printing stationery.
- (33) To establish and maintain or procure the establishment and maintenance of any non-contributory or contributory pension scheme or superannuation fund for the benefit of and to give gratuities, pensions, allowances and emoluments to any directors, employees and other persons or their dependants who are or were at any time in the employment or service of the Company and to make payment for or towards the insurance of any such persons aforesaid and to extend aid and support to charitable, cultural or any other popular object.
- (34) To purchase and otherwise acquire, erect, construct, maintain, lay out, reconstruct and adapt hospitals, clinics, dispensaries, schools, creches, offices, workshops, sheds, barns, houses, golf courses, swimming baths, tennis and squash courts, playing fields of all kinds, gardens, parks, and all other erections, club-houses and buildings found necessary or convenient for the purposes of the Company or its employees and to present, produce, manage, and conduct films and gramophone and concert recitals and to promote athletic exhibitions and contests for the social benefit of the employees of the Company, its associates, its contractors and for the residents on the land leased or owned by the Company.



- (35) To organise and operate training programmes in the Sudan or abroad for field workers, farmers and administrative, financial, technical and management personnel relating to the processing of cane and the marketing of sugar and or its by-products.
- (36) To do all or any of the above matters and things in any part of the world, either as principals, agents, contractors, trustees or otherwise and by or through trustees, agents, sub-contractors or otherwise and either alone or in conjunction with others, which the Company may deem conducive to the attainment of its objects.
- (37) To distribute among the members in specie any property of the Company and or any proceeds of sale, and dispose of or realise any property of the Company but so that no distribution shall be made which amounts to a reduction of capital.
- (38) To carry on any other trade or business whatsoever which can in the opinion of the Board of Directors be advantageously carried on by the Company in connection with or as ancillary to any of the above businesses or the general business of the Company.
4. The liability of the members is limited.
5. The capital of the Company is £S.50,000,000 (Fifty Million Sudanese Pounds) divided into 1,000 (One Thousand) shares of £S.50,000 (Fifty Thousand Sudanese Pounds) each, with power for the Company to increase or subject to the provisions of the Companies Act 1925 reduce such capital and to divide the shares in the capital for the time being, whether original or increased, into different classes, and to attach thereto respectively any preferential, deferred, qualified or special rights, privileges or conditions and so that unless the conditions of issue shall otherwise expressly declare every issue of shares, whether preference or otherwise, shall be subject to the power hereinbefore contained.

WE, the several persons, whose names, addresses and descriptions are subscribed, are desirous of being formed into a Company in pursuance of this Memorandum of Association and we respectively agree to take the number of shares in the capital of the Company set oppose our respect names:

Names Addresses and Description of Subscribers	No. of Shares taken by each Subscriber	Signatures
1. THE GOVERNMENT OF THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN. Represented by the Ministry of Finance and Economical Planning, A Central Ministry situated in Khartoum, P.O. Box No. 298	ONE SHARE	
2. EL NILIEN BANK, A Private Co. Ltd. by Shares, incorporated under the Company Act 1925, situated in Khartoum, P.O. Box No.	ONE SHARE	

Dated this ..... day of .....1983  
WITNESS to the above Signatures:



**THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN**

The Companies Act, 1925

**PRIVATE COMPANY LIMITED BY SHARES**

**ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION**

**OF**

**GINEID SUGAR COMPANY LIMITED**

**PRELIMINARY**

1. The regulations in Table "A" in the first Schedule to the Companies Act 1925 (hereinafter called "the Act") shall not apply to the Company except so far as the same are repeated or contained in these Articles.

**PRIVATE COMPANY**

2. The Company is a private company and accordingly:
  - (a) the right to transfer the shares of the Company is restricted as hereinafter provided:
  - (b) the number of members of the Company (exclusive of persons who are in the employment of the Company and of persons who, having been formerly in the employ of the Company, were, while in such employment, and have continued after the determination of such employment, to be members of the Company) is limited to fifty; Provided that where two or more persons hold one or more shares in the Company jointly they shall, for the purposes of this Article, be considered as a single member;
  - (c) any invitation to the public to subscribe for any shares or debentures of the Company is prohibited.

**SHARES**

3. Subject to the provision of these Articles relating to new shares, the shares shall be at the disposal of the Directors, and they may (subject to the provisions of the Act) allot, grant options, over, or otherwise dispose of them to such persons, on such terms and conditions, and at such times as they think fit; Provided that no share shall be issued at a discount.
4. Except as required by law, no person shall be recognised by the Company as holding any share upon any trust, and the Company shall not be bound by or be compelled in any way to recognise (even with notice thereof) any equitable, contingent, future or partial interest in any share, or any interest in any fractional part of a share, or (except when by these Articles or by law otherwise provided) any other rights in respect of any share, except an absolute right to the entirety thereof in the registered holder.
5. Every share certificate shall be issued under the Seal and shall specify the number of class of shares to which it relates and the amount paid up thereon and the distinguishing number. No certificate shall be issued representing shares of more than one class. Any person whose name is entered in the Register of Members in respect of any shares of any one class upon the allotment or transfer thereof shall be entitled without payment to a certificate therefor within three months after allotment or transfer; Provided that in the case of a share held jointly by several persons, the Company shall not be bound to issue more than one certificate therefor and delivery to one of joint holders shall be sufficient delivery to all.



6. If a share certificate be defaced, lost or destroyed, a new certificate representing the same shares shall be issued to the holder upon request, subject to delivery up of the old certificate or (if alleged to have been lost or destroyed) compliance with such conditions as to evidence and indemnity and the payment of out of pocket expenses of the Company in connection with the request as the Directors may think fit.

### CALLS ON SHARES

7. The Directors may from time to time make calls upon the members in respect of any moneys unpaid on their shares but subject always to the terms of issue of such shares. A call shall be deemed to have been made at the time when the resolution of the Directors authorising the call was passed and may be required to be paid by instalments.
8. Each members shall (subject to receiving at least fourteen days' notice specifying the time or times and place of payment) pay to the Company at the time or times and place so specified the amount called on his shares. The joint holders of a share shall be jointly and severally liable to pay all calls in respect thereof.
9. If a sum called in respect of a share is not paid before or on the day appointed for payment thereof, the person from whom the sum is due shall pay interest on the sum from the day appointed for payment thereof to the time of actual payment at such a rate (not exceeding 15 per cent per annum) as the Directors may determine but the Directors shall be at liberty in any case or cases to waive payment of such interest wholly or in part.
10. Any sum which by the terms of issue of a share becomes payable on allotment or at any fixed date, shall be deemed to be a call duly made and payable on the date on which by the terms of issue the same becomes payable. In the case of non-payment, all relevant provision of these Articles as to payment of interest and expenses, forfeitures or otherwise shall apply as if such sum had become payable by virtue of a call duly made and notified.
11. The Directors may, if they think fit, receive from any member willing to advance the same, all or any part of the moneys uncalled and unpaid upon any shares held by him and such payment in

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