MANAGEMENT AND WORK ENVIRONMENT IN KUWAIT SOCIETY:

THE IMPLICATION OF GENDER FOR MANAGEMENT STYLE.

BY

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ABSTRACT

The research focused on three main themes in the Kuwait society. The first study is developed to measure the differences in the characteristics of the work environment between the public and the private sectors within Kuwait labor force. The study had been conducted on 80 managers of both sexes and 266 employees of both sexes from the public sector, and 80 managers of both sexes and 274 employees of both sexes from the private sector. The results had indicated that according to the combined group (employees and managers, both sexes), the private sector exceeded the public sector regarding: involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation and physical-comfort.

Only the employees sample showed similar results. By comparing the male employees and the female employees in both sectors, it was clear that males had higher mean scores than females regarding involvement, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, and control.

Also, the results of the manager group is consistent with the combined group (both employees and managers, both sexes). However, the comparison between the male managers and female managers in both sectors indicated that, involvement, staff-support, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort were higher in males than their females counterparts.

The second study is designed to clarify any differences in personality traits between male and female Kuwaiti managers. The study has been conducted on 150 male and 150 female managers from Kuwait society. The results showed few differences between male and female managers. It was clear that males were more lively or enthusiastic and more imaginative than females. While, females were more depressive (as a personality characteristic) or apprehensive than male managers.

The third study is concerned with the status profile of Kuwaiti women during the oil era (1946-1960) and developing period (1960-1985) regarding her social, educational, and vocational status.

So, regarding work environment, work in the private sector was more likely to be seen as high in the involvement factor, more concerned with the work's regulations, conscientious, and more likely to remain and conform to the organization's disciplinary systems, more committed to new styles and modern systems in their jobs to achieve their targets, and they were more interested with their work place, than their public staff counterparts. Also, the private sector is often seen as an efficient and productive work sector in comparison with the public sector. Regarding the personality traits, Kuwaiti male managers appear to be more enthusiastic and lively with strong and imaginative personality traits. However, the Kuwaiti female managers appear to have strong apprehensive personality traits.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The interest of the whole study started by studying women career and their participation in the society development. From the information that was gathered, the researcher started to notice that there are many women working as managers or in a high positions, and most of them are successful managers. Then the researcher thought about the reasons of the women high achievement: is it something in their personality which made them good managers. The measurement of the differences in the personalities between male and female managers specially those traits which relates to management was conducted. After measuring the personality traits the idea of studying the work environment evoked.

The study of work environment characteristics, and sex differences in personality traits of males and females has been an interest of researchers and scientists for the past three decades.

Regarding to the first issue, most of the previous studies have emphasized that the work environment characteristics are determined by examining the work

environment dimensions and individual behavior of the group workers. However, according the second issue, there is general consensus among social scientists and psychologist that the personality traits of any person, are determinant of his behavior and style within his daily-life.

Recently, however, a great attention has been given to the above two subjects in the managerial context. Most of the studies in these two areas suggested that regarding to the work environment issue:

1. Organizational effectiveness is directly related to the degree of interaction between internal and external elements of the organizational environment.

2. Leadership effectiveness within organizations, is directly related to the degree of consistency between relationship dimensions and personal development dimensions of work environment.

3. Accuracy of individuals' satisfaction with task group performance, is related with degree of congruence between their personality predisposition and characteristics of work environment.

4. Effectiveness of employees in organization, is directly related to organizational condition, task autonomy, managerial orientation, and personal characteristics in the work environment.

5. Employees's knowledge of their work environment's characteristics, is related to the degree of employees' perceptions of their work environment and work roles.

6. The improvement of work environment is directly related to the high performance in work place, and the expectations of work group in the organization.

7. The quality of working life in organization, is *directly related to the employees' sense of social* significance and self-esteem in work environment.

8. The behavior of the organizational members is directly related to the type of organization in work environment (Abdul-Wahab, 1988).

Regarding the personality traits issue:

1. The personality of the manager plays an important role in determining his/her behavior and style in the managerial context (Fazo, Effrein and Falender,1981).

2. Leadership effectiveness is directly related to the managerial style, which is directly influenced by personality traits (brown, 1979).

3. The basic differences between male and female managers are related to the stereotype of masculine and feminine personalities of the two sexes (Johnson, 1978).

4. Female effectiveness in managerial context is directly related to the degree the female manager adopts masculine traits and behaviour (Schein, 1975).

5. Self-monitoring differences, between male and female managers, is related to the sex differences in their personality traits (Cardwell, 1982).

6. Individuals differences among males and females are directly related to the sex differences in their personality traits (Allport, 1924).

7. Some personality traits that have typically been ascribed to males and managers (achievement orientation, aggression, dominance, and nurture) are directly related to the level of education among the two sexes (brenner, 1982).

Kuwait is one of the developing Arab Gulf countries and occupies the north western corner of the Arabian Gulf. The last figure of population in 1989 was estimated to be around 1,954,378 people, of which fewer than half were Kuwaitis. The rest were Arabs and non-Arabs immigrants. During the thirty years of the oil era, from 1950 to 1980 Kuwait was transformed from a small traditional Arab country, of carrier trades, and lifestyle based on fishing, pearl diving and traditional desert ways of Bedouin into a modern state fully conversant with all aspects of technology, urbanisation, industry, architecture, commerce, financial services, education etc. By this time the major change has been taken place in the socio-economic patterns, even more rapid changes in the

traditional manpower and employment resources (private and public sectors). This change has brought a large number of migrant workers to fill positions that should have been occupied by indigenous citizens. This certainly has a number of social and demographic consequences. Of course this change has a substantial influence on the work environment condition, where a number of elements, namely, work features, managerial style, human relations, work performance, vocational activities, and circumstances inside and outside the work setting interact and work closely.

Kuwait is like many other developing countries whose economy is heavily dominated by government (public sector) as well as individual establishments (private sector). Manpower is, therefore distributed between the public sector and private sectors. Kuwait as one of the states in the Arab Gulf region has witnessed a dramatic inward flow of labor. The low population density especially in the labor force, meant that it was necessary attract immigrant workers. The increasing proportion of non-Kuwaiti population in Kuwait has brought dramatic changes to the demographic, manpower and employment structure with wide-ranging socio-ecomic implications. While labor migration has facilitated rapid economic growth, it has become a major source of concern for the planners and government

administrators.

However, modernization, also relating to the Kuwaiti
women symbolized by change from women living within four
walls at home or working in limited traditional family
centred work places (farms, made dresses, and shops) to
women working in the modern sectors (offices and schools),
and driving their own cars to the work place and
participating in economic activity in the socio-economic
development of the country.

The whole research was conducted before the Iraqi
invasion of Kuwait. Despite the tragedies and bad effects
of the invasion, women gained better opportunities to
improve themselves and to participate more than before in
society development. Kuwaiti women's attitudes towards
many things had changed. Their nationalism increased, and
many of them worked side by side with men in the
resistance during the invasion, and many of females were
patriot and some other still P.O.Ws in Iraq. Many women
participated as social workers and took family
responsibilities. A large number of Kuwaiti women who
lived outside Kuwait during the invasion participated as
volunteers in Embassies and social organizations. After
the liberation of Kuwait, many Arab emigrants left Kuwait.
Then women started to prove themselves in their work
positions. Their percentage as managers or in high

positions increased. Women worked as technicians and specialists. A high percentage of Kuwaiti doctor are females. It is very easy to find women working as: doctors, psychological and social workers, lectures, engineers, and so on. Kuwait University president is a female professor Dr. Faiza Al-khorafi, and many deans of departments in Kuwait University are females, one female works as Ambassador of Kuwait (Nabeela Al-Mulla).

1.2 THE PROBLEM TO BE INVESTIGATED

Disparity in the work environment in Kuwait society and relative importance of the private and public sectors are an issue of the concern to the Kuwaiti authorities. Attitudes toward these two sectors have been a matter of much controversy for a long time: the important contribution by each sector in the socio-economic development; service levels offered to the people, and how much the bureaucracy is still predominant within their managerial processes, which has a substantial influence upon; managerial style, type of relationship between employees and their administration and management, and work environment characteristics of the private and public sectors in the state of Kuwait. Since a massive number of Kuwaiti women have participated in the socio-economic development, a large number of them are in top decision-

making positions, in the variety of governmental and private organizations, as an actual competitor to Kuwaiti men. For instance, under secretary, general managers, middle management, deans of colleges, and head of departments. This modernity phenomenon, has been taking place widely since the middle 1970's. Society changed in general attitudes toward the role of women in the economic activity and in specific attitudes toward the suitability and capability of women in the managerial position.

Many males in the Kuwaiti society felt that women do not have any merit or qualification to be in the top decision-making position, and they give reason, that the women cannot direct others, frequent absence of women, women are moody and change their minds more often, women domineer when in power, women are more emotional and dependent than men. While, other opinions said that there is no such difference between men and women in the top positions, and women must have better opportunities in managerial positions. So, the researcher believes that the best way to discover the importance of the work environment of each sector is by studying carefully the work environment dimensions of each sector to know the identity of the private and public sector, and to cast light on certain positive or negative points within each sector, which help us to improve the work environment in

Kuwaiti community.

Also, the researcher thinks that in order to know if the Kuwaiti women are qualified to be in the top decision making position or not, it is necessary to study in depth the personality traits of the Kuwaiti women who occupy high managerial positions, in comparison with personality traits of their men counterparts in order to see whether such a claim is true or not.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The recognition of work environment factors, and their improvement, will help to create a modern work environment, congruent with modernization and requirement of the community, to contribute in socio-economic development. Also, the participation of women in the expanding modern sectors and holding higher managerial positions, which indicate the rate of women contribution in the process of economic development and determine extent of the modernization and development of the country.

The Kuwaiti labor force is highly concentrated in the public rather than the private sector, although salaries and incentives, are relatively higher in the latter than in the former, and non-Kuwaiti are largely concentrated in the private sector. There is almost a consensus that says

the public sectors employees have less involvement, contribute fewer innovations, and are less prepared to take into consideration the work's regulations and institutions than the private sector's employees. So it seems that large numbers of Kuwaiti people are not satisfied with the performance, achievement, and service which is offered to the people through the public sector. This is the first point, the second point, that the entry of Kuwaiti women into top management in Kuwait society, has brought them a new situation such as critics from some male society. Critics attributed that, our traditional view still holds that women's primary role is in the home, and that it is proper for women to work only if they also fulfill their roles of wife and mother. Also, that their rational and physical abilities are not preparing them to hold senior management positions. Some attitudes from Kuwait society against Kuwaiti women claim that women are not as knowledgeable or efficient as men in the management function, and their logic is not the same and their managerial style also not the same. However, evidence indicates that Kuwaiti women are fit to be in the management function, and have been successful managers, specifically within social service and educational context. Added to that a large part of educated people in Kuwait society believe that there are no differences

between males and females as senior and middle managers in terms of their managerial style in Kuwait society. Therefore, attempts have been made in this study to carry out the theoretical and empirical investigation to cast more light on the previous two points in order to give a clear picture of the private and public sectors in Kuwait society.

Firstly: regarding to the work environment:

1. The first objective of this study is to identify the characteristics of the two sectors, public and private, through the work environment in Kuwait society.

2. The second objective, is to focus on the relationship between employees and their administration (managers) in each sector, and comparing the two sectors within the above relationship.

3. The third objective of this study, is to identify the personal relationships among employees in each sector.

Secondly: regarding the personality of male and female Kuwaiti managers:

1. The first objective of this study is to identify the personality traits for male and female managers in the managerial context in Kuwait society.

2. The second objective, is to study the differences in personality traits among male and female managers, in order to see if these differences are related to the

managerial personality characteristics or to their stereotype.

1.4 THE HYPOTHESES

To investigate the two problems thoroughly, 8 hypothesis, 5 on work environment, and 3 on personality traits, have been set. They, i.e. the hypotheses relate to work environment in terms of differences between public and private sectors, within work environment factors-objects, namely involvement, innovation, physical comfort, and control factors, and also relate to employees and managers in terms of relationship among employees themselves and employees and their management. The hypotheses also relate to personality traits in terms of differences among male and female managers, the extent of these differences, which group of managers will achieve higher scores in some personality traits, and the differences which will be found among two groups of managers related to their managerial style or not. For a full account of the hypotheses of the present study, please see chapter two and three, where the hypothesis have been individually stated.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The current study is important for the following:

1. Identifying the work environment characteristics of private and public sectors, would help us to recognize the important positive or negative points in each sector. Hence, we can improve these two sectors by reviewing and amending the negative points and directed search into the suitable plans and strategy to improve work environment conditions which will help to accelerate economic development in the country.

2. Identify work sector system need, by studying some important factors which relate to employees' performance and their achievement. It would enable us to know more about the factors that affect employees's performance to adopt new programs in order to enhance, as much as possible, the positive performance of the employees.

3. The study also, gives more opportunities to understand the problem of shortage of native employees in the private sector, and know the current problems in private sector which discourages them to enter in to this sector, by adopting a new policy of encouragement which increases the Kuwaiti employees in the private sector, which directly contribute into improvement of the indigenous economy.

4. Identifying the nature of relationship between employees and their administration, and also among employees themselves within work environment in terms of group activity, that would be hopefully to build effective teams. Specifically in the managerial context, which provides better service and more productivity.

5. Identifying the personality traits of male and female Kuwaiti managers, would allow us to discover the interpersonal skills or individual differences of each group, to develop their personal abilities to be oriented in terms of the needs of the job.

6. The study also, provides more knowledge, of the similarity and difference between Kuwaiti male and female managers regarding their managerial styles.

7. If the results of the current study give evidence that there are no differences between Kuwaiti male and female managers regarding their ability to manage human resources in the work, then we are able to:

A: Prove the good managerial ability of the Kuwaiti women which would help them break into senior management.

B: Change the traditional attitudes against Kuwaiti women in the career of management.

C: Increase the number of Kuwaiti women in the management context, by developing the necessary skills through special education and training facilities.

8. Indicate the importance of the Kuwaiti women's role in the socio-economic development of the country, which help the female participation rates to be increased in the labor force.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The theoretical bases of the study are the measurement of work environment and personality traits which lead to the following the important questions to be clarified through the empirical investigation:

Question (1): (main):

What is the nature of the Kuwaiti work environment, through the pattern of private and public sectors? Are there particular features related to each sector, in accordance with the conditions, which include job involvement, innovation, physical comfort and control?

Question (2): general:

What is the degree of differences and similarities between private and public sectors, according to the three main work environment dimensions:

A: Relationship dimensions

B: Personal development dimensions

C: Improvement and protection dimensions?

By studying the above two questions, we are able to gain a general image of the work environment in Kuwait

society.

Question (3): main:

What kind of managerial style has been adopted in the two sectors? Is it different in terms of:

A: relationship   between   employees   and   their administration?

B: relationship among employees themselves?

C: Workers encouragement?

When investigating the differences and similarity of the two sectors through work environment, a notable question arises.

Question (4): general:

Can the work environment in Kuwait within the two sectors be classified in different types of work environment according to work conditions and managerial style?

With respect to the issue of personality traits of Kuwaiti male and female managers:

Question (5): general:

What is the status profile of Kuwaiti women during the oil era, in accordance to:

A: Her social status?

B: Her educational status?

C: Her vocational status?

Question (6): main:

To what extent, has the participation of Kuwaiti women in economic activity contributed to the acceleration of socio-economic development in the country?

By studying the status of Kuwaiti women over the past decade, and their role in socio-economic development in the country, we are able to get a general picture of the changes relating to Kuwaiti women which have taken place, and have been achieved by women through their contribution in the work force, as well as the increase in the percentage of Kuwaiti women who have participated within various occupations in the country.

Question (7): general:

What is the real profile of personality traits of the Kuwaiti male and female managers? Are they similar or different?

If the findings of the study provide some differences between two groups of managers according to their individual characteristics, then the important question has emerged with the core of the above differences.

Question (8): main:

Are these differences between two groups of managers related to their managerial style, or are they attributed differences another form of sex role stereotyping?

1.7 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

This study is divided into nine chapters:

Chapter one, introduction, the problem to be investigated, research objectives, the research hypotheses, significance of the study, and research questions.

Chapter two, in this chapter we will focus on the organizational environment, in terms of definition and concepts, and work environment dimension which related to the current study and reviewing the previous theoretical and empirical researches related to our study, and selecting the study purpose and setting up the hypotheses.

Chapter three, we will review the current literature of personality traits and behavior in terms of both definition and concept in order to express briefly some important conceptual relationships between personality traits and our own behaviour, and focus into main traits which are involved in the present study. Considerable attention will be given to the previous studies on sex differences in the managerial context, and selecting the study purpose and setting up the hypotheses.

Chapter four, in this chapter we will identify the features of the Kuwaiti work environment through the private and public sector, as well as discuss the research method according to the subjects of the study, and research apparatus.

Chapter five, in this chapter the statistical analysis of the work environment data, and the results of the analysis will be presented.

Chapter six, consists of the statistical analysis of the work environment data, and the results of the analysis for the managers sample.

Chapter seven, in this chapter the Kuwaiti career women and the relative importance of the change affecting her; social, educational, and vocational status over the stage of the oil era, and her participation in socio-economic development will be reviewed.

Chapter eight, in this chapter, the statistical analysis of the sex differences in personality traits of the Kuwaiti male and female managers of the survey and the results of analysis and demographics characteristics for these managers will be presented.

Chapter nine, in this chapter the answer to the questions raised in this introduction will be stated, and the implications of the research results will be discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO WORK ENVIRONMENT

AND ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

In this chapter, we will shed light on the organizational environment in terms of definitions and concepts. The work environment dimensions used in the current study can be thought of as basic enduring characteristics of the whole organization which describe it and distinguish it from other organizations. In addition, considerable attention will be given to previous research on the work environment context which is relevant to our investigation and the selection of the study purpose and hypotheses.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Early human history suggests that primitive human beings banded together to achieve common goals such as mutual security, food gathering and distribution, companionship, and preservation of life. The human being began to develop specialized skills to satisfy these requirements. So, people learned that the survival of the species and, most importantly, an improved and more comfortable life depended not only on their own abilities, but on those of others as well.

If we look carefully at organizations we **find that few** people if any, are totally independent of others, **instead** we are interdependent. Each person must to some **extent rely** on others. Most of what we know and what we **have is the** result of all the knowledge and effort of **generations** before us (Costley and Todd, 1983).

Since organizations seem to be a universal **human** development, it is helpful to understand some **of the** characteristics of organizations and their **significance to** the people within them.

2.2 DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATION

The organization can be defined as "a group **of people** working together in a coordinated effort to **accomplish** particular goals (Costley and Todd, 1983)

2.2.1 Types of organizations.

The definition of organization implies **the** coordination of people so that they do the **right thing at** the right time. It also involves the degree to **which people** help each other to achieve the organization's **goals. If we** look in more detail at organizations we observe **that they** affect the behavior of people in special ways. **For example** people in banks, construction companies, factories, **mines,** newspaper companies, retail stores, hospitals or **any others** of the hundreds of types of organizations, to some **extent** act dress and behave differently. Many **factors are** responsible for these differences in behavior at **work.** Organizations whether large or small, affect **the people**

within them in a number of ways. Costly and Todd (1983)
describe the influence of the type of work and how various
factors affect the structure of organizations. They mention
that many studies indicate that the type of organization
and skills required to perform a task have strong effects
on behavior. For example, low-skilled jobs where workers
are closely supervised and perform repetitive work tend to
be less satisfying and may result in high employee turn-
over. Similarly, many other types of jobs offer little
opportunity for personal development of transferable skills
and knowledge. In contrast, jobs that require substantial
training, developed skills, and a large degree of control
over assigned work are usually more satisfying. Employees
can be strongly attached to their work even if they do not
like the organization that employs them (Costley and Todd,
1983). Most work places develop a distinct atmosphere or
climate (work environment) which is a fundamental internal
characteristic of an organization and sets the pattern for
how things are done. The climate or work environment is
determined largely by the expectations and attitudes of
managers and the reactions of employees to those
expectations and attitudes.

2.2.2 Cultures of organization

Organizational culture plays an important role in
determining organizational behaviour, and this issue has
received increasing attention in the last two decades.

Myerson (1986) in his study "Matching corporate culture and technology", defined the organizational culture as:

> "That system of norms, attitudes,
> values, belief and customs which
> govern the behavior of people
> within an organizational" (pp. 8).

This means that the culture of an organization is the sum total of everyone's behavior (employees and management) which reflects their thoughts and actions in their organization. He suggested that other elements of organizational culture are;

A: Business environment, in this respect, he stated:

> "Although there are common factors,
> the business environment for each
> company is different. The level of
> competition, the speed of innovation
> the level of government regulation
> and the relative power of the buyers
> and suppliers all influence the way
> a corporation must behave to compete
> successfully" (pp. 9).

B: Corporate values; values are the basic concepts and beliefs of the organization. They define what successful people do in the corporation and, in so doing, set the standards of achievement within the organization.

C: Routines; each organization has a set of systematic and programmed routines of day-to-day life in the company. These are the routine that provide evidence to the employees about what is expected of them.

D: Networks (or cultural network), this is an informal communication system which carries or transmits corporate values and myths.

Organizational climate could differ from sector to sector and from country to country, depending on organizational culture. Organizational climate could be an application of the organizational culture. Because persons' behavior in the organization and the way of doing work reflects the way of persons' perceiving the organizational culture.

Frank (1987) demonstrated that the organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that the group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with the organization problems of external adaptation and internal integration. In other words, culture is a pattern of basic assumption that have worked well enough to be considered satisfactory and, therefore, taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. Moreover, he added that, in managing both our external tasks in business environment and internal tasks of organizing ourselves and learning to work with each other, we accumulate solutions to various problems we face. These patterns of perceiving, thinking and feeling that tend to hang together and provide meaning to our daily events. Also, he argued that every organization has its own particular pattern of assumptions about the world, and cultural assumptions affect how the organization sets strategy, develops goals, chooses the means for reaching those goals, decides to measure its progress and controls its output, and how it decides to remedy situations that are out of line with goals. Also,

culture helps to solve the group's basic problems of survival and adaptation to the external environment and the integration of its internal process.

With regard to this issue, Rice (1963) indicates that the culture of organization is, the customary and traditional way of thinking and behaving of all its members. It includes the way managers customarily behave; their own and their subordinates' attitudes towards authority, responsibility, and discipline; the values placed on the tasks performed; the ways of performing them; and the less conscious customs and taboos. He added that the making of relationships in an organization requires the taking of roles within its social structure and the quality of relationships is governed by the same general codes.

Regarding the same issue, Philip and Dorothy (1988) demonstrated that the culture expresses the customs, traditions, viewpoints, practices and life styles of a particular people, giving people a sense of who and what they are and how to behave appropriately. They added that the knowledge of certain basic cultural concepts is paramount for global managers who are increasingly having to think in these terms of concepts. These basic cultural concepts have an impact both on an individual manager's personality and outlook, and also their business skills and abilities.

With respect to the same issue, Peters and Watermen (1982) in their study "In search of excellence" suggested that culture was frequently a source of success to

organizations. They respond to change in their work environment and achieve innovative performance by encouraging the employees's participation in the decision-making process and by fostering open discussion. This situation enables them to develop better ideas for work design and problem-solving in the organization's activities. They conclude their study by pointing out that these successful companies had learned a basic belief, that all organizational teams (managers and employees) should be innovators.

2.3 NATURE OF THE WORK ENVIRONMENT

There is a growing body of research literature pertaining to work environment. According to Sherwood (1984) many motivation theories suggest that it is the nature of the job itself that provides the greatest opportunity for reward. In the white-collar world of the American federal bureaucracy, however, it is not just a matter of what passes over the desk. Among the factors that may affect the way in which the work is perceived and, therefore, possesses potential for reward is the value placed on the agency role and mission. In addition, the security within which the work activity occurs (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; Bombyk and Chernesky, 1985; Emery, 1985; Barber, 1986; Morgan and Schiemann, 1986; Piccol et al, 1988; Spector, Dwyer and Jex, 1988; Malentachi, 1989); the freedom to be responsible and, therefore, to feel one's effort has made a difference (Henderson and Nut, 1980;

Peters and Waterman, 1982; Bombyk and Chernesky, 1985; Barber, 1986; Mannheim and Dubin, 1986; Morgan and Schiemann, 1986; Myerson and Hamilton, 1986; Kinlaw, 1988); the sense of one's value as an individual contributor (Rosen, 1985; Posner and Schmidt, 1988; Mann, 1989; Davis, 1991), and the degree to which one feels support and opportunity to be a different individual (Schlenoff, 1978; Paritzky and Magoon, 1982; Wright, 1985; Smart, Elton and McLaughlin, 1986; Posner and Schmidt, 1988; Stackel, 1988; Sims et al, 1989). He concluded that it does seem possible to think in terms of a biological model. The quality of the public service is at stake and the physio/psychological analogy may help to identify pathologies and means by which wellness can once again be achieved. From the above example, it appear quite clear that we need to learn more about the nature of our work environment.

2.4 ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Organizational environment plays an important role to determine behavior (Baumgartel et al, 1984; Jackowski, 1988; Filmer, 1985).

Roeber (1973) describes work environment as generating a set of values which influence organizational functioning and managerial thought.

There are a growing number of studies concerned with this issue. Most of the previous studies stress that organizational environment is a relatively stable internal characteristic, perceived by all the organization's teams

which distinguish cne organization from another. Also, it
can be thought of, in a sense, as the personality of the
organization (Morse and Caldwell, 1979; Forehand and
Gilmer, 1984; Steers and Porterl, 1975).

Some studies have given much attention to problems in
the organizational environment including productivity
improvement (Dineen, 1985); managers and employees opinions
about pay and benefits (Sanchez et al, 1988); vocational
training (Ducray, 1979); and management's role in
improvement and development through the changing
environment (Nicholls, 1990).

Some studies use work environment as an independent
variable and as a basis for making decision about the work
place and people at work. Allison (1988) investigated self-
subordination (willing submission to authority);
impersonalization (preference for impersonal relationships
with others on the job); rule conformity (strict adherence
to rules and regulations); and traditionalism (strong
organizational identification). An attempt to analyse the
internal consistency and temporal stability of the Work
Environment Preference Schedule (WEPS) using British
subjects, the results of his study provide further evidence
of the utility of the (WEPS) in this respect.

2.5 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Previous literature on the concept of environment,
indicates that this issue has been given wide attention.

Rice (1963) in an attempt to express the conceptual framework in his book "The Enterprise and its Environment", indicated that the internal environment of the group is made up of the interpersonal relationship of its members, their interactions with each other and with their overlapping images of the group. The group's external environment includes other individuals, group, and institutions with whom the group as a group, and individual members of it, make relationships. The internal environment, consists of the total organization system, people's job expectation and the actual demands made on them by the organization, the industrial relations or (personal relation) climate, managerial style and the reward system. While, the external environment, which includes competitors, the community, trade unions, the development of new products, processes and materials, by various agencies and various forms of government intervention (Lawler, 1973).

Chruden and Sherman (1984) reported that every organization exists in an environment that is both external and internal in nature; both the external and the internal environment are comprised of five elements; physical, technological, political, economic, and social. The environment that exists outside the organization is external environment, and it has a significant impact upon the policies and practices governing human resources management; it helps determine the values, attitudes, and behavior that employees bring to their jobs. On the other

hand, the environment that exists within the organization is the internal environment. The elements of the internal environment are: Physical, technological, social, political, and economic. These elements are affected and influenced by the policies procedures, and employment conditions that are involved in managing human resources.

Regarding the same matter, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) examining the concept of organizational environment argued that, in one sense, the environment includes every event in the world which has any effect on the activities or outcomes of the organization. Although one can conceive of an organization's environment as encompassing every event that affects it, doing so would not be useful for understanding how the organization responds. Every event confronting an organization does not necessarily affect it. They added, the most important influences on an organization's response to its environments is the organization itself. Organizational environments are not given realities; they are created through a process of attention and interpretation. Organizations have information systems for gathering, screening, selecting, and retaining information. By the existence of a department or position, the organization will attend to some aspects of its environment rather than others.

From the previous explanation, it appears quite clear that the organizational environment is an internal and external set of frameworks interacting and integrated with each other to create the enduring set of systems,

conditions, functions, behaviors, and relationship, practiced by members of the organization.

Therefore, a common way to visualize the environment is in two levels:

1. Social or general environment which is considered to affect all organization similarly within a given society.

2. Specific environment which is the sum of forces directly relevant to the particular organization. While, the general environment is the same for all organizations within a society, the specific environment is different for each organization (Callahan, Fleenor and Knudson, 1986).

Since both the general and specific environments exhibit change, organization designers must be concerned about both direction and intensity of each change.

Taking the above consideration into account, the concept of specific environment is different for each organization, this means each organization is dependent on the environment, and the environment will influence the organization's design, system, structure, and form. Accordingly, this may be considered as the basic reason for the forming of any organization, as its creation provides for the co-ordination of the operation, the employment of specialists and the appropriate delegation of authority to achieve the required overall objective.

The specific objectives of the organization will determine whether it is established in the public or private sector. Consequently, the public sector is that part of the economic system controlled by the government.

Organizations created in this sector are generally concerned with the maximization of national welfare. On the other hand, the private sector is that part of the economic system which is independent of government control in terms of management. The specific objective leading to the creation of organizations in this sector is the maximization of profit. A third type of organization may be identified whose specific objective is the making of decisions as economically as possible. This type of organization may operate in the public or private sectors, and in essentially an administrative body (Glew, Watts and Wells, 1979).

Bearing in mind the purpose of the current study, private sector and public sector organizations will be examined in order to identify their work environment characteristics as well as focusing on the relationship between employees and their administration, and employees themselves in the two sectors in Kuwait society. Therefore, the focus will include the following ten dimensions; involvement, peer-cohesion, staff-support, autonomy, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical comfort.

One may ask, why these ten dimensions only? The reason for adopting these ten dimensions is that they represent the enduring characteristics of the work environment, which reflects the actual psycho-social situation of the work's teams. It is important to note that the research's

instrument (Work Environment Scale) which is used in this study is utilize only to measure the above ten separate dimensions of organizational environment. The research's instrument, and the ten work environment dimensions will be discussed in more detail in chapter three.

With respect of the literature regarding this issue, most of the previous research did not deal with these ten separate dimensions as one subject. Many of the empirical studies have focused on two or more of the ten dimensions for instance; Crowley (1979) investigated the influence of work environment on occupational behavior. He suggested that people order their work environment preferences in a similar manner and that such preference may be interpreted as expressions of personality.

Morse and Caldwell (1979) investigated the relationship between individuals' satisfaction with task group performance and the degree of congruence between their personality predisposition and characteristics of the work environment.

In a similar investigation to the current study, Newmen (1975) investigated organizational climate and work environment, through 1,200 employees of a large private sector insurance company.

The theoretical framework used in developing his climate scales assumes that behavior is a function of both the person and that person's environment. Newman believed that the measure of the perceived work environment varies according to the level of subunit technology, as do

attitudes toward organizational and subunit **effectiveness.** Similarly, organizational formalization and **standardization** have been shown to affect both attitudes about **work** accomplishment and organizational climate. He **employed ten** separate dimensions to measure organizational **climate:** Supervisory style; Task characteristics; **Performance-reward** relationships; Co-work relation; Employee work **motivation;** Arrangement of people and equipment; Employee **competence;** Decision-making policy; Work space; and **Pressure to** produce. He identified the dimensions on the **basis of** factor analysis statistical process which reduces a **large** number of disparate measures to a much smaller **number of** underlying dimensions where such dimensions exist. **He also** added that the concept of work environment presents a **clear** link between analysis at both the organizational **and** individual level.

Regarding the same matter Cronan et al **(1985)** mentioned that over the past decade there has **been** increasing research attention concerning **organizational** climate/work environment (pp. 59). They studied **the** perceptual dimensions of organizational climate for **2,700** employees in two types of public sector organizations **and** compared their findings with results reported in **Newman's** research on private sector employees. They (Cronan et **al)** examined the perception of the work environment on **the part** of both state and city public sector employees based **upon** responses to Newman's climate index. They (Cronan et **al)** believed that organizational climate is an **important**

variable impacting on an individual employees motivation, satisfaction, job performance, and other important aspects of job behavior. They found that with public sector settings usually being more labour-intensive, formal and standardized it seems reasonable to expect some differences between public and private applications of organizational climate diagnostic inventories. By comparing their findings with results reported in Newman's research on private sector employees, they point out that public sector applications of the Newman climate scales do produce psychometric results at variance with Newman's private sector findings. Finally they concluded, that only five of the Newman's dimensions are replicated in the municipal sample: arrangement of people and equipment, task characteristics, supervisory skill, performance-reward relationships, and work motivation. With respect to the state sample, the following factors are common with Newman's dimensions: work space, task characteristics, supervisory style, pressure to produce, performance-reward relationship, and co-worker relations. However, with respects to both samples the state and the city, only the following three dimensions are common with Newman's dimensions: task characteristics, supervisory style, and performance reward relationship. Moreover, the work motivation dimension revealed strong congruence among state and city samples and conflict with Newman's findings.

Mannheim and Dubin (1986) in their investigation on work role centrality of industrial workers as related to

organizational condition, task autonomy, managerial orientation, and personal characteristics provide further evidence of the link between these four organizational dimensions in respect of industrial workers.

Chisholm (1988) in his study "Introducing advanced information technology into public organization", reported that the employees' perceptions of their work environment and work role, help them to identify their work environment's characteristics.

As a final comment on this topic, it is useful to point out that work environment has been studied extensively, and it is widely accepted that the conceptual dimensions of work environment have a substantial influence on the characteristics of work organizations. Also, there is a general consensus that the work environment concept demonstrates relationships and interaction between work group and environmental variables.

If most employees in any part of an organization, whether a section, department, division or total organization, have similar feelings about the way in which the organization responds to employees needs then we have an indication of the organization's environment which could be measured (Costly and Todd, 1983).

In the following section we will try to review the most important issues in the literature to the current study.

2.6 PREVIOUS LITERATURE ON WORK ENVIRONMENT

Although the work environment issue has been studied quite extensively little research has been conducted on work environment dimensions.

Cronan et al (1985) studied the perceptual dimension of work environment within public and private sector organizations. The data for this study was 2.700 responses gathered from six large agencies spanning a wide range of function- agriculture, fish and game, employment security, social and health services, revenue, and licensing. The results of this study indicate that there are differences between typical private and public organizational settings, with public sector settings usually being more labour-intensive, formalized and standarized - it seems reasonable to expect some differences between public and private application of organizational climate or work environment diagnostic inventories.

Daley (1986) studied the effect of job (job challenge, role clarity, and performance appraisal fairness) and work environment (personal significance, supervisory relationship, and employee freedom)- characteristics used here as indicators of humanistic management on organizational success (perceptions of organizational effectiveness, public responsiveness, and job satisfaction). The study was based on data from a 1983 survey of administrators employed by the state of Iowa and includes employees from all types of state agencies and hierarchial levels. He concluded the results with three

findings:

1. Organizations are perceived as being susccessful.

2. Job and work environment characteristics are viewed as favorable.

3. An across-board, albeit moderate, relationship between organizational success and humanistic management practices is percieved to exist.

He added that the distinction between job and work environment characteristics is somewhat arbitrary. He pointed out that the job characteristics are factors which primarily pertain to the job itself. They relate to the way in which employees perceive the duties and tasks that comprise their jobs. Work environment characteristics, on the other hand, attempt to gather together those factors which are perceived to assist or hinder the employees in the accomplishment of the prescribed tasks.

Organizational environment has been employed as a moderating variable, and work environment factors directly affect performance in the workplace. Also, improvements of work environment by new technology influence the expectations of the work group (Morris, 1989; Wall et al, 1990; Cole, 1991).

Another study focused on physical comfort (one of the base work environment dimensions) and shows how this dimension has an important influence on an attendee's attitude, degree of involvement, and sense of satisfaction from a discussion meeting, as well as their achievement on decision-making and high performance (Rosen, 1985; Frank,

1987; Malentacchi, 1989). Rosen (1985) **studied** "organizational ails", the study was conducted **within** Washington Business Group on Health. Rosen suggested that giving high consideration to physical comfort **in the** organization leads to reduction in organizational **disorders** and contributes to encouraging comfortable **environment for** work performance. He concluded that the jobs **and work** places are designed almost exclusively with concern **for** efficiency, cost and short-term profits.

Regarding the same issue, Frank (1987) has **considered** physical comfort because an organization's **philosophy and** style are often embodied in its visible manifestations.

Regarding this matter Malentacchi (1989), **studied the** health and safety of workers in the **industrial** organization. The study was conducted within **International** Metal Workers Federation (IMF). He indicated that **physical** comfort is one of the major factors in the **improvement of** work environment particularly in the industrial sector.

Finally, Finkel (1989) in "A room of one's **own",** a study conducted within IBM, concluded that physical **comfort** has a positive psychological influence on the **participants** ability to make the right decision in resolving **problems** and improving performance in organization.

Various studies have investigated the **dimension of** involvement. Cole (1991) in his study **"Education needs** greater corporate involvement" expressed the view **that work** environment is important to fully utilize the skills **of the** workforce and develop effective education **and training**

systems to bring wor..ers to world-class standards. **Efforts**
have included adaptation to the school programs; **grants to**
support specific initiatives; encouraging **certain**
innovative practices; providing training **programs for**
teachers and administrators; and offering school **volunteers**
to mentor or tutor students. Regarding the **involvement**
dimension, Horn and Stinnett (1984) have taken **employees**
involvement as a substantial instrument to solve **problems**
that can not be solved by authority in the **organization.**
The study was conducted within one of the largest **companies**
(Honeywell) in the private sector. The authors **examined the**
employees by asking them two questions: "How can we **be more**
productive?" and "How can we make this **organization a**
better place to work?" The employees would respond **to these**
two questions with a multitude of needs that, if **satisfied,**
would improve productivity and the quality of their **work.**
They concluded, that in all employee involvement **efforts**
measurement of productivity gains is part of the **concept,**
and the basic work place factor of measurement assumes **that**
people want to be measured. They added that people **like to**
keep score as long as it is an objective measure that **makes**
sense to them and it is not used punitively but to **show how**
they are, so they can discuss how to make things **better.**
Finally, they indicated some important points as a **results**
of this investigation:

A. The team of workers has work goals, which could **be**
measured by specific criteria.

B. Accounting goals: employees want to know how their role affect the cost of the business.

C. Plant goals: goals of the entire plant (or work unit) are display on a large, centrally located bulletin board so that every employee can see how the plant or unit is doing in meeting its goals.

Rosen (1985) studied the involvement dimension as one of the principles patterns of the work place which can promote a healthy work environment. He mentioned that a greater employee involvement efforts is needed to identify and correct unhealthy and unsafe work condition.

Regarding the same matter, Kinlaw (1988) indicated that the involvement dimension and clarity of purpose in the work group have a substantial influence that predict performance in the work environment. In addition, he added that there are at least five perceived conditions that predict performance:

A: Fairness: employees work best when they believe they work in an environment free of patronage and political manoevering. They work best when they believe that rewards are tied to performance and that promotions are based on merit.

B: Clarity: Employees work best when they know what is expected, the goal and objectives of their work groups and of their jobs.

C: Appreciation: Employees need to feel they are valued, and that the most influential person in conveying this value is their immediate supervisors or managers.

D: Responsiveness: Employees need to feel that the organization reacts quickly to remove blocks to performance.

E: Involvement: Involving employees in various kinds of problem-solving and decision-making groups and processes of work. He added that some organizations have implemented the involvement of employees on quite large scales. He concluded that the more positive employees are about all of these conditions, the higher will be their performance.

Similarly, Lawler and Mohrman (1987) pointed out that employee involvement can be an important step toward organizational effectiveness. They mentioned that quality circles (parallel-structure approach to getting employees involved in problem solving) change organizational decision-making by providing a vehicle through which the performers can influence their work. Employees can suggest better work methods, procedures, and occasionally organization design alternatives.

A great deal of attention has been given to the quality of working life in the public organizational environment. In this respect Jimeno et al (1985) used the QWL (Quality of Working Life) to prove the job satisfaction and high performance at the U.S. Department of Agriculture. They reported that the QWL is an important factor to measure changes and the quality of the work environment.

Rubaii and Beck (1993) conducted a study to be used as a basis for developing specific recomendations for public sector managers and personnel administrators. In their

study they found that: public sector managers, in the 1990s and beyond, need to be better trained to understand and appreciate the diversity of the workforce as it affects levels of job-satisfaction among employees. They suggested that the connection between individual behavior on the job and work benefits must be clearly established and consistently applied. Also, organizations and jurisdictions must continually reassess and improve the quality of supervision through regular training and education.

In 1994 McCrindell found that adopting the characteristics of sustainable organization is the key to success, in the private or public sector. He indicated that the gap between the two sectors on the performance and accountability front is narrowing. This is particularly true, given that the private sector is becoming more and more socially responsible, and governments are being urged to be more and more business-oriented. McCrindell clarified that a sustainable organization is one that is extremely sensitive to its environment and the needs of its employees, clients and stakeholders and it knows how to account for and measure its performance in meeting these needs.

Katzell et al (1975), suggested that a worker can be said to enjoy a high quality of working life when he/she;
a: Has positive feeling toward his/her job and its future prospects.
b: Is motivated to stay on the job and perform well.

c: Feels that there is a balance between his/her working life and private life in terms of personal values.

In similar way Machmias (1988) in his attempt to explore the quality of working life in the Federal Bureaucracy in the U.S.A. used the 1979-80 federal employees attitude survey. He described QWL as a central concept in a variety of public administration theories. According to him:

> "From a productivity manner, the
> literature is replete with propositions
> that higher QWL enhances better
> performance and reduces personnel
> turnover and absenteeism. By improving
> the quality of work experience of
> employees, the overall performance of
> the organization would also improve.
> From a social psychological perspective,
> QWL is related to the employees sense of
> social significance and self-esteem not
> only within the organization but also
> outside the work role. From an organiz-
> ational development perspective, QWL
> is related to the "hierarchy of needs
> " theory".

He conducted his study of public sector organizations by identifying five distinct dimensions of work environment (supervision, relations with co-workers, job task, relations among work groups, and economic well-being). These were inferred from a relatively large set of responses to numerous work situations.

The valuation of these dimensions conveys the federal employees wish for satisfaction of social needs from the work activity and the amount of work carried out by the worker is determined by his social capability. Non-economic rewards are most important in motivation and satisfaction of workers, who react to their work situations as groups

and not as individuals. He reported also that the **intrinsic**
dimension associated directly with characteristics **of the**
job itself, and its valuation reflects the **federal**
employees wish to be challenged by the job and to **be able**
to use their skills at work. The motivational **pattern of**
this dimension has been shown to be most conducive **to the**
achievement of high quality and quantity of **job**
performance. In addition he adds that public **sector**
employees are less satisfied with this dimension of **QWL**
than their counterparts in the private sector and **the**
groups in the organizations are linked **functionally,**
socially and psychologically.

Jimeno et al (1985) used the quality of work **life as**
an instrument for examining the quality of the **work**
environment. They used QWL for improving the management **and**
the work environment in U.S. department of agriculture **and**
other federal agencies. They concluded that, the **general**
management improvement efforts should **focus on**
communications, management of change, concern **for**
employees, work organization, and job stress.

Various studies have given attention to work **stress in**
the work environment. Piccoli, Emig and Hiltebeitel **(1988)**
reviewed some of the causes of stress in the public **sector.**
They defined stress as a:

> "state which arises from an actual
> or perceived demand/capability
> imbalance in an individual's vital
> adjustment actions. This imbalance
> is partially manifested by nonspecific

responses" (pp. 8).

They pointed out that the demand/capability imbalance is usually cited as the chief cause of stress. They added, it is as likely to occur when an individual's ability is greater than the individual's assignments as it is when the reverse situation exists. In addition they indicated that environmental factors can result in stress. They mentioned that the stress starts early for the accounting professional. Changes in the work environment and organizational changes have also been cited as causes of stress. The state of economy, for example, can affect the stress level in public accounting. Work overload, time pressure, and rigid accounting standards are the primary causes of stress in public accounting. They concluded that this variety of time pressures may be the most prevalent factor causing people to view public accounting as a stressful profession.

Regarding the same matter, Dewe (1989) examined the nature of work stress, he focused on four important themes: a: The need to clarify what we mean by stress; b: the need to reconsider how we measure stresses; c: the need to explicity recognize the role of coping by developing measures of coping strategies; and d: the need to consider the role of alternative methodologies in investigating the stress process. He concludes that: more attention should be given to such facts as intensity, frequency, and the meaning individuals attribute to events. Coping also influences individual meaning and future study in this respect. He mentioned

that, in any work setting, there are going to be a set of events which describe conflict and ambiguity. He added also, in many respects, this focus (nature of work stress) has resulted from stress definition that emphasized the elements of the stress rather than the transaction itself.

Some investigators focused on job stress and how it affects job satisfaction and job participation and relationship between job stress and strain in organization (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; Rice, 1981; Barber, 1986).

For example, Gavin and Axelrod (1977) reported that such stress related to role conflict and ambiguity, job security, participation, variation in work load and most notably utilization of skills have demonstrable ties to the psychological strains of work dissatisfaction, psychosomatic complaints and anxiety-depression-irritation.

Some studies focused on job satisfaction (Giles et al, 1978). For example, Potyka and Florence (1986) reported that male practitioners seem to be more satisfied with their job in general than females in the private sector. The staff in the private sector had higher satisfaction with salary, case size, referral control and programmatic orientation. In the literature of work role centrality of industrial and private workers as related to organizational conditions, task autonomy, managerial orientations and personal characteristics Mannhem and Dubin (1986) reported that the work role centrality indeed differs according to the work situation. Workers have higher work centrality in private as compared to labour-owned industries, when

production is organized in units rather than in batch or in semi-automatic processes, when these processes take place in a stable technolᵤgical work environment and with high task autonomy. Also the relationships between task autonomy and work centrality are persistent. But, the effects of managerial orientations are attenuated by task autonomy and by organizational conditions. In addition, they add that the situational conditions such as production system and stability, managerial orientation and task autonomy add to the variance of work role centrality explained by personal attributes of gender, education and job training and by the outcome of job satisfaction, and a combined model of both types of variables is the most efficient.

Much attention has been focused on examples of job satisfaction among public service workers. Barber (1986) states that "in 1976 Locke reported that there were more than 3,350 references on job satisfaction". With all this attention on job satisfaction, it is interesting that relatively little has been written about the job satisfaction among public service workers, and person-environment congruence and job satisfaction. Barber (1986) showed that the workers with very heavy workloads and uninteresting jobs were more dissatisfied with their jobs. Supervisors who do not receive praise for their work and tend not to like their co-workers are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs. Also, supervisors who feel that their job is interesting, valued by the agency and are comfortable with their level of job responsibility tend to

be more satisfied with their work. Regarding the **managers,** the more secure a manager felt with his job the **greater the** job satisfaction they were likely to report. In **addition** Barber adds that the more they felt their authority **was** insufficient the more likely they were to be **dissatisfied** with their job. Finally he concluded that the **number of** items that pertain to the intrinsic nature of work, **such as** achievement, **recognition,** interesting work, **advancement,** and decision making power proved to be a strong **predictor** of job satisfaction. Certain extrinsic job factors **were** important predictors of job satisfaction, such **as the** workers relationships with co-workers and their **salary.**

Some studies focus on job stress and **employee** satisfaction in the work environment. Lee and **Schuler** (1980) investigated the role perception model **of goal** setting content and leader initiating stucture, in **order to** examine the **relative** effectiveness of these two **important** aspects of organizational behavior as strategies **to reduce** role stress and to increase employees satisfaction. **The** results of **their** study indicate that individual **goal** specificity and leader initiating structure **have** significant relationship with role perceptions **and** satisfaction. **They** add that, the leader behaviours **that** provide adequate communication mechanisms and knowledge **of** goal specificity allow workers to obtain information **that** will help to reduce role stress, primarily by reducing **role** ambiguity.

At the point of person-environment congruence and job satisfaction Mart, Elton and McLaughlin (1986) (Holland, 1973,1985) found that job satisfaction is related to person environment congruence in a manner generally consistent with that proposed by Holland (1973, 1985). He found that the significant congruence main effect for males and females provides direct support and for both sexes, and intrinsic satisfaction is significantly and positively related to person-environment congruence. Also, Mart, Elton and McLaughlin (1986) reported that the failure of personality type has main effect to reach a sufficient level of significance for males and females provides direct support. Finally, the relationship between congruence and job satisfaction is consistent across gender and personality type.

In 1989 Rosenback and Zawacki in their study of participative work redesign, a field of study in the public sector, reported that the work and its contextual factors can be redesigned so that employees are more satisfied with their jobs and supervisors are also absent from work less often. Also, they mentioned that the jobs were often viewed as dissatisfying because of intolerable working condition, poor pay or other extrinsic factors which make work redesign unsuitable until they are corrected. Finally, they added that the participation could have been carried a step further by allowing employees to participate in the evaluation and actual implementation of the changes.

Rahman, Rahman and Khaleque in 1995 used the job satisfaction scale to investigate the differences between public and private sectors bank employees in Bangladish in terms of their job satisfaction. The results showed that the public sector employees had higher job satisfaction than the private sector employees. In contrast, Jayaratne et al (1995) reported that by comparing the employees from private and public sectors regarding job satisfaction, it was clear that the private sector employees reported greater job satisfaction than the public sector employees.

A great number of researches in recent years tell us about the bureaucracy of the public sector particularly in the government administration.

Regarding this issue, Lovrich, Steel and Majed (1986) in their analysis of employees attitudes to their work environment focused on the public service organization, particularly in the areas of regulation; education; social work; police officers and other enforecement personnel, judges, public lawyers and other court officers, health workers and many other employees who grant access to government programs and provide services within them. They point out that these above named categories are realy responsible and entrusted with the task of translating the content of public policy into reality in the course of their dealing with clients. Also, they mentioned that the stressfulness of the work environment, autonomy of action associated with one's job. Terruso, (1986) reported that the group members brought to their jobs a new perspective.

They also helped develop supportive networks, which **enabled** the workers to more effectively cope with a demanding **work** environment without feelings of isolation and guilt. **In** addition to teaching individual coping techniques **to the** participants, the program was able to respond **to the** workers' complaints about the stressors in their jobs **that** were beyond their individual ability to change. **Seiler and** Pearson (1984) found that a reasonably high **statistical** relationship exists for all of the environmental **factors** when regressed against the stress factors. More **evidence** that work stress exists in the work environment came **from** Brodsky (1984) He mentioned that:

> " any event or situation in
> the work environment can be
> a potential stressor, and
> whether the stimulus does lead
> to stress will depend on meaning
> the individual attributes to it,
> whether of threat, harm, or
> challenge, and on his or her
>
> appraisal of effectiveness in
>
> coping with it" (pp. 361).

In addition he added that worker stress always **carries a** meaning (sometimes conscious, sometimes unconscious) **of** negative outcome, and the more negative the **person's** reading of the significance of events at work, the **greater** the experienced stress. Also, stress may be **experienced** without the individuals being aware of it, in which **case it** would have to be inferred from behavior and emotional **and** physical symptoms. He added that the phycians or **other** counselors can help most victims of work stress. **He**

suggested that the health professional should acknowledge that stress lies in meaning, and must help its victim discover all of the forces that have converged to produce this negative meaning.

Other investigation is concerned with the relationship between organizational effectiveness and social control in organizations, namely - the aspects of control: the distribution of control among organizational levels, and the bases for this control.

Bachman, Smith and Slesinger (1966) examined the bases of control in organizations, and how these may be associated with performance, satisfaction and the total amount of control. The data, were obtained from 656 salesmen in 36 branch offices of a national firm selling intangibles. The results indicate that the total control performance and satisfaction with the office managers were all relatively high for the office manager whose leadership was perceived as resting largely upon his skill and expertise (expert power) and upon his personal attractiveness (referent power). On the other hand, the less effective office manager was one who appeared to rely more heavily upon the use of rewards and sanctions (reward power and coercive power) and upon the formal authority of his position (legitimate power) as a formal description of his role might indicate. Moreover, the author added that satisfaction with the office manager was associated to a considerable degree with each salesman's personal perception of the office administrative pattern, but after

this relationship was removed, and individual's satisfaction was also substantially related to a more objective measure of administration - the mean of all perception by those in this office. Performance, on the other hand, was not at all related to individual perception of control and bases of power, but it did show small correlations with the more objective office mean perception. They concluded that, satisfaction was subject to both structural and individual-level effects, whereas performance was subject only to structural effects. And this result has stressed the distnction between office-level and individual-level effects.

Regarding the same issue Rosen (1985) pointed out that all job performances are affected by the amount of control workers have over their activities and the extent to which they make job-related decisions. In addition he added that, most people place importance on having some control over work pace, work methods, process decisions, scheduling contact with other people and work design. He concluded that the workers like to control the potential for failures, disapproval and future stressors, and to have a say in group tasks and decisions.

Various studies and researches in recent years have demonstrated interest in the role of employees' decision making in organizations (Steers, 1977; Astely et al, 1982; Costly and Todd, 1983; Schwenk, 1984; Sherman et al, 1987). Steers (1977) indicated that situational characteristics would explain a greater portion of the participative

decision making variance than individual characteristics. Also, he indicated that females tend to be more participative than males as a group. Schwenk (1984) reported that in many organizational decisions, staff analysts may have more detailed information on the data relevant to the decision than do the top-level decision makers to whom they report. In some top-level managerial decisions, the major concern is to improve the quality of data analysis and the rationality of decision making; in others the major concern may be to better represent the views or demands of groups affected by the decision. Sherman, Fzell and Odewahn (1987) showed that there are no significant differences in either perceived subordinate influence in decisions relevant to their work or perceived supervisory influence based on whether the supervisor is male or female. Costly and Todd (1983) explained that some supervisors look upon their job as the centre of all decision making in their area of authority. The supervisor may think that failing to make each and every decision possible is shirking from management duties. Yet effective supervisors find that it is often more effective to let employees handle work related decision whenever possible.

A few researchers have examined specific factors in the immediate work environment which are influenced by the behaviour and effectiveness of the work group. Sherman (1989) investigated specific factors in the work environment which are directly influenced by the behaviour and effectiveness of the technical manager. He examined

satisfaction, communication with superior, **autonomy,** altruism-superior, need fulfillment esteem, **need** fulfillment self-actualization, higher order need, **goal** congruence, unit morale, and propensity to leave. **He found** that these variables were not homogeneous in **their** influence level. For the technicians, each of the **factors** in the work environment had a negative relationship **with** desire to leave. The most important factors **influencing** retention included unit morale, satisfaction **with** supervision, and need fulfillment in terms of both **esteem** and self-actualization. However, for professional engineering and scientific personnel, autonomy and **goal** congruence appeared to be more important influences **on** retention. He added that for engineering and **technical** support personnel, higher order need fulfillment **in terms** of self-actualization and esteem were found to be **important** influences in reducing turnover propensities. **But** communication with superiors appeared not to **have a** significant negative influence on propensity to leave.

Some studies have been focused on the **innovation** dimension, one of the basic enduring characteristics **of** work environment. in "In Search of Excellence", Peters **and** Waterman (1982) concluded that these companies had **basic** values, and one of these values is that members **of the** organization should be innovators. They added, that **most of** these companies had considered the innovation as assets **in** organization.

Regarding the same matter, Aaker and David **(1984)** notes that the Hewlitt Packard Company had adopted **an** innovative style in an attempt to encourage corporate-wide innovation.

The study conducted by Myerson and Hamilton (1986), regarding this issue, indicated that, it can be **difficult** to manage innovation and innovative people. They **mentioned** that, in some cases the innovation could be risky for **both** companies and employees. Organizations that are afraid of this type of challenge generally do not hire innovative people, and in the event that some are hired, they **tend to** systematically discourage them. They concluded that, **in a** hostile environment of this type, would be innovators **go** underground or leave the company.

Ultimately, from the literature on work **environment** and its elements such as: conditions, circumstances, **and** influences that affect the organization's ability, **it** appears that we all demand an excellent **organizational** environment which contains the factors with the **essential** elements for creating motivating and satisfying **work.** Posner and Schmidt (1988) mentioned that the findings **from** recent studies of excellent companies in both the **private** and public sectors has been that these organizations **are** distinctive. Each is perceived by its managers **to be** "special" in some way and to possess some unusual **quality** that distinguishes their organization from others. **This** quality is often closely interrelated to how **the** organization operates, that is, the organization **is**

perceived to be special in both its product and operation. This perception contributes to an identifiable organizational culture that is characterized by strong feelings of organizational pride by its employees. Also, they reported that without clear goals both the manager and the employees are deprived of a solid sense of achievement activity or the job tends to revert to "keeping busy" and "staying out of trouble" since there is no clear way to measure accomplishment in such an environment: and creativity and striving for excellence have little chance for survival. They concluded that the one unambiguous consistent message and practice in excellent organizations is that people matter. Individuals are treated fairly, honestly, and with respect. They are regarded as valuable assets, rather than simply as expenses. Under a management philosophy in which they are given meaningful responsibility, along with the freedom and authority to carry out the responsibility, managers' and employees' motivation and morale tends to soar.

In 1993, Wimalasiri conducted a comparative study between the private and public sectors in Singapore. The questionnaire used in this research closely follows a modified version of the Litwin and Stringer (1968) Organization Climate Questionnaire. The set of dimensions that were selected for the research are: support, reward system, attachment, structure, conflict, and risk. The results of this study indicated that, private sector employees seemed to have more positive feelings about their

work environment than **their** counterparts in the **public** sector. Over 70% of the **private** sector employees **positively** felt there was a supportive environment compared to **50% of** the public sector employees. A supportive environment **is** characterised by quick feedback, good communication network, willingness to experiment and close **rapport** between the superior and subordinate. Reward **for** performance appeared to be more acceptable to the **private** sector employees than **the** public sector employees. **As far** as company attachment, **47% of** the private sector **employees** expressed neutral or **negative** attitude compared to **67% of** the public sector employees who had the same perception. Conflict tolerence, **which** is considered to be **good** management practice, was **less** visible in the public **sector** than in the private sector. As far as the organizational structure was concerned **there** was a significant **difference** between private sector **and** the public sector. The **public** sector was viewed to be more structured because **of its** strict adherence to rule **and** regulations. Risk taking **is an** essential element of the market-oriented, profit-**driven,** competitive organisations. Public sector organisations, **on** the other hand, tend to be risk aversive, conservative **and** service oriented.

Work places have different characteristics or **develop** a distinct personality or different structure from **another** different organization.

To conclude, on the **basis** of the current literature **on** work environment, it is quite evident that the way **people**

act at work is influenced by the type of organization to which they belong, societal expectations, job demands, public image and peer acceptance. Also, type, size, structure, methods of control, authority relationship and climate are all important organizational characteristics.

The major types of organization include those that produce products, those that provide services, and those that provide both products and services.

The way work can be arranged to accomplish the objectives of the organization is defined by the organizational structure. The important structural considerations include: division of work, decision making level in organization, reporting relationship between employees themselves and the managers/employees in organizations. The organizational objectives include those that are operational, profit oriented and service oriented.

With respect to the elements of organization, the internal and external environment of an organization can have a significant impact upon the productivity of its human resources and upon the management of them. For example the extent to given adequate information on task performance to the employees (work's clarity) this same to provide opportunity for employees to exercise more autonomy in performing their jobs, thus giving them greater job satisfaction. A more democratic management style enables employees to participate in managerial decision making, thereby creating a psychological partnership between

managers and employees.

2.7 SELECTING OF STUDY PURPOSE AND HYPOTHESES

2.7.1 The purpose.

From the survey of the research literature on work environment we can indicate the purpose of the study.

1. Identify the work environment characteristics of the public and private sectors in Kuwait.

2. Focus on the relationship between the managers and the employees in each sector (public and private).

3. Identify the relationship between employees themselves in both sectors (public and private).

2.7.2 The hypothesis according to the work environment.

1. A significant difference will be found between the public and private sectors according to the ten main characteristics that will be examined: involvement, peer cohesion, staff support, autonomy, task orientation, work pressure, clarity, control, innovation and physical comfort.

2. With respect to previous researches and studies we expect that the private sector will show significantly higher scores on: involvement, innovation and physical comfort than the public sector.

3. The public sector will achieve higher scores on control than the private sector.

4. According to the relationship between managers and employees, the private sector will show significantly

higher scores than the public one.

5. Concerning the relationship betwe.. the employees themselves the private sector will g.ve significantly higher scores than the public sector.

2.8 MEASURES OF WORK ENVIRONMENT

For many years standardized tests ha.e been used as an important part of the procedure for selec.ing personnel for hiring and promotion. Such tests, carefully chosen, administered, and interpreted can enhance the accuracy of an industrial selection program (Hakstian et al, 1987). Regarding the same issue, Huck and Bray (1976) reported that, in recent years the assessment center has become the major method of assessing managerial personnel. They mentioned, in the typical assessment center, simulation and group exercises, interviews, and objective and projective tests are used to evaluate ability and personality, motivational factors relevant to managerial performance.

However, any validity study to evaluate the ability of any test to be useable in any society, you have to consider the following points: A. A good knowledge about the measurement and if this measurement is adaptable. B. Be sure that there is measurement congruency within the society in which this measurement is to take place.

On the other hand, it is quite difficult to plan a survey without a good knowledge of the way the respondents will react to the survey material the time the survey will take and what issues are worth discussing (Moser and

Kalton, 1975). Furthermore, the development of a questionnaire is a task that demands much patience and the acceptance of criticism and comment. It is usually through evaluation by others that a questionnaire approaches its final form in which it materially fulfils the purposes for which it has originally been designed.

In accordance with the above discussion, a large number of empirical studies have used the instruments most frequently employed to measure the work environment of an organization, taking into their consideration, the frequency of use, reliability, validity, and the original purpose of these instruments.

With regard to this issue, there are some instruments most widely used to measure work environment as follows: Bachman, et al (1966) used the scale of Control Over the Office and The Interpersonal Control to investigate the relationship between organizational effectiveness and social control in organizations. In particular, these two scales are designed to explore two aspects of the control dimension in managerial area; the distribution of control among organizational levels, and the bases for this control. Gavin et al (1977) employed two measures; Self-Reports of Work Environment, and The Anxiety-Depression-irritation (ADI) Scales to examine the effects of occupational stress on job related strains of management personnel in an underground mining organization.

Regarding the same issue Lee and Schuler (1980) studied several organizational components related to role

stress conditions in work environment. The/ employed **scales** developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman _972) to **measure** role conflict and ambiguity in the organizational environment. Also, they measured the employees' **goal** attributes, used the Goal Specifity (3-items) and **Goal** Difficulty (4-items) **Scales. These** two scales have **been** developed by Steers (1977). Leader behavi⌐ was measured **by** a 10-items scale taken from Behavior **Description** Questionnaire Form Xll **(Stogdill,** 1974 . Finally, **they** measured the satisfaction with **supervisor** measured **by the** Job Descriptive Index **(JDI),** and general satisfaction measured by 3-item scale taken from JDI measurement.

Spector, Dwyer and Jex (1988) investigated **the** relation among several job's stressors and several **stress** outcomes.

Stressors: Measures of **work-related** stressors **included** subscales that tapped role embiguity, **autonomy,** constraints, interpersonal conflict, and workload.

A: Ambiguity was measured with four items taken from **Beehr,** Walsh, and Taber (1976).

B: Autonomy was assessed **by** three items from **the Job** Diagnostic Survey.

C: Eleven items were used to assess the frequency **of** constraints that hindered job performance. These items **were** modified from Eulberg's (1984) Job Effectiveness **Survey.**

D: Interpersonal conflict, was measured with four **items** from Spector (1987a).

F: Several items were created to assess workload. These items were generated from scales developed by Arsenault and Dolan (1983), Caplan (1971), Mayes et al 1984), and Payne and Fletcher (1983) and were incorporated in both surveys.

Outcomes: Outcomes included measures of absenteeism, anxiety, frustration, health symptoms, doctor visits, intent to quit, performance, and satisfaction.

A: Absenteeism was measured with a single item in which respondents were asked to indicate the number of sick days taken in the past 3 months.

B: Anxiety was measured with 10 items state scale of Spielberger's (1979) Trait Personality Inventory.

C: The 3-item Peters and O'Connor (1980) frustration scale was used to measure secretarial frustration on the job.

D: Health Symptoms were assessed by presenting the respondents with a list of 21 specific health symptom.

E: Intent to quit was measured with a single item.

F: Secretarial performance: was measured in terms of five major work-related components: typing speed, typing accuracy, receptionist duties, administrative business, and maintaining workload.

G: general level of satisfaction was measured with the overall job-satisfaction scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire.

Regarding occupational stress, Dewe (1989) used also Rizzo, House and Lirtzman's (1970) eight and six-item scales, to examine the nature of work stress.

Morse and Caldwell (1979) employed three **separate** instruments measuring individual personality **variables,** their perceptions of the environmental characteristics **of** the group they were working in, and their satisfaction **with** their group's performance. They used Mehrabian's scales **for** the needs for achievement and affiliation combined **with** Lorsch and Morse's measures for tolerance for **ambiguity,** attitude toward authority, and attitude **toward** individualism, and Chrisitie and Gels' scale **for** Machivellianism. To measure the six environmental characteristics, Litwin and Stringer's item statements **were** used intact. These scales consist of four sets of **eight** verbally anchored Likert-scaled items with which **response** expresses level of agreement or disagreement. **Satisfaction** with task group performance, measured with an **80-item** questionnaire in which they completed Likert-type **scales** assessing their own satisfaction with their **group's** attainment of specific learning objectives.

Seiler, Houston and Pearson (1985) examined the **level** of satisfaction with the work environment **(particularly** within the academic context). They employed a **self** administered instrument to gather demographic data **and to** examine the independent and dependent variables. **The** questions which measured perception of work **environment** satisfaction were on a six-point, Word-Anchored **Likert** Scale, ranging from 1, totally satisfied to 6, **totally** dissatisfied with 3 representing satisfied more **than** dissatisfied, and 4 representing dissatisfied more **than**

satisfied. A mean response greater than 3.5 would indicate more dissatisfaction than satisfaction while any response mean less than 3.5 would indicate more satisfaction than dissatisfaction. Twenty-two questions were used to measure perceptions of selected personality traits. Each question was expressed in the form of a statement; responses were on a six-point, Word-Anchored Likert Scale, ranging from 1, totally agree to 6, totally disagree, with 3 being agree more than disagree and 4 being disagree more than agree, low scores on questions probing personality characteristics indicated perceptions of characteristics susceptible to dysfunctional stress while low scores on coping techniques questions indicated perception of effective coping mechanisms.

The questions which measured stress level have been designed from Freudenberger and Richelson's measurement scale (1980). The questions probed perceptions of change in selected behavior and attitudes: lack of trust, exhaustion, perceptions of social rejection, depression, disorientation, alienation. Respondents were asked to indicate the direction and amount of perceived change for these variables. Responses were on a five-point, Word-Anchored Likert Scale, ranging from 1 maximum dysfunctional change to 5 maximum desirable change. The authors of this study recognize the limitations of using perceptions of change in attitudes and behavior as a measurement of stress.

Crowley (1979) employed **work** environment **performance** and self-concepts, to investigate the transferability of Hollands ideas, in the work environment particularly in the educational jobs context.

Cronan et al (1985) employed "Newmen's Climate **Index**" which employs ten separate dimensions to **measure** organizational climate; **supervisory** style, **task** characteristics, performance-**reward** relationship, co-**work** relations, employees work **motivation**, arrangement **of** people, employees competence, decision-making policy, **work** space, pressure to produce. **Each** of these organizational climate dimensions is based upon multi-item (**survey** question) scales measuring **employees** perceptions on **each** dimension.

Smart et al (1986) employed "Cooperative Institutional Research Program" (CIRP) in a study to assess **the** hypothesis advanced by Holland (1973, 1985) that **job** satisfaction is positively **related** to person-environment congruence, of particualr interest are; 1. the extent **to** which this hypothesis is **valid** for three **different** dimensions of job satisfaction, 2. The degree to which the findings are consistent across the six primary personality types proposed by Holland, and 3. The similarity, of the findings for males and females. The CIRP survey contained a list of 68 possible undergraduate majors. The **authors** classified respondent undergraduate majors according to the six primary personality types proposed by Holland (**1985**): realitic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising,

conventional. The level of **congruence** between **respondent**
personality type and job was **obtained** from the **following**
item were: 3 = "Yes closely **related"**; 2   "Yes, **somewhat**
related"; and 1 = "No, not **related"**. Respondents' **gender**
was indicated on the 1971 CIRP **survey.**

From the above **view of** some previous **empirical**
studies, it appears that each **study has** employed a **special**
instrument which was designed to measure only one **or two**
factors of the work environment characteristics, **like:**
control, job stresses, job **satisfaction**, and **satisfaction**
with supervisor, and leader **behaviour**. Most of these **scales**
are not standardized on **Kuwait's** work **environment.**
Therefore, these scales are **unlikely** to be **appropriate to**
measure the work environment in Kuwait society.   **In**
May 1983 Dr. Fatehiy AbdulRaheem, from Kuwait **University,**
department of Psychology, **used the** standard test, **Work**
Environment Scale (WES) which **was** derived from the **original**
measurement, designed by Moos, **in 1974** as a Social **Climate**
Scale. This empirical **study** conducted to improve **the**
validity, and accuracy of Work Environment Scale **(WES), as**
a typical measurement to **measure** the climate **differences**
and structure, culture differences regarding the **different**
organizations in the two sectors, and an attempt to **analyse**
the internal consistency and temporal stability of the **WES.**

The validity study carried out with 715 employees **(as**
actual sample for male and **female** subjects) of a **large**
variety organizations from **public** and private **sectors,**

relative to several organizations in ...t and **Saudi Arabia**. This extensive study **consists of** . ..rge **number of** categories distributed by **27** service ...d **productivity** organizations.

Regarding the (WES) internal stabi..ty **coefficient,** and reliability coefficient, **AbdulRaheem** .sed the **same** subscales to attempt to **illustrate** the ...ability, **and** stability coefficient for **(WES),** by us...g two **type of** organizations, such as **productivity** ...anizations **and** service organizations (which **pursue** profi.. . Six **different** work groups were chosen, **relative** .. the **service** organizations such as **hospitals,** schools. ...d departments from various ministries. **Likewise,** also, ... different **work** groups were chosen, **relative** to ... **productivity** organizations such as, oil **company,** construction **company,** and co-operative.

The actual sample of **service** organizations **were 143** subjects, and with similar **number** of subjects **from** productivity organizations. **After** all previous **procedure,** he calculated the mean and **standard** deviation for **each** subscale for the two types of **work** organizations, and **the t** test was applied to **measure** the statistical **significant** difference for each subscale is **shown** in ..... 2.. .

The summary of the internal **stability** .. WES is **shown** in **Table 2.1.**

The summary of the internal **reliability Coefficient** for (WES), t test, **standard** deviation. **differential**

probability, and positive-negative attit⌐ ⌐ ⌐pon service-
productivity organizations for each subs⌐. ⌐ is shown in
Table 2.2.

Table 2.1

The internal stability coefficient for ⌐⌐⌐ and t test-
retest correlation means for each subscale.

Subscale	Internal stability	Correlation means
Involvement	0.74	0.64
Peer Cohesion	0.71	0.52
Staff Support	0.79	0.55
Autonomy	0.73	0.53
Task Orientation	0.77	0.51
Work Pressure	0.85	0.59
Clarity	0.82	0.54
Control	0.71	0.52
Innovation	0.85	0.58
Physical Comfort	0.81	0.50

(AbdulRaheem 1983, pp. 9)

Table 2.2

The summary of the internal reliability coefficient for (WES).

Subscale	Ser. org. m	s.d	Prod. org. m	s.d.	T test	p	Positive by
Involvement	4.95	1.91	6.92	1.94	8.64	0.001	prod.
Peer Cohesion	4.44	1.69	5.45	1.74	4.95	0.001	prod.
Staff Support	3.90	1.74	5.21	1.82	6.91	0.001	prod.
Autonomy	4.11	1.90	5.24	1.90	5.05	0.001	prod.
Task Orient.	5.77	1.91	6.87	1.64	5.21	0.001	prod.
Work Pressure	4.85	1.52	5.29	1.47	2.49	0.020	prod.
Clarity	4.89	1.69	6.12	1.81	5.91	0.001	prod.
Control	6.49	1.75	5.81	1.48	4.79	0.001	serv.
Innovation	4.13	1.86	5.33	1.64	5.77	0.001	prod.
Physical Com.	4.69	2.02	6.52	1.90	7.85	0.001	prod.

(AbdulRaheem, 1983, pp. 10).

Service organizations = Ser. org.

Production organizations = Prod. org.

Mean = m

Standard deviation = S.D.

2.8.1 The Description of the Work Environment Scale.

The initial design of the Work Environment Scale was by Moos in 1974. This test examines the social, psychological, and cultural environment in many different types of work organizations. Also, it focuses on the relationship between employees themselves, and the relationship between managers and employees within work organizations. In addition, the scale also examines self-development through the work environment, and investigates the basic organizational structure for different types of work organizations. This complete WES questionnaire consists of 90 items, which describe the condition, practices, and relationship in the organization.

The (WES) consists of 10 subscales distributed by 3 separate dimensions as follows:

1. Relationship dimension.

2. Personal development dimension.

3. Improvement and protection system dimension.

A brief demonstration for each subscale of (ES) follows:

First: Relationship dimension:

1. Involvement.

This subscale measures the extent , .ich the employees are concerned and linked with n..r jobs. It consists of some statements which reflect .:e activation, enthusiasm, and motivation within their job-.

2. Peer cohesion.

It measures the relationship between ..e employees, and how much they sup.ort each other.

3. Staff Support.

This subscale measures the supportive nature of the administration of the organization towards .:e employees.

Second: Personal deve.opment dimension:

4. Autonomy.

This subscale measures how much the administration encourage their employees to self-suffic.ncy and self decision making regarding their work. Also .: consists of some statements concerned with persona. growth, and development through work.

5. Task orientation.

This subscale measures the good ,.anning, and encouraging their employees to achieve the organizations' goals through their jobs..

Third: The improvemen_ and protection dimen___ _:

6. Work pressure.

This subscale measures how much the ____ system dominates the work environment.

7. Clarity.

It measures the knowledge of employees about what the organization expects from them, through bureaucracy, regulations, and the basics foundations _ work, which dominate work environment.

8. Control.

This subscale measures the extent to which the administration of the organization uses _gulations and procedures to encourage the employees to r___ and conform to the organization's disciplinary system.

9. Innovation.

It measures the diversity of purposes and different projects, which applied by the organization, to use new styles to achieve organizational jobs.

10. Physical comfort.

This subscale measures the materi__ factors and circumstances which are prevalent in the ___ place, to provide pleasant, comfortable, and encouraging environment for performance.

The first three subscales: involvement _eer cohesion, and staff support, which evaluate the degree which the employees correlate, and link with their wo _ environment, and to what range the employees are seen _ friends and support each other. Also to evaluate the range of the

relationship between managers and employee regarding the managers' supporting and helping the.. subordinates. Subsequently, these three subscales are used to evaluate the types of personal relationship, and . strong this relationship between employees themselves, and also, the relationship between the administration and their employees.

The fourth and fifth subscales: Autonomy and Task Orientation measure the extent the employees are encouraged by their adminstration to implement job satisfaction to achieve their decision-making by themselves and how much the work environment concerned about good planning, competency, and achieving works.

The last five subscales are: work pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical comfor.. These are considered as measures of the change, and protection system dimension. Whereas, work pressure measurement, which measures, the extent to which the pressure styles dominate work environment, and to hastens the employes to the work. Clarity, control, and innovation correlate with a major protective system of organization, which are set up through work group, which perform the functions by consistency, accordance, and uniform modes. Also, which associate tend to change the work environment to the optimal.

The last subscale, physical comfor. measures the extent the material circumstance in the work environment provide a pleasant climate for organization.

Work Environment Scale consists of 9u _____ns. Each question reveals statements reflecting _ _ _epresenting typical problems a manager or employee mig__ '___ at work. Also, the statements reflect, the functic__ structure of the organization, and the relationship be___een employees and their administration in the organizat__n. Also, the attitude, perception, and motivation of c___ __nagers and employees toward the work organizations. ___ecver, some statements which reflect Peer cohesion, __:: support, involvement, autonom;, task orientation, ____ pressure, control, clarity, innovation, and physical '___crt, which are those located inside the organization. ____eas these environmental characteristics are locat__ _____een the organization and its environment.

2.8.2 Method of answering

There are two alternative answers for each statement (question). The respondent has to choose __e of the two alternative answers to indicate how _____ant this statement is for him. If it fully reflects __e real daily work life in organization then the chosen answer will be yes, or if seen as being less important, the answer will be no.

From the above description and explan__ ___s, which are relative to the work environment, it is qu__ _s _vident that the Work Environment Instrument, is __ assess the environment perceived by managers and empl__ees in public and private sectors in Kuwait's wor_ environment.

Consequently, the WES measurement can be used as an instrument for empirical study to investigate the various work environment regarding the different organizations.

Therefore, the researcher decided to select the (WES) to measure the work environment in Kuwait society. Despite the complexity involved in using this standard test, the actual reason to select it is that the initial reference of similar research which studied the Kuwait and Saudi Arabia work climate by Abdul-Raheem (1983), encourage the researcher to use this standard test as instrument for his study.

CHAPTER THREE:

PERSONALITY TRAITS

The purpose of this chapter is to review the current literature in terms of both definition and concept in order to express briefly some important conceptual relationships between personality traits and behavior. As well as to shed light on the main traits which have been examined in current study, and how they have linked to behavior. In addition, considerable attention will be given to previous research and studies on sex differences in the managerial context, and selecting the study purpose and setting up the hypotheses.

A considerable number of studies have been carried out

concerning the human personality. To date, most theoretical

and empirical studies of this topic have been concerned

with all kinds of human traits and the relative importance

of individuals and their behavior, such as Guilford, 1959;

Allport, 1961; Stagner, 1961; Cattel, 1965; Mischel, 1971;

Helse, 1972.

Stagner (1961) mentioned that the human personality is

almost certainly the most complex phenomenon studied by

science. It is simultaneously, the most fascinating, at

least to many of us. This is not entirely because we

egotistically see ourselves mirrored in the intricate

architecture of another person's individuality. It is also

because, in our daily lives we must continually meet,

recognize and deal with other personalities, anticipate

their actions, understand their feelings. According to

Stagner (1961, p 14):

> "The study of the unique personality
> of each individual is extraordinarily
> difficult. If carried out logically,
> it might imply writing a separate book
> about each person studied. The study
> of the adult personality is probably
> the most complex phenomenon studied.
> It reflects some physiological components,
> such as the functioning of the endocrine
> glands, the automatic nervous system, and
> biochemical process. It is also profoundly
> affected by the social situations".

Some studies are concerned with the importance of the

study of personality. Guilford (1959) reported that the

importance of personality to laymen and to professional

groups of people alike can scarcely be denied. The

importance of the subject call for the best efforts of

science to comprehend it. Guilford volume attempts to present a scientific picture of personality.

Other studies focus directly on the organization's effect on individual personalities. Helse (1972) mentioned that the effect of work activities seems to be small but highly consistent in its effects on many different attitudes. More clearly, the occupation position seems to matter for values and orientation because it determines the conditions of self-direction that jobs provide or preclude; the critical fact of occupational position is that it is determinative of occupational self-direction.

Some studies are concerned with the consistency between a person and a job assignment. This group is concerned with personnel selection (Carlock and Martin, 1977; Yukl et al, 1982; Rim, 1984; Shock et al, 1986; Hitt and Barr, 1989; Swan, 1990), some studies looked at differences in personality between those who reach general management early and those who hold more specialized jobs. (Harrel et al, 1973; Orpen, 1983; Bolocofsky et al, 1984; Vago, 1986; Haylock, 1986; Drummond et al, 1987; Cole, 1989; Powell et al, 1989). The studies that are mentioned are concerned with the personality traits that are necessary and required for each kind of job.

Many research studies have focused primarily on behavior and the evaluation of individual differences as the major determinant of traits of personality. Some studies examined the individual and sex differences of personality in terms of what distinguishes a person from

another (Mckee and Sherriffs, 1957; Steers, 1977; Tuthill et all, 1982; Orpen, 1983; Maupin, 1987).

Some studies have been interested in differences between the sexes. Interest in this topic has increased with development of women's liberation movement, especially on the female participation in the labor force. This group is largely focused on interaction between female subject and work place (Grant, 1988; Leritz, 1989; Black, 1990).

Other empirical studies have been concerned with leadership style and leader-sex characteristics. Research using predominantly male subjects, has been used to develop criterion to evaluate both males and females but, in general men are still described as more similar to successful managers than are women (Vicino et al, 1978; Heilman et al, 1989; Stupak et al, 1987; Brenner et al, 1989). The larger area of investigation within study of women in managemant has focused on the measurement of interests, attitudes, motivations, perception and behaviourial styles of successful female and male managers and on the identification of pertinent job-related differences among managerial personality traits between men and women (Steinberg and Shapiro, 1982; Ottaway and Bhathagar, 1988; Muldrow and Bayton, 1979; Smith, 1990).

Various studies have focused on issues related to managerial functions, such as; whether the work style and sex of leaders and followers interact to affect productivity (Bullard and cook, 1975); and the relationship between subordinates' perceptual congruence and sex on

subordinates' performance appraisal of their immediate managers (Wexley and Pulakos, 1983). Some other studies focused upon job stress for men and women brought on by pressure of personality, accountability to top management, work overload, unclear job expectations, time constraits, and problems with subordinates, co-workers, and superiors (Chusmir and Franks, 1988). Fritchie (1986) in the study: "How to design women's training that gets results" concentrated on women and men in their organization, examine the barriers, structural and attitudinal, and be prepared to take positive action through training and development as well as through changes in systems, procedures and practices. This can be a very powerful motivator, effective and give the right opportunity, women can bring to the world of work a new and different approach (Fritchie, 1986). While Mcclelland and Boyatzis (1982) investigated whether it is the pattern of scores in the leadership motive pattern that is responsible for its relationship to managerial success, or some other combination which might be a better predictor of success.

As a final comment on this topic it is useful to point out that the major assumption underlying the personality concept, is that there are individual differences in terms of behavior and personality traits, which are large enough to warrant investigation. However, social scientists and psychologists have taken quite different views of these two personality elements (behavior and personality traits). Therefore, in this chapter it is necessary to discuss

briefly the following topics:

1. Definition of personality.

2. The concept of personality traits.

3. Definition of traits.

4. The concept of behavior.

5. Traits as a determinant of behavior.

6. Identify the main traits which have been examined in current study.

7. Personality traits and sex differences.

8. Reviewing the basis of the current literature which are relevant to the personality traits and sex differences within managerial context. As well as set up the purpose of this study and the hypothesis to this research.

3.1 DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

Personality has been defined in many ways by different observers. Each such definition has something to offer by way of emphasis upon a particular fact of the complicated whole, and each definition is likely to imply certain methods, certain techniques of scientific investigation.

There are a number of definitions of personality, in the sense that there are several different meanings attached to the word as it is used conversationally, according to Guilford (1959), he stated that the:

> " one idea on which all seem
> to agree is that each personality
> is unique. Building upon this
> idea as a foundation, it is
> proposed that personality can be
> defined as a person's unique pattern
> of traits. A trait is any relatively

enduring way in which a person
differs from others. This definition
places the emphasis upon
individual differences" (pp. 9).

The most common and unscientific definition is:
"personality is your effect upon other people" (Stagner,
1961, p.4). But the scientific conception of personality
within psychology has been defined in many ways. It may be
appropriate to summarize briefly some of the meanings
attached to conceptions of personality by earlier
psychologists. Quoting Kempf (1919) Stagner (1961) has
defined personality as :

"the habitual mode of adjustment
which the organism effects between
its own egocentric drives and the
exigencies of the environment"
(Stagner, 1961, p.4).

As phrased, this would include practically all of human
behaviour, since the vast majority of our responses do
consist of just such habitual ways of adjusting. Also, in
(1924) Prince identified the personality as a potentially
useful emphasis on the inner aspect or style. Quoting to
Prince (1924), Stagner (1961) write:

"personality is the sum total
of all the biological innate
dispositions, impulses,
tendencies, appetites and
instincts of the individual,
and the acquired dispositions
and tendencies" (Stagner, 1961, p.4).

Allport (1961) himself prefers definitions of
personality that emphasize three main things, an
organization of properties that refer to general styles of
life and modes of adaptation to one's surroundings and

reflect the idea of the progressive growth and development of individuality or distinctiveness. Allport (1937) stated that:

> "personality is the dynamic
> organization within the
> individual of those psychophysical
> systems that determine his
> unique adjustment to his
> environment" (pp. 48).

His definition has probably been more widely cited than any other. Also, definition of personality in terms of distinctiveness are illustrated by Shoen's (1930, pp. 397) and Lazarus (pp. 59, 1961). Lazarus:

> "personality is the organized
> system, the functioning whole
> or unity of habits, dispositions
> and sentiments that mark off
> any one member of a group as
> being different from any other
> member of the same group".

Stagner (1961) offers a more useful formulation that personalty is the individual's characteristic reactions to social stimuli and the quality of this adaptation to the social features of his environment. Hampson (1982) stated the definition of personality considered acceptable by many psychologists today, quoting Block, Weiss and Thorne (1979) Hampson (1982) stated:

> "personality refers to more or
> less stable internal factors
> that make one person's behaviour
> consistent from one time to
> another, and different from
> the behaviour of other people
> would manifest in comparable
> situations" (Hampson, 1982, p.1).

Finally many different studies offered a definition of

personality in the different situations. Feshbach and Weiner (1982) defined personality as:

A. Relatively enduring behaviour patterns and traits that distinguish people, groups, and cultures;

B. The overall organization and structure, of these enduring behaviour patterns and traits; and

C. The interactions among these patterns as well as the interactions with the fluctuations in an individual's internal state and the changing external stimulus situation. As a general conclusion, from the above literature survey on personality definitions, there appears to be strong evidence that without understanding the nature of an individual's personality we cannot fully understand his behaviour. Also, we cannot perceive the clear picture of any person until we know well his personality. Consequently, the personality plays an important role in determining the individual's behaviour, along with the situations to which the previous definitions are exposed.

3.2 PERSONALITY TRAITS

While the study of personality is concerned with human tendencies, the description and analysis of individual differences are also of central interest. Referring to Lazarus and Alan (1979) comments that the reaction to stimuli in the environment, whether physical or social, represent powerful determinants of our thoughts, feelings and actions. Allport (1924) suggests: "personality traits may be considered as so many important dimensions in which

people may be found to differ" (Allport, 1924, Stagner, 1961, pp. 5). This seems much too inclusive, for example, it includes a physical dimension, which is only indirectly of importance for personality. However, reference to environmental influences is usually insufficient to explain fully our behaviour. In other words, each of us comes into the world with different attributes that influence our actions and reactions, and with experience we develop unique psychological foundations, which lead us to react differently from others in the same situations. These differences in actions or reactions to stimuli in the environment; and many other points of difference and similarity of personality is to select out of individual's myriad behaviours those actions that reflect significant personality dimensions. These relatively stable personal characteristics are typically referred to as traits. Fonagy and Higgitt (1984, p.102) suggested:

> "Traits theories of personality assume
> that we all possess broad dispositions
> to respond to stimuli in particular
> ways: for example, a friendly person
> is likely to respond with helpfulness,
> warmth, interest, attentiveness and
> thoughtfulness to a variety of situations
> such as meeting a stranger, visiting
> family members or going out with a friend.
> This predisposition is called a trait".

3.2.1 Definition of trait.

The definition of traits as Geiwitz (1969) stated is a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system (peculiar to the individual), with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide

consistent equivalent forms of adaptive and expressive behavior.

Mischel (1971) described the traits as :

> "one of the most enduring approaches
> to personality seeks to classify
> people according to their
> psychological characteristics.
> He mentioned that, most sciences
> are concerned with naming things
> and classifying them into groups
> or categories in an orderly fasion.
> Such taxonomies are seen, for example,
> in the biological classification of
> living things into general and species.
> In daily life, people also categorize
> themselves on almost endless dimensions.
> Some of these involve over attributes
> for example, sex, race, nationality,
> occupational, while others require
> indirect inferences about hypothesized
> attributes-such as temperament,
> character, motives, attitudes.
> In addition he pointed that the trait
> are continuous dimensions on which
> individual differences may be arranged
> quantitatively in accord with the amount
> of an attribute that the individual
> has. Finally, he
> defined the traits as "is any
> distinguishable, relatively enduring
> way in which one individual varies

from others". (pp. 22)

Regarding the same issue, Allport (1961) mentioned that traits never occur in any two people in exactly the same way, they operate in unique ways in each person. This conviction was consistent with his emphasis on the individuality and uniqueness of each personality. To the extent that a trait is unique within a person rather than common among many people, it cannot be studied by making comparison among people.

Feshhach and Weiner (1982) described traits as stable

personal characteristics which reflect significant personality dimensions. The introversion-extroversion is one trait on which one person differs from the other. Introversion is the tendency to be attentive and interested in one's own thoughts and feelings, while extroversion is the tendency to be strongly oriented to other people and social situations.

Lawrence (1984) defined traits as underlying structures that are assumed to account for this relative stability and consistency. Also, trait refer to behavioral patterns that are frequently intense, and expressed over a range of situations. He added that most people are consistent in their behavior some of the time and variable in their behavior the rest of the time. In other words, each person can be expected to be consistent in ways that are salient or meaningful for him or her. The areas of consistency differ with different individuals.

As a final comment on this topic, it is useful to extract from the discussion above the point that traits are not observed, behaviour is observed, and traits can only be inferred from the observations. The traits are properties of a person, general cues to traits are in what the person does, how he does it, and how well he does it. The cues in behaviour that lead to inferences concerning traits are called trait indicators. More clear professional interest in this point concerns the way the person is constructed, so to speak, the psychological properties or traits that influence his actions in various situations and how these

develop and work. The emphasis is not on how others react to the person, but rather on the consistent ways in which he/she reacts.

It is important now to look at other elements of personality, since the nature of an individual's personality consists of various elements, including behaviour. Our attention in the next section will focus on the way behaviour plays an important role in determining personality characteristics.

3.3 THE CONCEPT OF BEHAVIOUR

In this issue Pervin (1984) pointed out that, in observing our own behaviour we are struck with aspects of ourselves that are different and yet the same, with a sense of stability in the face of constant variation. Such dual observations of ourselves are the norm and we are bothered when our behavior is so rigid that it is at times painfully inappropriate to the situation or so variable that we lose the sense of who we are. He added, that, in some ways there is reason to believe that the emphasis on internal or external determinants of behavior involves broad philosophical commitments in addition to rational decisions based on scientific evidence.

Regarding the same issue, Guilford (1959) mentioned that, one of the most frequently stated objectives for the science of psychology is to understand the person's behaviour. In addition, he pointed out that, the more complete our understanding of the principles of behaviour

and the more knowledge we have concerning individuals, the more fully can we predict their behavior. He added that, the predicting behavior comes from two main sources, one is the situation, including the focal part (stimulus) and the back ground, which contains many elements, usually of secondary importance. The other main sources is the person, including his temporary organic conditions and his more permanent traits. The organic conditions have to do with present state of health and motivation. He concluded his discussion that, all of these sources including traits, may be regarded as joint determiners of behavior.

Regarding the same issue, some psychologists interested in cognitive styles, examine the ways in which differences express themselves in performance of various tasks and in interpersonal behaviour. They suggested that cognition, affect, and behavior are related or causally interconnected systems of functioning. A clear implication of this suggestion is that cognition does or may play a role in affect and non cognitive aspects of behavior. In other words, what we think does or may play a role in what we feel and what we do. Many psychologists support this idea (Schachter, 1964; Lazarus, 1981; Weiner, 1982; Mandler, 1982). They view our emotional state as a result of the interaction between cognitive and physiological processes. In other words, they viewed an interaction between internal processes, (i.e. physiological state) and external variables (i.e. the situation that is then perceived by the individual) as critical in human

functioning.

Some psychologists interested in cognitive learning and cognitive behavior therapy perspectives even suggest that intrinsic to such an approach is the assertion that thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are "causally interactive". Mahoney (1977) suggests that environmental events can be important in influencing human behavior. Their influence is mediated by cognitive representation or interpretations of the events and cannot be isolated from other cognitive and affective processes going on in the organism.

Other psychologists are concerned with the entire process of social interaction. Fazio, Effrein and Falender (1981) suggest that behaviors have implications for cognitive processes as well. They add that each person is responding to behavioral cues from others and forming cognitive judgements in relation to them. More clearly it means that each person is viewing his (or her) own behavior as well and forming his (or her) own self-concept in part on the basis of this self-perceived behavior.

Another group is concerned with self-perception theory. Bem (1972) extended observations such as these to suggest more broadly that people come to "know" their attitudes and emotion by inferring them from their own overt behavior. He added that when internal cues concerning attitudes and feelings are weak or unclear, the person observes his or her behavior and makes judgements concerning his or her thoughts and emotions accordingly.

Cognition is clearly a part of this process in that individuals as observers are perceiving their own behavior.

Finally, Pervin (1983) interested in the relation between affect and behavior, notes that there is a complex relation between what one is feeling and how one behaves. He added, the same feeling may lead to very different behaviours, depending on one's goals or motives and the characteristics of the situation, one may feel angry and express it or not depending on the anticipated consequences and, similarly, with feelings of attraction or love. Considering the reverse relationship, different behaviors can be associated with the same feeling and same feeling can be associated with different behaviors.

As a general conclusion to this topic, most of the psychologists have emphasized that our thinking, feeling and what we are doing are related to one another.

Some researchers have indicated that cognitive processes are important not only in and of themselves, but also for what we feel and how we behave. They emphasized that cognitive interpretations of situations play an important role in determining what we feel and how we behave. Some emphasize the importance of emotions or affects in human functioning. While, recognizing a complex interplay among emotions, cognition, and behavior, they emphasize that emotions constitute the fundamental motivational basis for our behavior. Certain emotions are seen as universal and innate. While, we learn what to respond to emotionally and how to respond emotionally, the

underlying emotional structure that energizes and directs
our behavior is innate and universal.

Also, there is considerable evidence that affect and
mood can influence virtually all cognitive and behavioral
processes.

Some psychologists have pointed out that all there is
to be considered overt behavior and its relationship to
environmental reinforcement contingencies. Other have
considered the potential influence of observations of our
own behavior on what we think and feel. Finally, the
behavior therapists have also emphasized how changing overt
behavior can be accompanied by or lead to changes in
feelings and cognition, again suggesting at least some
degree of interconnection.

After focusing on some personality determinants which
distinguish people from each others, such as traits and
behavior it is useful now to turn our attention to the
relationship between traits and behavior. This will allow a
clearer picture of the underlying structures of the
personality as well as identifying the main traits which
will be examined in the current study, and how these traits
are linked with behavior.

3.3.1 The traits as a determinants of behaviour

Regarding to the relation between traits and behavior,
Guilford (1959) mentions that we cannot completely account
for behavior in terms of the situation alone. There are
another class of determinants of behavior, namely the

individual's temporary organic condition. He attributes this organic condition to the enduring properties of the individual- which are traits. Furthermore, he pointed out that personality traits are dispositions that tend to persist through changes in personality. He has given an example for this change when a person living on a near-starvation diet becomes unsocial, irritable, and depressed. He indicated that a change in disposition that lasts over a period of several weeks is a genuine, but temporary, change in personality, but that day-to-day changes associated with organic conditions do not come in the same category. When the unusual organic condition has passed the individual returns to his former dispositions. This indicates that these are stable properties that we may attribute to him. If, however, the previous dispositions do not return, there has been a permanent change of personality. Finally, he concluded his discussion by emphasizing that behavior can be partially accounted for, or predicted by, these personal properties called traits. Also, he mentioned that it is not necessary to assume that traits by themselves can bring about behaviour without temporary investigating forces provided by drives or motives on the one hand and by external stimulation on the other. Behavior is a joint product of temporary organic conditions, the situation, and personality traits, all operating together at the moment.

From the above explanation, it appears quite clear that personality traits are one of the main determinants of behaviour.

More evidence of personality traits as determinants of behavior, is suggested by Allport (1961). He refers to traits as a determining tendency, or long-range mental sets, or disposition of readiness to behave in a certain way. In addition, he suggested that the traits expresses what a person does in the long run over many situations, not what he (or she) will do in any one situation. Finally, he added that the traits concept refers to an aggregate of behaviours.

Similarly, Cattel (1965) emphasizes with the evidence of relative stability of behavior overtime and across situation. He mentions that the traits refer to the underlying structures that are assumed to account for this relative stability and consistency. Traits refer to behavioral patterns that are frequent, intense, and expressed over a range of situations. He suggests that what a person does in a situation is the result of among other things, the individual's enduring personality characteristics and his (or her) perception of the situation's relevant demands. Both person and situation influence behavior.

Regarding the same issue Mischel (1971) states:

> "In every day life people habitually
> use trait terms. They employ these
> terms not just to describe what people
> do but also to explain their behavior.
> We have not really explained anything,
> however, if after attributing a trait
> to a person on the basis of his behavior,
> we later invoke that trait as the cause
> of the very behavior from which we
> inferred it". (pp. 22)

He added that the traits are constructs to account for observed behavioral consistencies within persons and for the enduring stable behavioral differences among them in their responses to similar stimuli.

As a general conclusion, from the previous literature review on personality and personality traits, there appears to be strong evidence that personality is a pattern of steady states valued by the person, with the unique ways of protecting these states which he has developed. Also, the personality thus formed can be described by analyzing it into traits, or it can be treated as a unique whole. Also, whether we consider traits to be predominantly perceptual or predominantly patterns of response, it is clear that they grow out of specific experiences and are gradually built up into consistent, organized systems.

In terms of behavior, the same conclusions apply to our observations from the previous review, that people respond to the same situation in different ways; the situation that the person faces also plays a significant role and in many cases the dominant role. Also, the social learning experiences have great impact on personality-individuals brought up in different cultures or social classes behave differently. There are different viewpoints among researchers about an active organism in the individual's behaviour, some of them emphasize an active organism influenced by internal structure and some emphasize a passive organism responsive to external stimulation, other emphasizing the alternative sets of

determinants- the trait and psychodynamic views emphasizing internal structures or person variables and the situationist view emphasizing external determinants or situation variables.

In terms of relationship between traits and behavior or to determine the causes of behavior, it could be that people develop their own implicit or lay theories of personality and attribute the causes of events to internal (traits) and external (situations) factors. Traits involve frames of reference for judging the kind of situation a person wants to approach or avoid, the kind of action which characterizes him, and his habitual relation with others.

3.4 THE MAIN TRAITS WHICH HAVE BEEN THE SUBJECT OF THE PRESENT STUDY

It is useful now to focus on the main traits which have been examined in the current study.

Bearing in mind the main purpose of this study is to identify the personality traits for male and female managers in the managerial sector in Kuwait society, the focus of our attention are the basic stable traits which we need to describe the basic units of personality of these two groups in the managerial context.

To achieve this objective we must determine and choose the applicability of the most suitable instrument to obtain our objective. Hence, we used the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, because it allows the measurement of variance from an idealized personality. Also, it is used by

many researchers to collect data on personality differences between the sexes. For example, Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) used the 16PF to investigate the extent of personality differences between female and male MBA students; Hui and Triandis (1985) used the same instrument for cross cultural studies; Ottaway and Bhatnagar (1988) used 16PF to measure the differences between male and female managers in the United States and India; and Kapoor (1965) used the 16PF to measure the individual's personality.

Moreover, the 16PF instrument has been standardized in Kuwait society by Dr. Abo-Allam and Dr. Sharif (1984) from Kuwait University, Department of Educational Psychology. The comparison between the 16 PF and other instruments that have been used by other investigators, and description of 16PF instrument will be discussed in chapter 6.

In the present study each factor (trait) on the 16PF measure was separated into two discrete traits, to obtain a clearer picture of personality differences between the sexes, as follows:

A: Reserved to outgoing.

B: Less intelligent to more intelligent.

C: Emotional instability to emotional stability.

E: Humble to assertive.

F: Sober to happy-go-lucky (lively).

G: Expedient to conscientious.

H: Shy to venturesome.

I:Tough-minded to tender minded.

L: Trusting to suspicious.

M: Practical to imaginative.

N: Forthrigt to shrewd.

O: Placid (self-assured) to apprehensive.

Q1: Conservative to experimenting.

Q2: Group-dependent to self-sufficient.

Q3: Undisciplined to controlled.

Q4: Relaxed to tense.

It can be noted here that there are brief discussions of the meanings and description of the first and second factors (traits), as well as an explanation for indicator scores which reveal that the subject is a first or second trait, in coming chapters.

With respect to the relationship between the main traits which have been examined in the present study, and how they have been found to be linked to behavior. It is assumed that behavior is mainly determined by broad traits that manifest themselves in a stable way across many conditions. Consistently, Mischel (1971) points out that traits are always inferred from the individual's behavior for example, from what he says about him self on a questionnaire. He adds that the person's responses or behaviours are taken as indicators of his underlying traits.

Regarding the same issue, Loevinger (1957) reported that the traits approach to personality is a "sign" approach in the sense that there is no interest in the test

behavior itself. He added that test responses are of value not in their own right but only as signs of traits that underly them; test behavior is always used as a sign of notest behavior.

In accordance with previous discussion in the current study the person who has "reserved" traits's, tends to work alone, and avoiding compromises of view points. He is likely to be precise and rigid in his way of doing things and in personal standards. On the other hand, if he has "outgoing" traits, he tends to like occupations dealing with people and social situations. He readily forms active groups, he is generous in personal relations.

The person who has "less intelligence" tends to dullness may be simply a reflection of low intelligence, or it may represent poor functioning due to psychopathology. On the other hand, if he has "more intelligence" he tends to be a fast learner, intelligent, and some correlation with level of culture, and some with alertness.

The person who is "affected by feelings" tends to be active in dissatisfaction, having neurotic symptoms. But, if he is "emotionally stable" tends to possess ego strength, better able to maintain solid group morale. Sometimes he may be a person making a resigned adjustment to an unsolved emotional problems.

The person who is "humble" often has behavior dependent, confessing and anxious for obsessional correctness. But, if he is "assertive" he tends to be austere, a law to himself, hostile or extrapuntive,

authoritarian (managing others), and disregards authority.

The person who is "sober" tends to be sometimes dour, pessimistic, unduly deliberate, and considered smug and primly correct by observers. On the other hand, if he is "Happy-go-Lucky" he tends to be cheerful, active, expressive. He may be impulsive and mercurial.

The person who is "expedient" tends to be casual and lacking in effort for group undertakings and cultural demands. Also, he tends to be free from group influence. But, if he is "conscientious" he usually tends to be moralistic and prefers hard working people.

The person who is "shy", usually has inferiority feelings. He tends to be slow and hesitate in speech and in expressing himself, dislikes occupation with personal contracts, prefers one or two close friends to large groups. On the other hand, if he is "venturesome", his (thick-skinnedness) enables him to face wear and tear in dealing with people and gruelling emotional situations without fatique.

The person who is "tough-minded" is sometimes unmoved, hard cynical and smug. He tends to keep a group operating on a practical and realistic "no-nonsense" basis. On the other hand, "tender-minded" is sometimes demanding of attention and help, impatient, dependent and impractical. He dislikes crude people and rough occupations. He tends to slow up group performance, and to upset group morale by unrealistic fussiness.

The person who is "trusting" is free of jealous, tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, uncompetitive, concerned about other people, a good team worker. On the other hand, if he is "suspicious" he is often involved in his own ego, is self-opinionated, and interested in internal mental life. He is usually deliberate in his actions, unconcerned about other people, a poor team member.

The person who is "practical" tends to be anxious to do the right things, attentive to practical matters, and subject to the dictation of what is obviously possible. But, if he is "imaginative" he tends to be unconcerned over everyday matters, Bohemian, self-motivated, imaginatively creative concerned with "essentials" and oblivious of particular people and physical realities.

The person who is "forth right" tends to be sometimes crude and awkward, but easily pleased and content with what comes, and is natural and spontaneous. But, if he is "shrewd" he is often hardheaded and analytical. He has an intellectual, unsentimental approach to situations, an approach akin to cynicism.

The person who is "placid" tends to be resilient and secure, but to the point of being insensitive of when a group is not going along with him, so that he may evoke entipathies and distrust. On the other hand, when he is "apprehensive", he has a childlike tendency to anxiety in difficulties. He does not feel accepted in groups or free to participate.

The person who is "conservative" is cautious and compromising in regard to new ideas. Thus, he tends to oppose and postpone change, is inclined to go along with tradition, is more conservative in religion and politics, and tends not to be interested in analytical intellectual thought. But, if he is "experimenting" he tends to be skeptical and inquiring regarding ideas, either old or new. He tends to be more well informed, less inclined to moralize, more inclined to experiment in life generally, and more tolerant of inconvenience and change.

The person who is "group-dependent" tends to go along with the group and may be lacking in individual resolution. He is not necessarily gregarious by choice; rather he needs group support. On the other hand, if he is "self-sufficient" he tends to discounts public opinion, but is not necessarily dominant in his relation with others. He does not dislike people but simply does not need their agreement or support.

The person who is "undisciplined" tends to be not overly considerate, careful, or painstaking. He may feel maladjusted, and many maladjustments (especially the affective, but not the paranoid). On the other hand, if he is "controlled". He tends to have strong control of his emotions and general behaviour, is inclined to be socially aware and careful, and evidences what is commonly termed (self-respect) and regard for social reputation. He sometimes tends, however, to be obstinate.

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The person who is "relaxed" tends to be in some situations, his over satisfaction can lead to laziness and low performance, in the sense that low motivation produces little trial and error. Conversely, high tension level may disrupt school and work performance. On the other hand, if he is "tense" he tends to be often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive. In groups he takes a poor view of degree of unity, orderliness, and leadership. His frustration represents an excess of stimulated, but undischarged, drive (Manual for the 16PF, 1984).

From the above explanation, it appears quite clear that there is strong evidence that traits are linked to behavior. Also behavior is always a function of both the characteristics of the person and the situation in which the behavior is occurring. Furthermore, traits may influence behavior at any place in a behavioral sequence from what is registered and processed to how a response is expressed.

3.5 PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SEX DIFFERENCES

Sex difference conform to the popular stereotype of masculine and feminine personalities, and the existence of the stereotype may explain many of the differences. With respect to the above suggestion, Patterson (1975) reported that in the late 1960s several writers questioned the fundamental ability of women to adopt a managerial model that essentially conforms to the male stereotype of the culture. Similarly Chambers (1974) and Wood (1975)

indicated that in the early 1970s businessmen and academicians began to call for programs on management change which could develop women's traits so that they could become more consistent with those of male managers and hence more adaptive to the general business climate. However, other researchers who support women in management argue that, given personality differences between men and women, the two sexes can function to complement each other without in any way modifying their basic behavioral styles (Killian, 1971; Chamber, 1974). These three views are different in their perceptions of the precise role women play in management, but all agree on the point that basic distinctions exist between the two sexes. Moreover, most of these studies, in forming descriptions of female managers, have cited characteristics found in traditional stereotypes of women in general.

In addition, Pillai (1983) examined the relationship between achievement and masculinity-femininity. The study was conducted on a sample of 532 students, studying in first degree courses in four arts and science colleges affiliated to the university of Calcutta. He found that, a high masculine students score significantly higher on achievement than low -masculine students. There is a significant, positive and substantiative relationship between achievement motivation and masculinity-femininity even when the effect of intelligence and socio-economic status are controlled.

Regarding the same issue, Stagner (1961) mentioned that females are more submissive, do not have as strong a desire for achievement, as males.

Social power and influence processes have enjoyed a long traditional and a prominent position in social science research (Lord, Phillips and Rush, 1980). Current interest in studying sex difference in managerial sector, especially male-female managerial personality traits has provided impetus for many research studies (Heilman et al,1978; Brenner and Greenhaus, 1979; Brenner, 1982; Anderson, 1987; Ottaway and Bhatnagar, 1988).

The nature of differences between males and females has concerned social science research for many years (Yoder and Rice, 1982). Most empirical studies of this topic have concentrated primarily on the behavior of the individual being evaluated as the major determinant of leadership personality (Obrien and Kabanoff, 1981; Rice, 1981; Remland, Jarolyn and Jones, 1983; Camden and Witt, 1983; Chanin and Schneer, 1984; Wofford, 1985).

Some studies focus on situational leadership and how leadership style influences the behavior of other-managers, consultants, administrators, teachers, trainers or parents to be more effective in their everyday interactions with others. Hambleton et al (1982) reported that the recognition of task behavior and relationship behavior as two critical aspects of a leader's behavior has been an important part of management research over the last few decades. Also, he mentioned that the two types of behaviour

can be defined in the following way:

>"Task behavior is the extent to which
>a leader indicates in one-way
>communications what each follower is
>to do, as well as when, where and how
>tasks are to be accomplished. And
>relationship behavior is the extent
>to which a leader engage in two-way
>communication by providing
>socioemotional support (psychological
>strokes) and facilitating behaviors".

He indicated that the situational leadership is based on

interplay among:

1. The amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives,

2. The amount of socioemotional support (relationship

behavior) a leader provides, and

3. The "maturity" level that a subordinate exhibits on a

specific task, function, or objective that the leader is

attempting to accomplish through the subordinate.

As a final comment on this point he mentioned that

there is a definite and significant relationship style of a

manager in particular situations and manager's perceptions

of subordinate job performance; and also, in those

situations where situational leadership was applied

correctly by managers, subordinate job performance was seen

to be higher, and the size of the gain in job performance

was practically, as well as statistically, significant.

Investigators have largely focused on the interaction

of leadership style and leader-sex characteristics which

have been extracted from studies, and have predominantly

used male subjects in order to develop criteria to evaluate

both males and females.

A study by Brenner and Greenhaus (1979) used selected personality traits to explore the authenticity of the male managerial stereotype. The relationships between managerial status, sex and the traits of achievement orientation, aggression, dominance, and nurturance were investigated. Results for all traits except aggression supported the managerial stereotype, whereas results for dominance and nurturance supported male and female stereotypes. However, there was little support for male managerial stereotype, since only nurturance showed an interaction between managerial status and sex.

Brownell (1994) studied the "Personality and career development: a study of gender differences. The results of this study showed that, female general managers' self-reports of the personality traits that contributed to their career advancement present a profile characterized by determination, excellent communication skills, and hard work. The women also relied on their enthusiasm and positive attitude in making their way through the organization. The men also relied on effective communication, determination, and hard work, two additional characteristics that consistently emerged were integrity and loyalty. Brownell (1994) also indicated that in terms of what researchers have considered male and female stereotypes, include ambitiousness, goal orientation, and strong financial ability. Current study regarding female stereotypes includes compassion, enthusiasm, and

flexibility. However, in this study, the self-reports of both male and female samples conform only marginally to stereotypical notions of gender-linked characteristics.

A variety of studies have indicated that research evidence can substantiate or disprove varies stereotypes about the sex-related characteristics, which means that one cannot depend upon social stereotypes about relating specific characteristics to a specific sex.

As a general conclusion, there is strong evidence that the studies on sex differences in personality traits showed mixed and different results.

1. The studies which showed no significant difference between males and females in personality traits and job levels.

Rosenberg (1987) reported that male and female managers may be more like one another than unlike one another. Adams and Hicks (1978) investigated the relationship between male and female leader description of their own behavior and the followers description of the leader's behavior in traditionally male-oriented leadership positions. Subordinates in the platoons were asked to describe their leader's behavior on two dimensions, consideration and structure. They found that there are no significant differences in leader behavior between male and female platoon leaders in their activities to accomplish the mission (structure). Reynolds (1979) reported that there were no significant differences between male and

female students in their evaluations of instructors. Graves and Powell (1982) in their study of sex differences in implicit theories of leadership, found that the male and female employees respond equally well to a leader who is high in both structuring and consideration-oriented behaviors. However, there may be sex differences in how employees respond to leaders as a function of traits which leaders display. Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) found that male and female MBA students did not differ on traditional aspects of personality as measured by Cattell's 16 P.F., or the California Personality Inventory (C.P.I.). However, on the C.P.I., female MBA students scored higher than males on "masculine traits" and the males scored higher than the females on "feminine traits". Also, Yoder, et al (1982) examined the reliability of the attitudes towards women and the personal attributes, they found that both women and men exhibited increases in the strength of their self-concept, organizational commitment and the internationality of their locus of control.

There is more evidence that no significant difference between females and males in managerial level exist. Instone, Major and Bunker (1983) in their investigation whether women and men in positions of equal power differ in the strategies they use to influence the work of their subordinates, found overall results suggest that men and women supervise others relatively similarly when they have equal access to power resources. Adams, Rice and Instone (1984) mentioned that there are no significant differences

between male and female leadership styles. Also, Boulgarides (1984) in a comparison of male and female business management, found that there are no significant differences in the characteristics of the male and female groups. However, there is a statistically significant difference in the average salary between the two groups with the exception of salary. Thomas and Littig (1985) from their study of the typology of leadership, found that there are no significant differences between males and females in four types of leadership style. Quoting Davidson and Cooper (1986, p 304) stated:

> There were overall similarities between female and male managers, in terms of job demographics. Both female and male respondents tended to work in organizations with predominantly men in senior management and had male and female colleagues. The majority of men and women managers had tended to have continuous work pattern profiles, although a higher percentage of women had a break from the work force and more female managers had at some time, worked part-time. On average, there were no differences in the number of years women and men managers had worked full time in their organization or in their present job and both sexes had worked for the same mean number of organizations throughout their lifetime of full-time employment.

Finally, they mentioned that the stress resistance strongly predicts emotional and physical distress among both men and women. At a study of personality, coping and family resources in stress resistance between males and females, Holahan and Moos (1986) found that stress resistance was equal for males and females.

Dobbins and Platz (1986) reviewed 17 studies examining sex differences in leadership and indicated that male and female leaders exhibit equal amounts of initiating structure and consideration, and have equally satisfied subordinates. In addition, they added that the male leaders are more effective than female leaders but only in laboratory settings. Anderson in 1987 reported that there were no significant differences between men and women with respect to the mean level of job performance. Sherman, Ezell and Odewan (1987) indicated that there are no significant differences in either perceived subordinate influence in decision relevant to their work or perceived supervisory influence based on whether the supervisor is a male or a female.

Ottaway and Bhatanagar (1988) in a biographical study of personality differences between male and female managers in the United States and India, found that male and female managers do not differ significantly on job levels in both countries. But, the females are better educated and earn significantly less than males managers in both countries. Also, the females in both countries are more hard-driving and conflicted than males, and the American female managers are also more naive (open and natural) than the males.

Snyder, Verderber, Langmeyer and Myers (1992) conducted a study to examine potential sex differences in self and organization-referent attitudes and compares sex versus occupancy of a supervisory position and position in the organizational hierarchy as predictors of self- and

organization referent attitudes for 683 employees of a social service agency. In contrast to beliefs often expressed in the popular media, the results confirm the researches' expectation that women's self and organization referent attitudes will not necessarily be lower than men's in conditions where accurate and realistic feedback about performance is available. Furthermore, the results suggest that position characteristics may help explain potential differences in self and organization referent attitudes that have frequently been attributed to sex or gender by previous theorists.

Melamed, Bozionelos in 1992 examined the personality traits of female and male managers from civil services in U.K. They used the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) to achieve this purpose. Although, managers (both sexes) scored higher than British adult population on traits associated with intelligence, dominance, confidence, and extraversion, no significant differences appeared between female and male managers.

It is quite evident that various investigations have demonstrated that males and females are equal in managerial position. But the larger area of investigations within study of male and female in management has focused on the identification and determination of males and females managers and males/females employees and on the pertinent job-related differences among managerial personality traits between men and women (Miner, 1976; Brown, 1979; Riger and GaLLigan, 1980; Liden, 1985; Chusmir and Koberg, 1986;

Izraeli, 1987).

2. The literatures which found significant differences between males and females in personality traits and job level.

Several studies have demonstrated that men and women differ in leadership behaviors, leadership style, managerial functions and effectiveness. Monge (1975) explained that the significant differences between male and female was found among four components (achievement/leadership, congeniality/sociability, adjustment, and masculinity/femininity). Also, they approved the hypothesis of the difference in personality between male and female managers. Adams and Hicks (1978) reported that subordinates do see male and female leader differences. Also, they mentioned that women are more sensitive to the welfare of subordinates than men. Forisha (1978) in his research about creativity and imagery in men and women, reported that creative ability and vividness of imagery were related in women but not in men, whereas creative ability and creative production were related in men but not in women. He added that men and women show differing patterns of cognitive functioning in the creative process; and men and women differ in the utilization of their creative capacity possibly due to the influence of sex-role stereotypes. Ezell, Odewahn and Sherman (1980) found that few differences exist in the leadership styles and behaviours of men and women in managerial position.

There is more evidence from various studies that males and females differ in job level, Sigelman, Milward and Shepard (1982) found that there are difference in the salary paid to men and women who hold equally responsible positions. Wiley and Eskilson (1982) looked at the interaction of sex and power base on perceptions of managerial effectiveness. They suggested that the adoption of similar power strategies by men and women does not assure equivalent evaluations of their performance. The power strategy resulting in more positive evaluation for men resulted in less positive ratings for women. In addition, they mentioned that a man was more likely to be assumed to have more power than a women, particularly when the target of influence was male.

Chanin and Schneer (1984) studied the relationship between the decision-making personality dimension and conflict-handling behavior. They found that there were some significant differences between males and females in this respect. They indicated that men report handling conflict through collaborating more than women do, and women report handling conflict via compromising more than men do.

Cardwell (1982) found that there were significant differences in several scales of personality traits, such as, higher intelligence, a better self-image, more openness to feelings and to general human faults plus alternative viewpoints, more leadership ability and ability to take charge of their own lives, for the more successful women. In addition, he added that the most important sources of

life satisfaction for women were family, friends and work, but for men the order was family, work and friends. The least successful men were the least likely to marry and close to half were divorced compared with 16% of the most successful. Successful women managers were more likely to be married and less likely to be divorced.

Nevill, Stephenson and Philbrick (1983) examined the effects on performance evaluation between male and female bank managers. They found significant differences between male and female on performance evaluation. Davidson and Cooper (1986) compared the average profile of the female manager with her male counterpart, and found a number of overall differences. In the home and social arena, compared to male managers, women managers reported significantly higher pressure scores in respect of career and spouse/partner conflicts, career-home conflicts, and career and marriage/child-bearing conflicts. Also, they mentioned that women in junior, middle and senior management experience a greater number of high stressors and high stress manifestations compared to their male counterparts.

Mathison (1986) supported differences between male and female. He reported that men were reasonably comfortable with women's assertiveness. Women were significantly less comfortable with the same phenomenon.

From the above literature survey it appeared that some studies found significant differences between male and female managers. While some others showed no significant differences between the two sexes upon managerial

characteristics.

Hunt (1993) in his study " Sex differences in a pink-collar occupation" compared men and women clerical-secretarial workers in one public sector institution. Men were found to be less committed to the occupation than women and reported a greater sense of occupational choice. Women tended to find the work more personally meaningful than men, and men were somewhat more likely to find the work trivial and tedious. Both sexes were extremely discontent with their developmental and promotional opportunities.

Catipovic et al in 1995 administered the Emotions Profile Index and a test of life needs satisfaction to men and women in Croatia. They found that women scored lower on Distrustful and Dyscontrol than the men and higher on depression and Gregarious.

3. Females are ineffective managers compared with their male counterparts.

There is a growing body of literature concerning discrimination against women in management. While the evidence found in the studies reviewed the widely held belief that women make inferior leaders seems to give way in actual work situations. Quoting Harrell et al (1973):

> "1. Women general managers are substantially
> superior to men in functional
> specialities in several criteria of
> job success and in several possible
> predictors measured five years earlier.
> 2. Men in general management scored in
> the socially desirable direction on a

number of personality and leadership
position." (Harrell et al, 1973, p.133).

Rosenfield and Fowler (1976) had shown evidence that
the male subjects are dominant in managerial positions.
They also believe that there is evidence of sex differences
in personality which may affect leaders behavior. Males are
more effective leaders than females in structured
situations, and males being more confident, also, females
poorer problem solvers than males, even when the content of
the problems controlled for sex differences (Rosenfield and
Fowler, 1976). Also, Forisha (1978) found that the creative
ability and creative production were related in men but
not in women, and this means that more creative men are in
high level of creative production than women. Brown (1979)
conducted a brief examination of the literature focusing on
the female leadership issue. Three leadership theories-
trait, style, and contingency- were used as a frame work
for reviewing these researches. Female trait theory
leadership research compares the perceived attitudes,
values, and behavior attributed to women with the same
perceived characteristics of men and/ or managers. Three
studies found no significant relationship between female
stereotypes and managerial stereotypes. Another five
studies resulted in significant differentiation between the
attitudes held toward women and those held towards
managers. The style theory research reviewed attempts to
demonstrate either similarities and/ or differences between
male and female leaders. Only 3 out of 13 studies indicate

a significant differences between male and female leadership style. Brown(1979) indicated that Eskilson and Wiley (1976) and Bartol and Butterfield (1976) found significant differences in leadership styles when measuring the attitudes of students towards leaders in laboratory experiments. Bartol and butterfield (1976) found that women scored high on consideration scores, and men scored high on intensity scores. Brown also indicated that Helmich (1974) found that men are more motivated than their female counterparts and that women are more task oriented than men. Moderating effects of sex on leadership roles were examined in contingency theory. Regarding this theory, some studies found no significant sex effects, however, others found even male or female are more effective in their leadership (Brown, 1979). Brenner (1982) at his investigation on the difference between male and female personality found that the females with less education were less dominant when compared with less educated males in managerial functions. In their study of the effect of identical actions by men and women on assessments of relative power, position and personality in a corporate setting, Wiley and Eskilson (1982) found that the sex of the actor, sex of the other, and the influence technique used by the actor all affected the personality traits attributed to the influential actor. They found that respondents perceived influential males as significantly more powerful, higher in corporate position and warmer than identically described females. Tuthill and Forsyth (1982)

studied a self presentational interpretation of persuasibility measuring American college students. They found that the females tended to conform to the position taken by the speaker, particularly if their prior attitudes were private, their competency and "face" in the situation had been threatened by a prior blunder. But males were dissented and desirable and requested. Also, Mar'i and Karayanni (1983) in their study about creativity in Arab cultures have shown that males are more effective (suitable or requested) than females to the managerial processes when they found that the creative performance of subjects-sex differences do exist favoring males over females. Similarly Chusmir and Koberg (1986) *investigated the creativity* differences among managers. He reported that males and females differ very widely in creativity-job relationship. For male managers, need achievement is a significant predictor of creativity while for women it is need affiliation that predicts creativity.

Some studies indicate that the female sterotype, include such traits as dependence, subjectivity, sociability and emotionality (Huertas and Powell, 1986; Riggs, 1987; Cohen, 1989). These three researchers agree on one point that the female managers have to adopt masculine traits and behaviors typical of male managers to succeed in a still masculine working world. For example, Cohen (1989) pointed out that most female managers have droped the traditional female values to adopt the male traits.

Liden (1985) investigated female subordinate reactions
to male and female managers. He found that 80% of the
female subordinates in the sample showed a preference for
male managers. In addition he added that male managers in
high education, career orientation and organizational
commitment had significantly more experience and reported
having more influence than did the female managers. Also,
reported that women with more education and greater
orientation to career are better as managers than women who
were less educated and career oriented. Furthermore, he
stated that the characteristics of female managers suggests
that women managers may appear to be less competent simply
because they do not have the status and influence needed to
provide the support and resources desired by subordinates.

Nyguist and Spence (1986) studied influence of sex
roles on the expression of trait dominance on leadership
behavior. They used 40 same-sex and 40 mixed sex dyads from
students enrolled at the university of Texas at Austin as
subjects of this study. They found that 73% in same-sex
pairs and 90% in mixed sex dyads in which the man scored
high in dominance, and only 35% in mixed-sex dyads in which
the woman was high dominant. While performing the task,
high dominant female followers of low- dominant male
leaders were generally more dominant in their behaviors
than were low- dominant female followers of male leaders.
They were also less satisfied than the latter with their
partner and with their position as follower. In the same
year Mathison (1986) examined sex differences in the

perception of assertiveness among female managers in United States. He tried to explore how male and female managers view assertive women managers in the work place. He used the practicing managers (58 women and 35 men) as subjects and found that the women tended to perceive assertive women as more aggressive than did men. Also, the man was described by both sexes as generally competent and appropriately assertive. According to Anderson and Mclenigan (1987) the organization has long been the traditional domain of men, also, they added that many studies have indicated that the task-oriented behaviours traditionally associated with males.

4. Females are effective in managerial functions.

Much research has been focused on the participation of women in the employment market, and how women play important role in the managerial context.

Andrew and Gill (1987) reported that, women in managerial roles are a recent focus of research and analysis. Women are making a substantial impact on the employment market, both in terms of the increasing numbers in employment and by appointment to male-dominated organizational roles. He mentioned that the latest figures from U.S Department of Labour indicate that the "typical" American family, of working husband, house wife and two children, infact makes up 7% of all U.S. families. In the U.S., 23% of managers and administrators are now women. He added that in the U.K. 18.8% of the managers and

administrators are now females.

Steers (1977) found that females as a group are more
encourage more participation than males. Adams and Hicks
(1978) examine the relationship between male and female
leaders' description of their own behavior and the
followers description of the leaders' behavior in
traditionally male-oriented leadership positions. They
found that women are reported to be more sensitive to the
welfare of subordinates than men. In addition they added it
is important to note that these behaviors are important for
a leader especially one who will be expected to lead in
army that requires the integrated services of both women
and men. Heilman and Kram (1978) in a study of the effects
of co-worker's sex, indicated that women subjects accepted
more responsibility for success and less for failure,
compared with her male counterparts. Also, they added that
the women reported greater confidence about their future
performance than men. Although, statistically men still
dominate managerial positions. In theoretical study by
Riger and Galligan (1980) it appeared that women recently
seem to have been successfully recruited in to the top
levels of organizational management. They indicated too
that women actually advance to managerial level positions,
they noted that:

> "Females socialization practices
> encourage the development of
> personality traits and/or behaviour
> patterns that are contrary to the
> demands of the managerial role".
> (Riger and Galligan, 1980, p.902)

In 1982 Brenner analyzed personality traits between males and females, found that females are more nurturant than their male counterparts.

Cardwell (1982) investigated, women who feel succeed in government ministry, showed that females are effective in managerial position and he found that the more successful women ministers seemed to have better self-image, more self-esteem, they would be better adjusted, had more friendships, better personal relationships in general as well as with the opposite sex, be interested in life and experience in more healthy, direct and outgoing manner. They tended to see themselves more frequently as attractive, feminine, active, affectionate, intelligent and verbal.

At a study of female and male managers in communicative style and productivity, Camden and Witt (1983) mentioned that women managing in a stereotypically feminine style may actually be better managers than males acting in a stereotypically masculine style. Also, they added that worker managed by women engaging in stereotypic behavior were more productive than workers managed by men conforming to stereotypic role expectations. Jacobson and Jones in 1983 indicated that females tended to place more emphasis on working with congenial associates and establishing pleasant interpersonal relationship than males. In addition they added that females expect more consideration behaviour from manager than their male counterparts do.

Terborg and Shingledecker (1983) stated that Osborn and Vicar (1976) examined reactions to first-level managers in two organizations belonging to a state mental health system. In one organization, 79% of the supervisors were women, but in the other organization only 20% of the supervisors were women. The majority of subordinates in both organizations were women. In addition they added that they found little evidence that subordinates of women supervisors in the organization with only 20% of the supervisors being women were more satisfied than if their supervisors had been a man, this occurred for both male and female subordinates.

Pillai (1983) studied the relationship between achievement motivation and masculinity-femininity on a sample of 532 students. She found that there was a significant, positive and substantiative relationship between achievement motivation and masculinity-femininity (see section 3.5). Anderson and Thacker (1985) examined the self-monitoring and sex as related to assessment centre ratings and job performance. They found that there was a significant correlation between self-monitoring high scores and the overall assessment rating only for women. Furthermore, self-monitoring was significantly related to job relation after one year only for women. Tucker (1985) described the careers of men and women MBAs. She wanted to explore how the careers of females changed over the last three decades and undertook research on doctors and lawyers. She found that women tended to work in different

settings than their male counterparts, being concentrated in teaching institutions and *public organizations* rather than private practice.

Bowen and Hisrich (1986) indicated that experimental support for the fact that females selected more participative leadership strategies than males. Their study concerned the influence of gender on evaluation of leadership performance by a male and

female manager described as using either supportive or non supportive nonverbal communication with a male subordinate in a problem-solving interview.

Chusmir and Koberg (1986) in his study of creativity differences among managers, examined sex differences along with a large group of other work-related variables. The results indicated that many creative women are in high level of managerial positions. Chertkoff (1986) also, revealed effectiveness of females in some managerial positions. They examined effects of dominance and sex on leader selection in dyadic work groups. They found that the women were more likely to assume leadership and feedback to the dyad indicating that the women were better at the task.

Davidson and Cooper (1986), mentioned that more women now work than ever before. There is also an enormous growth in younger women entering many of the formerly male-dominated jobs, including the field of management. In addition they added that in the U.S.A with the strongest legislation affecting the employment of women, 30.5% of management and administrations are women, followed by the

U.K. with 18.8%. Even so, in the U.K., the occupations in which women are most likely to be managers are traditionally female occupations such as retailing, catering and Personnal.

As a general conclusion of this chapter, the literature on the relationship between sex differences and manager personality traits and managerial functions, has shown a confusing mixture of results:

1. Most previous studies tended to indicate that there were significant differences between male and female in personality traits and managerial functions.

2. Some previous researches revealed that males have higher levels of effectiveness in managerial processes, are more dominant, and more adapted than females to managerial position.

3. While the other studies indicated that the female managers were relatively effective in managerial functions. The summary of the previous studies results shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Summary of previous studies on sex differences among male
and female managers in managerial positions.

Men at higher level in management	Women more effective in management	No significant differences
Harrell (1973)	Steers (1977)	Adams & Hicks
Fowler (1976)		(1978); Steinberg
Forisha (1978)	Forisha (1978)	& Shapiro (1982)
Brown (1979)	Heilman& Kram (1978)	Instone, Major
Brennin (1982)	Rigr & Galligan (1980)	& Bunker
(1983)		
Forsyth (1982)	Cardwell (1982)	Adams, Rice &
Shepared (1982)	Philbrick (1983)	Instone (1984)
Wiley & Eskinson,	Pillai (1983)	Dobbins &
Platz		
(1982)	Anderson & Thacker (9185)	(1986)
Liden (1985)	Tucker (1985)	Anderson
(1987)		
Husmir (1986)	Davidson & Cooper (1986)	
Rosenberg(1987)		
Mathison (1986)	Fleischer &	
Nyguist & Spence,	Chertkoff (1986)	
(1986)	Hisrich (1986)	
Powell (1986)		
Anderson & Mclenigan (1987)		
Riggs (1987)		
Ottaway & Bhatnagar (1988)		
Cohen (1989)		

3.6 SELECTING THE STUDY PURPOSE AND SETTING UP THE HYPOTHESES

The present investigation focuses on the personality traits of male and female managers in Kuwait society. Hence, the general aims of this study are to:

1. Identify the personality traits of Kuwaiti male and female managers.

2. See if there are any differences between their personality traits, which are consistent with their managerial aspiration or style.

3. Focus on these differences (if any differences are found between the male and female managers sample). As well as to identify the demographic characteristics of the two manager sample for the second study which are age, level of education, work experience, number of years in managerial position, marital status, number of years of marriage, and number of children.

Therefore, we expect that for:

Hypothesis no. 1:

There would be relatively few significant differences in the personality traits between the male managers group and the female managers group in Kuwaiti society; and for

Hypothesis no. 2:

Depending on the fact that in Kuwait society men are more confident, independent, assertive and have more opportunities to experience leadership than women in contrast to some other Arab societies. Hence, it is

expected that male managers would score higher than women on some of these personality traits.

In this study, also we will attempt in brief to illustrate the characteristics of 300 subjects as an actual sample for the male and female Kuwaiti managers in the various occupations.

3.7 MEASURES OF PERSONALITY TRAITS

As we stated previously considerable attention has been given to study the human personality, especially in the area of individual differences between males and females. Therefore, many of the empirical investigators and the practitioners in this area, such as clinical, educational, and industrial psychology, have tended to develop a measurement which would determine the nature of personality traits, particularly among men and women (Mckee, and Sherriffs, 1957; Cattel et al, 1970).

In this study, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) will be used to identify the personality traits of the male and female managers in Kuwait society. To clarify this issue we will review briefly some of the instruments most frequently employed to measure the personality traits of managers (both sexes) in the business and managerial context, taking into consideration their purpose of their design. Consequently, there are many numbers of developed instruments, which are frequently employed to measure the differential between the two sexes in behavior and personal characteristics.

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According to the current literature on this matter here are some instrument which have been employed by researchers to evaluate the two sexes in business and managerial context:

Carlock and Martin (1977) employed three instruments to study the manner in which the behavior, perception and emotional experiences of female group members may vary in all-female and male-female groups. The Personality Orientation Inventory (POI) developed by Shostrum in 1966, the group inquirer (GI) developed by Whitney and Blackwell (1974), and the Sex Role Questionnaire (SRQ) developed by Brovermen (1970).

Steers (1977) employed the Personality Research Form (PRF) to examine the influence of sex and personality variables on the amount of subordinate participation allowed by superior in group decision-making. This instrument was designed by Murray (1938). In addition, Jackson (1967) revised this instrument (PRF), trying to adapt the first four scales; achievement, aggression, dominance, and nurturance. Each scale consists of 16 descriptive statements to which the employee responded true or false. Evidence for the convergent validity of these four scales has been provided by Jackson (1974), Jackson and Guthire (1968), and Kusyszyn (1968). Later, Brenner and Greenhouse (1979) also employed this instrument (PRF) to evaluate the interaction between managerial status and sex in the prediction of four personality characteristics: aggression, dominance, nurturance, and achievement-orientation.

Brenner (1982), also employed this instrument (PRF) to measure the personality differences between males and females as they become more similar in terms of their job and educational background.

Forisha (1978) employed seven instruments to evaluate the creativity of males and females using 163 college students (94 males and 96 females). The seven instruments are:

1. The Remont Associates Test, this instrument was originally used to assess creativity in which the subject must produce the word which is associated with four given words, developed by Mednick and Mednick (1967).

2. Several items taken from the Torrance Tests of Creativity. These items are designed to measure fluency, flexibility and originality, the average creativity score, computed from the scale T scores of the above three components (Torrance, 1966).

3. Personal description of five creative moments.

4. Completion of Process Imagery Questionnaires. This scale was originally used to assess passive imagery, that which occurs spontaneously in the thinking process.

5. The Questionnaire on Vividness of Imagery. This measure originally used to assess active imagery, that which is produced on demand. This instrument developed by Betts (1909) and revised by Sheehan (1967).

6. The Control of Imagery Questionnaire developed by Cordon (1949). This instrument was originally used also to assess active imagery and is primarily concerned with the ability

to change a given image at will.

7. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (SRI) developed by Bem (1974). This instrument was designed originally to assess masculinity and femininity characteristics and also androgyn which is composits score derived from the masculinity and femininity scores.

In comparative study between traditional and nontraditional women in the same work environment, regarding vocational choice Swatko (1981) employed three scales Preferred Title (PT) in this context, the participants were requested to check the title they preferred. The seventh provision of Vocational Performance Inventory (VPI) developed by Gott Fredson, Holland and Holland (1978). This scale was used to identify participants in terms of the six personality types formulated by Holland (1973). These six types are realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. This scale was used to measure the predictor of later vocational aspirations or actual job.

Nystrom (1982), investigated relationships between managers' personality and their leadership perceptions employed three personality scales - A. 39-Item Instrument composed of true-false items developed by Rehfisch (1958) drawn from original measurement, Minnesota Multiphasic Persoanlity Inventory. This scale was originally used to assess six personality characteristics: 1. constriction and inhibition, 2. conservatism, 3. intolerance of disorder and ambiguity, 4. obscssicnal and perservative tendencies, 5.

social interoversion, and 6. anxiety and quilt.

B. 8-Item instrument, composed of five-point scales developed by Martin and Westie (1959). The original used to assess intolerance of ambiguity. and C. 29-Item instrument composed of forced choices between statements developed by Rotter (1966). This extensively used scale assess the degree of contingency one believes exists between one's own behaviours and reinforcements.

Kazi and Piper (1983) employed Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) developed by Eysenck (1968) to measure the attributes of extraversion-intraversion and neuroticism-stability and, Vocational Perference Inventory (VPI), developed by Holland (1965) to measure the vocational personality attributes of the subjects. They studied the vocational personality attributes of medical technologists and college level science teachers by utilizing the above two instruments.

Remland, Jacobson, and Jones (1983) employed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) developed by Spence, Helreich and Stapp (1974) to investigate the effect of psychological gender on evaluations of leadership performance of male and female managers. This instrument (PAQ) was originally used to assess an individual's psychological gender orientation.

Rim (1984) studied the relationship between the ranking of values and personality dimensions, such as extroversion, neuroticism, psychoticism, conformity, intelligence and sex. He employed Rokeach's Lists of Values

(1968) which consists of two lists of 18 values each instrumental and terminal. The values were ranked according to their importance. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), developed by Eysenck and Esenck (1975) four scores are derived for neuroticism (N), Extroversion (E), Psychoticism (P) and Lie (L) score measuring conformity. Milta intellegence group test, developed by Ortar and Morieli (1966). A verbal intelligence test consisting of five subjects.

Thomas and Littig (1985) employed the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, to measure the leadership style, and examining gender and race effects. This instrument was developed by Fleishman (1969). The measure was originally used to assess two basic dimensions of leadership:

1. Consideration, which reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinate's ideas, consideration for their feelings, and a lot of socioemotional support; and

2. Initiation of structure, which reflects the extent to which an individual provides direction and is likely to define and structure his (her) role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment.

Brenner et al (1989) studied the association between sex role stereotypes and management characteristics. They employed the Schein 92-item descriptive index Questionnaire, developed by Schein (1973, 1975). This measure was originally used to assess both sex role

stereotypes and characteristics of useful middle managers. The questionnaire has three forms, all containing the same descriptive terms and instruction; however, one form asks for a description of women in general, one for a description of man in general, and one for a description of successful middle managers.

As a general conclusion, from the above view on some instruments of personality traits, it is clear that most instruments which have been employed in this area, reveal evidence as reliable and valid instruments. However, most of these scales are originally designed to assess only some of the personality traits, they also cover only a few dimensions of the personality characteristics. For example, the Personality Research Form (PRF) (Jakson, 1967; Jakson and Guthrie, 1968; Kusyszyn, 1968) originally used to assess four personality traits; aggression, dominance, nurturance and achievement-orientation. Also, Vocational Performance Inventory (VPI) (Holland, 1965) originally used only to assess six personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional; California Personality Inventory (CPI) (Cough, 1975) originally designed to assess only six personality characteristics: constriction and inhibition, conservatism, intolerance of disorder and ambiguity, obsessional and perservative tendencies, social introversion, and anxiety and quilt. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), Fleishman (1969), was originally used to assess only two basic dimensions of leadership; and

Descriptive Index Questionnaire (DIQ) Schein (1973, 1975), this measure was originally used to assess sex role stereotype and characteristics of successful middle managers.

In addition, some of the above instruments have been used as a valuation scale for behavior; like Personality Attributes Questionnaire. The most important point is that these instruments are not standardized in Kuwait society. Therefore, these instruments are not suitable for this study.

Among the most widely used measures of personality traits there are two instruments that are frequently employed and widely used in the managerial context namely - the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) developed by Cough (1957) and the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) developed by Cattell (1973).

These two instruments are frequently used to measure the differences between two sexes, as well as their importance as a reliable instrument which were designed originally to measure the comprehensive coverage of personality dimensions, and the considerable amount of data available in support of their validity, and high level of reliability. Since only the 16PF has been standardized on Kuwaiti society only this instrument is used in this study to identify the personality traits of the male and female managers in Kuwait society.

With respect to the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), a number of studies have employed this instrument in

their investigation to measure the various dimensions, factor, characteriscs of human personality in the managerial context. For instance; Rosenfeld and Fowler (1976) employed the CPI instrument in a study of personality, sex and leadership style, comprising 89 males and 89 females.

Borden and Francis (1978) used the CPI instrument to identify the personality factors that underlie concern for ecological-environmental problems.

Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) employed two personality scales; Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) instrument, as well as the CPI instrument to study the extent of personality differences between 71 female and male master of business administration students.

Nyguist and Spence (1986) also employed CPI instrument to measure the influence of sex roles on the expression of trait dominance. Eighty males and 80 females students enrolled in introductory psychology courses at the university of Texas completed the 20-item adaptation of the California Psychological Inventory instrument. These 20-item scale were selected from the CPI instrument, in which the measuring the dominance, and the most face-valid items were retained.

Next, a very brief discussion of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) as described by Borden and Francis (1978). The Calofirnia Psychological Inventory is composed of 480 true-false items which yield scores on 18 subscales. The items range over a wide variety of manifest

behaviour content which was described by Gough (1957a) in terms of: A. poise, ascendency, and self-assurance;

B. Socialization, maturity, and responsibility;

C. Achievement potential and intellectual effeciency; and

D. Intellectual and interest modes.

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) instrument is a comprehensive 105-items questionnaire, which covers sixteen factors of personality characteristics. A number of studies have employed the 16PF instrument to identify personality traits or to study sex differences between males and females in business and managerial context, because of its frequently employed to measure the personality characteristics, and it is respected as a research instrument. For instance, Hui and Triandis (1985) review a number of research strategies for cross-cultural studies. They suggest that the direct comparison approach (using the 16PF) is the most popular. Also Kapoor (1965) reports that the 16PF measure is a valid tool for assessing the individual's personality.

Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) employed 16PF in studying the extent of personality differences between 71 subjects, 29 females and 42 males of business administration (MBA) students.

In order to obtain a clearer picture of personality sex differences, Steinberg and Shapiro separated each factor on the 16PF measure into two discrete traits. For example, on factor A (reserved to outgoing) a score of 1 to 5 indicated that the subject was reserved and a score of 6

to 10 indicated that the subject was outgoing, and so on. The authors (Steinberg and Shapiro), therefore, in the analysis of the 16PF measure, 32 traits were analyzed instead of the usual 16 factors. Moreover, the subjects who were tested on this study ranged in age from 22 to 31 years.

For the sex differences in cross cultural studies Ottaway and Bhathagar (1988) also employed 16PF. The authors used the personality data and biographical characteristics to study 111 students attending management development courses at the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, and 131 students attending Masters of Business Administration courses at an American business school. The Indian sample ranged in age from 23 to 66 years, and the American sample ranged in age from 22 to 58 years. The authors attempt to test the hypothesis that American female managers are less different from American male managers than Indian male and female managers.

In conclusion, the differences between male and female managers on personality traits in Kuwait society were measured by using the 16PF. The results will be discussed in following chapters. Regarding the literature on personality traits, it was clear that some investigators found that male managers are more effective in management depending on the personality traits, and others found the opposite. While some researchers found no differences between males and females regarding this issue.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 WORK ENVIRONMENT FEATURE IN KUWAIT SOCIETY

The purpose of this chapter is to identify the features of the two different sectors of manpower through Kuwaiti's labor force. As well as discuss the research method according to the subjects of the study, and research apparatus. It is worth to mention that the research was conducted before the invasion of Kuwait. Labor force did not affect more than one year or so, and also the percentage of Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti employees almost the same as before the invasion.

4.2 POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE FEATURE BY SEX, NATIONALITY, EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATIONAL STATUS

Manpower is one of the most valuable and critical resources in any society. However, its value and role in the country's economy depends very much on how this resource is developed and organized to contribute to the production of goods and services. Therefore, the preparation and employment of human resources for productive purposes is the focal point of manpower planning (Loster, 1966). Kuwait society whose economy depends on oil revenues, has a low population of Kuwaitis in the labour force. The increased revenues resulting from the oil price rises in 1973 led to an unprecedented growth in the Kuwait economy in recent years. This economic boom has brought

large scale expansion and diversification in the Kuwaiti economy which led to importation of large numbers of migrant workers.

The rapid economic growth and diversification of the economy in recent years has resulted in an accelerated increase in Kuwait's labor force between 1970 and 1985. According to the Ministry of Planning Central Statistical office (Labor Force Growth and Composition in Kuwait, 1975-1985, p 2) the labor force has grown from 304,582 to 670,354 or by 120 percent while the total population has increased from 994,837 in 1975 to 1,697,301 in 1985 or by 71%. Consequently, the crude activity rate, or the proportion of the economically active to the total population, has increased from 30.6% in 1975 to 39.5% in 1985. This increase in the labor force is more marked for Kuwaitis than non-Kuwaitis.

The total labor force by nationality and sex as recorded in together with the activity rates, are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Total labor force by nationality and sex with activity
rates for 1975, 1985 and 1988.

Groups	1975	1985	1988
Kuwaitis male	84,367	101,607	119,607
Kuwaitis female	7,477	24,803	32,699
Total	91,844	126,410	152,306
Non-Kuwait male	185,009	436,650	437,687
Non-Kuwait female	27,729	107,325	108,925
Total	212,738	543,975	546,612
Total male	269,376	538,257	557,294
Total female	35,206	132,128	141,624
Total	304,582	670,385	698,918

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 136).

As can be seen in Table 4.1 the total Kuwait labor
force rate has grown from 91,844 to 152,306 in a period of
13 years, for Kuwait males from 84,367 in 1975 to 119,607
in 1988, while the Kuwait females activity from 7,477 in
1975 to 32,699 in 1988. In the case of non-Kuwaitis, the
total labor force activity has grown enormously, from
21,738 in 1975 to 546,612 in 1988, for males from 185,009

in 1975 to 473,687 in 1988, for female from 27,729 to 108,925 over the same period.

With respect to the non-Kuwaiti labor force, and Kuwaiti labor force during the period 1975 to 1980 and 1985 the consequence of massive number of migrants is the unbalance in the proportion of men and women, due to the fact that the great majority of immigrant workers are male. This has led to unnatural situation in age-sex structure of the population. The domination of the number of males over that of the females have created social implication which are reflected in many of the significant activities of life such as the availability of potential marriage partners for young adults, the marital status of the total population, subsequent fertility, housing needs and other population needs.

Having considered the size an nature of the labor force it is now possible to focus on the number of employees in government services. The Central Statistical Office's Annual Statistical Abstract of the 1989 survey covers the 1988 data on the numbers of employees in government civil service (public sector).

The Kuwaiti labor force in 1985 was recorded as 670,000 workers, having grown at an annual rate of 12 % during the period 1975 to 1985, compared to the rate of growth of the total population (7.1%), the growth of the labour force was higher, implying rising crude (the work force showing lack of skills) and refined (the work force showing or giving high level of skills) activity rates.

Until 1975, the majority of the immigrant workers have been coming from the Arab world. Since 1975, the picture has changed: more and more workers are being recruited from Asia. While in 1988 the total Kuwait labor force was recorded as 698,918 workers, having grown at an annual rate of 4.5% during the three years period (1985-1988), compared to the rate of growth of the total population (7.5%). While the total population in 1985 was recorded as 1,697,301 compared to the population in 1988 recorded as 1,834,756, the addition of population between 1985 and 1988 were 137,455 compared to the rate of growth of the labor force, 28,918 in the same period. This mean, the majority of the addition of population (108,537) during the above period have not participated in the labor force (out of labor force).

The participation in the labor force of Kuwaiti are considerably different of the non-Kuwait population, 53.5% are in the labor force as compared to 18.5% of the Kuwait population. Disparity between Kuwait and non-Kuwait participation rates is apparent for both sexes. For both males and females, the non-Kuwait participation rates are significantly higher than those of the natives. In 1985, the male crude activity rate for Kuwaitis was 30.0% as against 69.7% of the non-Kuwaitis, while the corresponding female rates were 7.2% and 27.6% respectively. Further, a drop in the participation rates of the male nationals has been noted. The very low participation of Kuwaitis in the labor force can be attributed due to a high proportion of

children in the Kuwait population (15-19 year of age group
are attending school and colleges, Ministry of Planning,
1988), and the low participation of Kuwait women in the
work force (e.g. negative attitudes of men towards female
activity outside the home, Berouti, 1976). Another factor
which contributes to the low participation of Kuwaitis in
the work force is their low education level (25% Kuwaiti,
52% non-Kuwaiti work force are without formal education
degree e.g. B.A., B.S. and above, Ministry of Planning,
1989). In case of Kuwaitis, there is a strong correlation
between educational attainment and unemployment rate. For
non-Kuwaitis, the picture is mixed with more unemployment
among those with some education than those with little. The
decreasing rate of Kuwait male participation in the labor
force is largely due to the increase in high school and
college attendance of the younger generation (from 15-24
years of age). This can be concluded from the fact that
participation of Kuwaiti males of this age group is
considerably lower than non-Kuwaiti males in the same age
group.

The distribution of Kuwait and non-Kuwait labor force
in various economic sectors is dissimilar. Kuwaitis are
highly concentrated in the service sector which includes
government as well as personal services and banking. In
1985, more than three-quarters of the Kuwaitis were in this
sector alone. In construction, trading and manufacturing,
the contribution of non-Kuwaitis has become virtually a
monopoly. The concentration of the majority of Kuwait labor

force in the service sector along with the refusal to take on any type manual work has contributed to the shortage of Kuwait employees in the national labor force.

The distribution of the labor force by major occupational group indicates that Kuwaitis are out numbered in every occupation. Non-Kuwaitis are largely concentrated in professional and technical and production occupations, while Kuwaitis are concentrated in the areas of service, clerical, administrative and managerial jobs. Thus, there is a severe shortage in Kuwait labor force at all levels i.e. professional, technical and unskilled labor. Women's employment in the modern sector is limited to a few professions such as teaching and nursing. The classification of labor force by employment status reveals that over 90% of the economically active population are employees, only 4% are self-employed. The unpaid family workers constitute a negligible proportion of 0.1%. The high of salaried (Professional and technical workers group) workers reflects the extent of organized economic activity in the country.

Table 4.2

Estimated distribution for labor force by occupation & nationality (March, 1988).

Occupation division	%	Total	%	Non-Ku.	%	Ku.
Professional and technical workers	17.0	117,326	15.1	81,554	24.2	35,772
Administrative & legislative workers	1.8	12,606	1.2	6,578	4.1	6,028
Clerical and related workers	12.5	86,064	8.9	48,378	25.5	37,686
Sales workers	5.8	36,666	5.9	32,010	5.2	7,656
Service workers	30.2	207,790	29.7	160,446	32.0	47,344
Agriculture & animal husbandry workers	1.2	8,118	1.3	6,776	0.9	1,342
Production workers and labors	31.5	216,876	37.9	204,952	8.1	11,924
Total	100.0	688,446	100.0	540,694	100.0	147,752

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p 144).

4.3 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

With better planning and good organization of manpower resources, many countries, have enlarged job opportunities and improve training and employment decisions. This is possible through the power of informed personal choice and calculated adjustment to rapidly changing demand (Loster,

1966).

Manpower is defined in this study, as the total labour force in any country, distributed by public sector (governmental sector) and private sector, this two sectors dominant, organized, and responsible under government system.

However, the labour force in any country are the public and private sectors, this two types of work sectors are different in the basic characteristics of work environment, which can be called "climate". Climate may be thought of as the fundamental internal character of any organization that sets the pattern for how things get done (Costly and Todd, 1983). Accordingly, each organization, has a different culture, structure and systems from each other (the definition and concept of organizational culture has been widely discussed previously in chapter two). It is important to note that the organizational structure, in this sense, means the arrangement of work in such a way that the objective of the organization can be effectively accomplished (Costly and Todd, 1983).

Usually, however, an organization will develop an overall climate characteristic of all its parts. A major factor affecting organizational climate is the way employees evaluate the status of their assignments. Also, the degree to which employees are trained and competent can influence organizational effectiveness (Baumgartel et al, 1984). Nevertheless, our contention is that the primary organizational lifestyle or environment, is influenced by

between organizations in the public and private sectors, as can be seen in figure 4.1.

The intention of this investigation is to identify the characteristics of the work environment of the two sectors (public and private) to focus on the relationship between managers and employees in each sector, and to recognize the relationships between employees in both sectors.

Figure 4.1

Demonstrating and summarizing of the different factors affecting organizational climate.

Nature of Work

Policies & Administration   Status Systems

Supervision

Work Groups

Organizational Climate   Economic Rewards

Expectations About Work

Attitudes Toward Work

Physical Conditions

Working Conditions

Social Groups
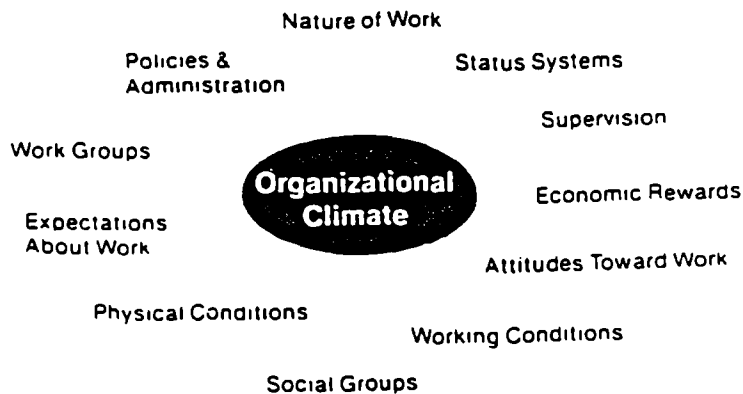
(Costley and Todd, 1983, p. 26).

4.4 THE SAMPLE OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS IN KUWAIT SOCIETY

In the first section of this chapter, the work environment feature in Kuwait society were discussed, and the manpower distribution in the two sectors were indicated. In section two, the labor force feature by sex, nationality, employment status, and educational status in Kuwait society were reviewed, Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis labor force, employment distribution by public and private sector were illustrated. section three, the different work environment (climate), and different factors affecting work environment, in very brief discussed. In this section, we attempt to illustrate the research sample of Public and private sector, the actual size of the sample and the process of the research sample collection.

4.4.1 The method of work environment study

The work environment sample for public and private sectors was chosen from different areas in the state of Kuwait. The sample distribution taken from six main cities in Kuwait: Kuwait city (capital), Hawally, Salmiya, Abraq Khitan, Farwaniya, and Fahaheel. The subjects who were selected as sample of study have a different level of education, and different work experience for both managers and employees males and females. The manager sample for both males and females were Kuwaitis managers; but the employees sample were Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis for both

males and females. The reason for choosing Kuwaiti managers (both sexes), because most of the high occupations (general managers and above) have been occupied by the Kuwaitis citizens. Furthermore, we believe that to obtain actual and clear picture for work environment in Kuwait society (particularly in the managerial context), we have to use native customs (indigenous citizens). The various ministries, organizations, and companies which have been chosen by the researcher have the largest number of Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis employees for both sexes. Moreover, the time which has been chosen by investigator to do the experiment part of his study was specific period time in the year (from 21 of October, 1989 to 27 of January, 1990) because in this particular time of the year, all the employees are in their job, and they were returned from their vacations. That meant it was possible to select appropriate numbers for the sample.

After receiving the letter of permission from the Ministry of Planning Authority, the researcher visited each participating Ministry, Organization or Company to make arrangements and to demonstrate to them the purpose of the study, also to choose the time to distribute the survey questionnaire in an attempt to obtain a sizable and diverse sample.

The subjects were selected randomly by the researcher from a number of companies and organizations located in six main cities in Kuwait as mentioned before. Ten public ministries (government authorities and establishments) were

the sample from the public sector. Fifteen private organization, as a private sector sample. One of the 15 private organization refused to participate in the study (Gulf Insurance Company).

The 10 ministries which participated in the public sector sample are as follows:

1. The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training.

2. Finance and Economy Ministry.

3. Public Health Ministry.

4. Public Work Ministry.

5. Information Ministry.

6. Education Ministry.

7. Planning Ministry.

8. Interior Ministry.

9. Social Affair and Labor Ministry.

10. Communication Ministry.

The 14 organizations and companies which formed the private sector are as following:

1. The National Bank of Kuwait.

2. Co-operative Company.

3. Al-Ahleia Insurance Company.

4. Kuwait Oil Company.

5. Kuwait Insurance Company.

6. Commercial Facilities Company.

7. Al-Watan Daily Newspaper.

8. Kuwait Industrial Bank.

9. United Arab Shipping Company.

10. Kuwait Flour Mill Company.

11. Al-Ghanim and Sons.

12. Kuwait Industrial Company.

13. Kuwait Cement Company.

14. Pre-Fabricated Building Company.

4.4.2 The subjects of the study.

The designated sample size was 160 Kuwait managers (a manager is defined in current investigation as first level of supervision and above for both sexes) and 540 Kuwait and non-Kuwait employees. This number of managers determined by the researcher in respect of the diversity of Kuwaiti managers, and employees. Subsequently, the researcher allocated an equal sample size to Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti employees. However, the diversity was arranged by researcher (in the actual sample) in an attempt to get actual group in terms of managerial experience and type of activity. Furthermore, selecting this large number of the subjects, to insure that this selecting is adequate to the necessity of the large sample would be required in the study.

The sample consisted of 160 male and female managers, and 540 male and female employees (total of 700), distributed by two sectors the public and private. The male managers were 82; 41 managers from public sector, and same number from the private sector. The female managers were 78; 39 female managers from public sector, and same number

from the private sector, as shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3

The number of the male and female managers in public and private sectors.

Subjects	Public	Private	Total
Male	41	41	82
Female	39	39	78
Total	80	80	160

The 272 male employees are distributed as follows: 134 from the public sector (government employees), drawn from 10 government ministries and organizations, and 138 from the private sector drawn from 14 organizations, companies and banks. The 268 female employees are distributed as follows: 132 from the public sector, again drawn from 10 government ministries and organizations and 136 selected from the private sector, distributed by 14 organizations, companies and banks as shown in Table 4.4

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Table 4.4

Number of male and female employees, at the two sectors.

Subjects	Public	Private	Total
Males	134	138	272
Females	132	136	268
Total	266	274	540

4.4.3 Apparatus.

Two questionnaires were used to collect the data. Work Environment Scale (WES), developed by Moos (1974). This instrument was used to collect data on work environment perceived by managers and employees in public and private sectors in Kuwait's work environment. The WES questionnaire, consists of 90 questions (this instrument has discussed widely in chapter two). In addition, two forms of background and experience information were developed by the researcher, to provide an instrument to measure the relative importance of the personal demographic information (sex, age, level of academic qualification, work experience, marital status, years of marriage, and number of children) of individual managers and employees.

It is necessary to note that these above questionnaires were carried out during August and September, 1989, the questionnaire form on the Work Environment Scale, and the two questionnaire forms for

background and experience were put in final drafts (background questionnaire), were discussed and approved by the supervisor, for the main study.

4.4.4 Procedure.

Permission from the Kuwaiti authorities through the Ministry of Planning for starting the experimental part of the study was received on. Official letters also, was obtain by authority of ministry of Planning to distribute by mail for all employees and managers. Distributed by the various ministries within and out the Kuwait city. It is worth mentioning that all participant subjects were told by their administration that their participation was voluntary.

In the light of the survey study many interviews were carried out through several visits to a number of ministries and organizations located in the six cities. The ministries and organizations visited were to illustrate the intent of the study and to demonstrate some sensitive, and difficult questions in WES, which respondents faced some difficult in understanding.

From the aforementioned 10 government ministries (public sector), and 14 organizations (private sector) were selected to be the sample of the 540 male-female employees and 160 male-female managers. 22 employees, 11 male and equal number female were randomly selected at each ministry. It is worth mentioning that the ministry of Education consists of large population of male and female

Kuwait employees (the Ministry of Planning). Therefore, the selected sample from this ministry will be 35 male subjects and 33 female subjects in the case of the employees sample. Likewise, in the private sector, because the high percentage of the contribution of Kuwait women in the National Bank of Kuwait (the Kuwait banks committee, union of banks employees), therefore the actual sample of male and female employees which were selected, 13 male and female employees from the national bank of Kuwait. But, for the other 13 organizations branch, the actual subjects for male and female employees which were selected from 7-10 male and female employees from each organization, depending on how large this organization where from the number of male and female employees.

Likewise, the sample of 160 male and female managers were selected as follows: 6 managers, 3 males and 3 females from each ministry except the Ministry of Education, because of the large population of Kuwait employees and managers as mentioned above. Therefore, the actual sample for male managers will be 26 subjects, 14 male and 12 female managers. While the managers sample in the private sector, from 2-3 male and female managers from each organization or company, except the National Bank of Kuwait, 6 male and 9 female managers, because of the high percentage of contribution of Kuwait women in the banking sector (the Kuwait Banks Committee, Union of Banks Employees, 1989). This distribution of the study sample to obtain a sample as would be required in the initial design

of the study.

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show the number and names of the different government ministries and organizations (public and private sectors), and the number of the respondents, male and female managers and employees from each ministry and organization.

Table 4.5

The number and means of different government ministries (public sector) and no. of respondents from each ministry.

Name of ministry	No of respondents				
	M man.	F man	M emp	F emp	Total
1. The public authority for applied education	3	3	11	11	28
2. Finance and economy	3	3	11	11	28
3. Public health	3	3	11	11	28
4. Public work	3	3	11	11	28
5. Information	3	3	11	11	28
6. Education	14	12	35	33	94
7. Planning	3	3	11	11	28
8. Interior	3	3	11	11	28
9. Social affairs&labour	3	3	11	11	28
10. Communication	3	3	11	11	28
Total	41	39	134	132	346

Table 4.6

Number and names of different organizations (private sector) and number of respondents from each organization

Name or organization	No. of respondents				
	M man	F man	M emp	F emp	Total
1. National Bank of Kuwait	6	9	13	13	41
2. Co-operatives	2	0	9	7	18
3. Al-Ahleia Insurance co.	3	2	10	10	25
4. Kuwait Oil co.	3	3	10	10	26
5. Kuwait Insurance co.	3	2	9	9	23
6. Commercial Facilit. co.	2	2	9	9	22
7. Al-Wtan Daily Newspaper	3	3	10	10	26
8. Kuwait Industrial Bank	3	3	10	10	26
9. United Arab Shipping	3	2	10	10	25
10. Kuwait Flour Mill co.	2	2	9	9	22
11. Al-Ghanim & sons co.	2	2	9	9	22
12. Kuwait Cement co.	3	3	10	10	26
13. Kuwait Industrial co.	3	3	10	10	26
14. Pre-fabricated building	3	3	10	10	26
Total	41	39	138	136	354

A further point that is worthy of note in this respect is the procedure followed in distributing the questionnaire, and background experience forms among the samples of managers and employees. For instance, after introducing himself to the authority of each ministry or organization, the researcher always required a list of employees and managers, to select randomly the number of employees and managers. It is worth mentioning here, that, usually the selected number was always more than the planned number of the research sample. This selected number, to be insured that the obtained sample, adequate and satisfy with the necessity of selecting as large sample as would be required. Furthermore, in the case of the employees for both male and female to be insured that every selected subject was secured and stratified with the same civil service job function and experience. Likewise, in order to be included in the managerial function, the male and female managers has to supervise more than two employees and have had their managerial position for at least one year.

The employees who were randomly selected were gathered in a common room where they were first given instructions on how to answer the questionnaires. No attempt was made to interfere or impose any personal viewpoints, so, as not to affect the validity and reliability of the final results. The questionnaire and the background and experience forms were distributed to the subjects after full advice on how

to answer. The researcher's job was always limited to the clarification of any item that the employees or managers was claiming to have difficulty in understanding. The researcher subsequently, re-visited the ministry or the organization next day to collect the answer sheets.

As for managers, since their number was not large, the researcher arranged to interview the managers in their offices to distribute the questionnaire and the background forms for each one individually, and give them instruction on how to answer the questionnaires.

The aforementioned procedures were used in each participant ministry or organization which involved in the main study.

After all this procedure, and in the light of the successful attempt to obtain a sizeable and required survey sample; in total the number of the returned questionnaires was quite adequate and encouraging, after three and a half months visit to Kuwait, the usable data of 700 questionnaires were obtained.

Whereas usable return was 43 out of 65 handed out to male managers, which represents 66% return rate from male managers in public sector. A usable return was 45 out of 65 handed out to female managers in public sector. However, the usable return was 137 out of a total of 155 handed out to female employees this represents 88% return rate for female employees in public sector. 130 out of a total of 155 handed out to male employees, which represents 84% return from male employees in public sector.

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Tables 4.7 and 4.8 show the rate of return to survey for male and female managers and rate of return to survey of male and female employees in public sector.

Table 4.7

The rate of the return to survey for male and female managers in public sector.

subjects	No. handed out	No. of return	% of return
Male manager	65	43	66
Female manager	65	45	69
Total	130	88	68

Table 4.8

The rate of the return to survey for male and female employees in public sector.

Subjects	No. handed out	No. of return	% of return
Male employees	155	130	84
Female Employees	155	137	88
Total	310	267	86

From the previous tables it was quite clear that both female managers and employees responded more positively to the survey than male managers and employees.

In the private sector, the number of the usable return was 51 out of 68 handed out to male managers, which represents 75% return rate from male managers. The usable return was 49 out of 63 handed to female managers, which represents 78% return rate from female managers in private sector. Likewise, the actual number of the usable return for male employees in the private sector was 169 out of 195, which represents 87%. And for female employees the usable return was 172 out of 193, which represents 89%.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 illustrate the rate of the return to survey for male and female managers and male and female employees in the private sector.

Table 4.9

The rate of return to survey for male and female managers in the private sector.

Subjects	No. handed out	No. of return	% of return
Male managers	68	51	75
Female managers	63	49	78
Total	131	100	76

Table 4.10

The rate of return to survey for male and female employees in the private sector.

Subjects	No. handed out	No. of return	% of return
Male employees	195	169	87
Female employees	193	172	89
Total	388	341	88

A further point that is worthy of note in this respect that the notwithstanding, the lower percentage of female managers in managerial functioning in the private sector, whereas the number in the 14 a fore mentioned organizations and companies did not come up to the figure intended for inclusion in the sample. Therefore, the researcher tended to made further visits to the banking sector (National Bank of Kuwait, because that the contribution of Kuwiti women in the banking sector is high if compared to their contribution in other occupation in the private sector) attempt to obtain a required survey sample in the private sector as it illustrated in Table 4.6.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE WORK ENVIRONMENT FEATURES FOR THE

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in chapter two, the main objectives of the first part of this research are to identify the characteristics of the two different sectors of manpower in Kuwait society (public and private sectors) with regard to the ten dependent variables (factors) and also to identify the relationship between the managers and employees in each sector.

Form two, the questionnaire of the Work Environment Scale Instrument (WES), which is used in the current study to measure the differences between two work sector (private and public sectors) in Kuwait society regarding the ten factors.

These ten factors have been coded in the following way:

1. Involvement = (I)

2. Peer-Cohesion = (P-C)

3. Staff-Support = (S-S)

4. Autonomy = (A)

5. Task-Orientation = (T-O)

6. Work-Pressure = (W-P)

7. Clarity = (C)

8. Control = (Co)

9. Innovation = (In)

10. Physical-Comfort = (Ph-C).

It is important to note that:

1. The score of each above named factor ranges from 0 to 10 points within the work environment scale instrument (WES).

2. For the purpose of comparison of the two sectors the row scores (mean) are converted to the standard score from the Work Environment Scale instrument (WES).

3. To find out if any group in the sample of the two sectors have scored either higher or lower scores on each of these factors, the value 50 (the average of the standard scores of WES) has been considered as the average or mid-point that separate the lower scores from higher ones.

To make the statistical analysis understandable and straight forward, the hypothesis will be individually stated, followed by the relevant statistical analysis.

5.2 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO SECTORS OF MANPOWER IN THE KUWAIT LABOR FORCE (PRIVATE AND PUBLIC) ACCORDING TO THE TEN FACTORS

Hypothesis 1.

1. A significant difference will be found between the two sectors, private and public, according to the ten main characteristics that will be examined.

2. The private sector will show significantly higher scores on involvement, innovation, and physical comfort than the public sector.

3. The public sector will achieve higher scores on control than the private sector.

4. We expect that the relationship between managers and employees in both sectors, the private sector will show significantly higher scores than the public.

5. We expect that the personal relationship among employees in the private sector will be relatively stronger than the relationship among employees in the public sector.

Results:

Table 5.1 represents the F values and the significant differences of the two sectors. Table 5.2 represents the mean and standard deviation of the two sectors' scores by the ten dependent variables.

Table 5.1

F values and the significant differences between the private sector group and public sector group, regarding to the ten factors within work environment scale (WES).

Factors	F	p	
I	72.26	0.0000	or *****
P-C	7.69	0.0057	or ***
S-S	3.18	0.0748	
A	1.46	0.2270	
T-O	18.61	0.0000	or *****
W-P	40.77	0.0000	or *****
C	11.21	0.0009	or ****
Co	13.06	0.0003	or ****
In	30.56	0.0000	or *****
Ph-C	24.02	0.0000	or *****

Table 5.2

Means, standard scores, and standard deviation for the private and public sectors for the ten dependent variables.

Variables	Private sector group			Public sector group		
	M	S.S	S.D	M	S.S	S.D
I	5.80	51	2.21	4.37	39	2.22
P-C	5.14	49	1.88	4.80	46	1.80
S-S	4.00	46	2.11	3.70	43	2.00
A.	4.62	48	2.33	4.41	48	2.22
T-O	6.40	48	2.40	5.63	45	2.25
W-P	5.80	53	1.81	4.90	49	1.93
C.	5.15	47	1.66	4.71	44	1.80
Co.	6.38	50	1.97	5.84	47	2.00
In.	4.89	51	2.45	3.90	45	2.25
Ph.C	5.60	48	2.32	4.72	43	2.19

M = Mean, S.S = Standard score, S.D = Standard deviation

Analysis of variance for the two sectors using the ten dependent variables revealed a number of highly significant differences between the two sectors. These are shown in Table 5.1.

According to Table 5.1 there are eight significant differences between the private sector and public sector
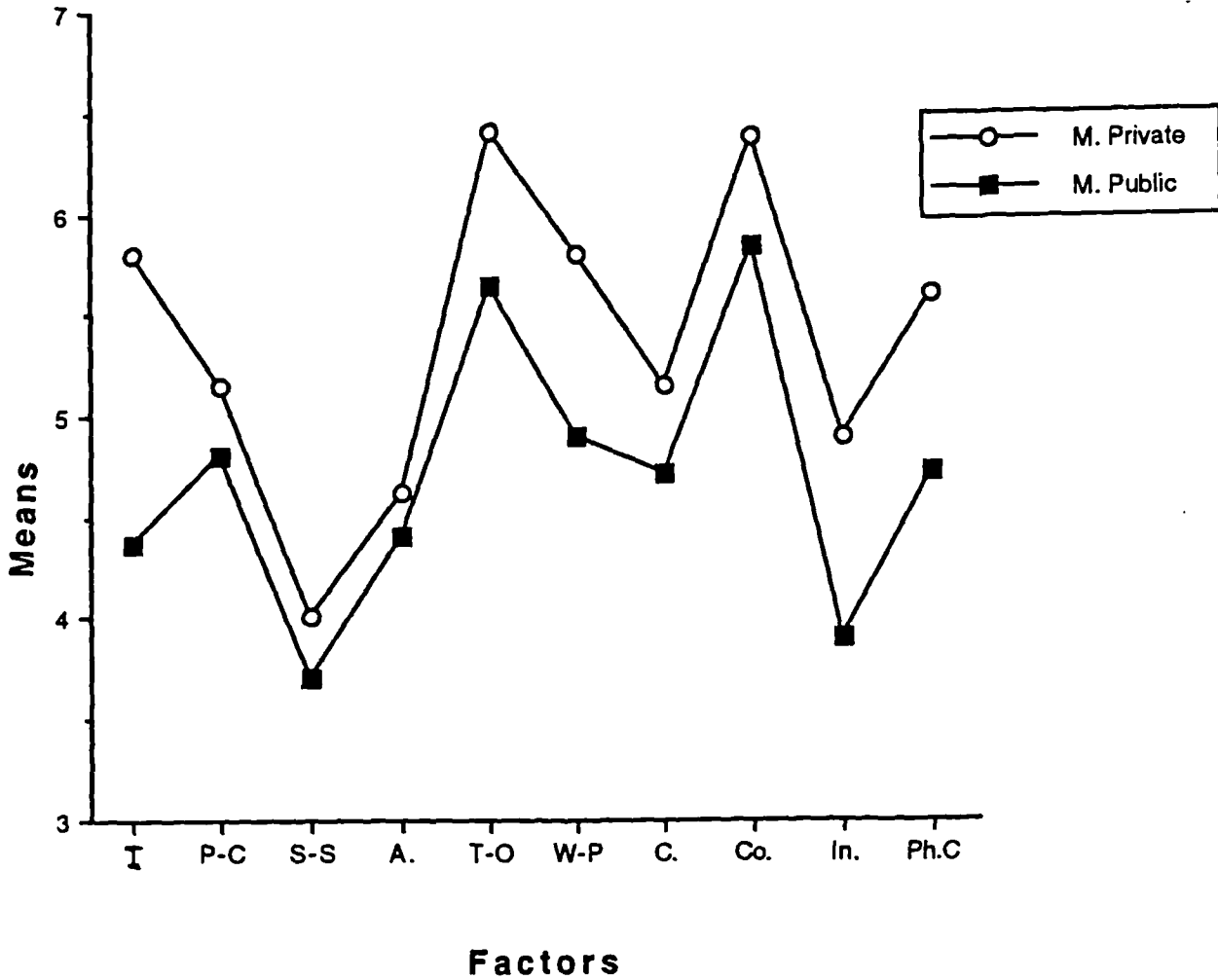
GRAPH 5.1

The means of the public and private sectors for both managers and employees for both sexes for the ten dependent variables.

groups, regarding the F values within the ten factors: namely involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, innovation, and physical-comfort. However, the staff-support factor showed an almost significant difference between the two above group (F = 3.18, d.f. 1, 698, p = 0.0748). The autonomy factor did not evoke significant differences. It is worth mentioning that all the above differences are in favor of the private sector group who have scored higher than their public sector counterparts.

Table 5.2 show a wide range of differences in the mean, and the standard scores within two sector as follow: according to the mean scores (row scores):

1. The private sector group scored higher than their public sector counterparts in all the ten factors within the Work Environment Scale.

2. The task-orientation factor showed the highest mean score for the private sector group, while the control factor showed the highest mean score for the public sector group.

3. The staff-support factor showed the lowest mean score for both sectors group.

It is clear that the public sector group scored lower than the average in all ten factors regarding the standard scores. Moreover, the score for the involvement factor was the lowest for the public sector group.

From the above explanations, it is useful to point out that:

1. From Table 5.1 the results indicated that the private sector group have scored higher than their public sector counterparts in all the ten factors according to the mean, and standard scores within the work environment questionnaire.

This result gives a general picture supporting hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2.

2. The results showed that the work-pressure factor scored the highest standard score for both private sector and public sector. That means work-pressure exists in all the jobs within the two sectors. The higher score in the private sector means that work-pressure is more prevalent in the private than the public sector.

3. It has already been seen from Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 that the involvement factor showed the lowest standard score, lower than the average for the public sector group (39). Whereas, this factor scored higher than the average within private sector group (51). Added to that, the differences are very (highly) significant between the private sector group and public sector groups and is in favour of private sector group (see Table 5.2). Accordingly, it appears quite clear that for the private sector group there is more involvement within their works than public sector.

5.2.1 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE PRIVATE AND THE PUBLIC SECTOR REGARDING INVOLVEMENT, INNOVATION, AND PHYSICAL-COMFORT FACTORS.

As stated in the second hypothesis, that the private sector group will show significantly higher scores than their public sector counterparts within these three factors. Support for this point can be found in Table 5.3 and Figure 5.2 as follows:

1. From Figure 5.2 it is clear that the private sector group has scored higher than their public sector counterparts for the three factors.

2. Table 5.3 shows that the differences between the two sectors are highly significant (p <0.0000 for each of the three factors). These differences are in favour of the private sector group. This finding is consistent with what already has been suggested in the second hypothesis.

5.2.2 The differences between the two sectors for the control factor.

It has been stated in hypothesis 3 that the public sector group will achieve higher scores than the private sector group for the control factor. The findings revealed that the private sector group scored higher than their public sector counterparts on the control factor. Moreover, the difference is highly significant between the two sectors for this factor. This result is not consistent with what has been suggested in the third hypothesis, and the hypothesis that the public sector will achieve higher

scores than the private sector in the control factor is rejected.

5.3 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO SECTORS ON THE THREE MAIN DIMENSIONS OF THE WORK ENVIRONMENT.

In order to investigate and clarify the differences between the private and public sectors in the light of hypothesis one, the following dimensions are examined:

1. Relationships dimension - involvement, peer-cohesion and staff-support factors.

2. Personal development dimension - autonomy, and task-orientation factors.

3. Improvement and protection dimension - work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation and physical comfort factors.

5.4 The differences among the two sectors within the relationship dimensions (Hypothesis 4)

The relationship dimension is determined by the first three factors of the work environment scale instrument (WES), involvement, peer-cohesion, and staff-support and these factors showed higher scores for the private sector group than the public sector group (Table 5.1). Furthermore, there are significant differences between the private sector and the public sector for involvement and peer-cohesion factors. However, there is almost significant differences (F = 3.18, d.f 1, 698, p = 0.0748) between two sectors regarding staff-support, and these differences are in favor of private sector group (see Table 5.2).

Consequently, these results indicate that there are clear differences between the private and public sectors regarding the relationship dimensions. Hence, the private sector seems to have more involvement, peer-cohesion and staff-support than the public sector. In other words, the relationship dimensions are more visible and applied in the private sector than public sector.

To summarize the ten factors examined in the current study. The results indicate:

1. A substantial differential between the private and public sectors regarding the ten factors.

2. These results are consistent with what has been hypothesized in chapter two with the exception of section 3 from hypothesis one.

3. Of the ten factors which scored higher in the private sector than public sector, eight of them are highly significant (varies from $p = 0.0057$ to $p < 0.0000$). These eight differences are positively in favour of the private sector, as has been hypothesized.

4. Only two of the ten factor (staff-support, and autonomy) did not reveal any differences between the private and public sectors.

These results indicate that substantial differences have been found in the managerial profile between the private and public sectors in Kuwait society. They could have a major influence on the culture and work environment in Kuwait society.

5.5 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE EMPLOYEES SAMPLE OF THE PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTORS.

Hypothesis 2.

Concerning the relationship among employees themselves in private and public sectors, the private sector will give significantly stronger relationship among the employees than the public sector.

Table 5.3 shows the standard scores (converted row scores) and the F values for the employees sample of both sexes in the private and the public sectors within the work environment scale.

Table 5.3

Means, standard scores, F values and the significance between the employees both sexes in private and public sectors.

Factors	Private sector Employees = 274			Public sector Employees = 266			F	P
	M	S.S	S.D	M	S.S	S.D		
I	5.61	49	2.28	4.32	39	2.22	43.89	0.0000
P-C	4.88	49	1.87	4.56	46	1.37	4.14	0.0423
S-S	3.78	44	2.14	3.54	43	1.94	1.86	0.1729
A	4.35	45	2.34	4.23	45	2.06	0.38	0.5370
T-O	6.26	48	2.47	5.63	45	2.31	9.16	0.0026
W-P	5.74	49	1.81	4.88	43	1.98	28.05	0.0000
C	5.09	47	1.68	4.71	44	1.76	6.75	0.0096
Co	6.36	52	1.93	5.96	50	1.98	5.52	0.0192
In	4.71	48	2.46	3.75	43	2.16	23.12	0.0000
Ph-C	5.48	48	2.39	4.65	43	2.14	17.79	0.0000

M = mean   S.S = standard score   S.D = standard deviation.

Table 5.3 shows:

According to the mean scores:

1. There are 8 significant differences (varies from p = 0.0423 t p < 0.0000) between private sector employees and their public sector counterparts regarding the F values for: involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation, work-
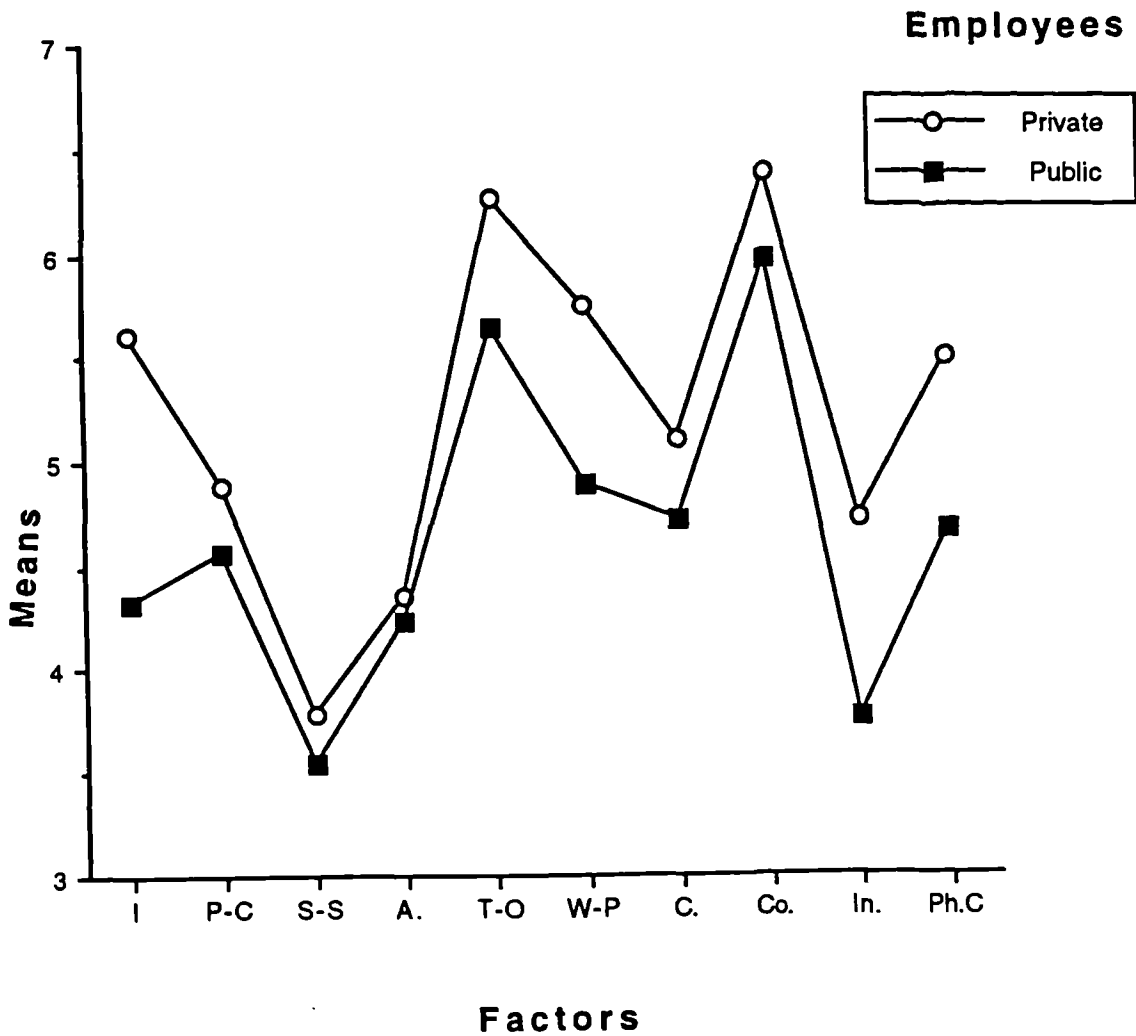
Employees

GRAPH 5.2

The means of the public and private sectors for the employees sample for both sexes for the ten dependent variables.

pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort. However, two factors did not show any significant differences in this respect: namely, staff-support ($F = 1.86$, d.f. 1, 538, $p = 0.1729$) and autonomy ($F = 0.38$, d.f 1, 538, $p = 0.5370$).

2. The private sector employees scored higher than their public sector counterparts on the ten factors.

3. The control factor showed the highest mean score for the two groups, while the staff-support factor showed the lowest mean score also for the two groups.

4. It is interesting to observe from Table 5.3 that the differences which have been found between the employees sample are consistent with what already have been found in the analysis of the overall managers and employees sample regarding the two sectors (Table 5.2) where similar differences for the same factors have been found.

According to the standard scores it is quite clear that the:

1. Private sector employees have scored higher than the average on the control factor (52). While public sector employees have scored on the same level of the average mark (50) points regarding to the same factor. However, the two groups scored lower than the average on all the other nine factors.

5.5.1 THE DIFFERENCES OF THE PERSONAL RELATIONSHIP PROFILE AMONG EMPLOYEES THEMSELVES WITHIN THE TWO SECTORS.

The type of personal relationship profile determined by the second factor (peer-cohesion) within the Work Environment Scale (WES), showed a significant ($F = 4.14$, d.f. 1, 538, $p = 0.0423$) difference between the employees themselves according to Table 5.3.

In addition, the employees in the private sector showed higher scores than employees in the public sector. As for the relationship dimension, two factors revealed significant differences between the two sectors: Involvement ($F = 43.89$, d.f. 1, 538, $p< 0.0000$) and Peer-Cohesion. In both factors, the private sector showed higher scores than the public sector. However, the Staff-Support factor did not reveal significant differences. Therefore, the results indicate that the personal relationship dimension among employees themselves are more spread, and more visible in the private sector than in the public sector. Furthermore, the results indicate that the personal relationship profile (peer-cohesion) among employees themselves could have a strong influence on employees to support each other within the work environment. The differences among employees themselves regarding the personal relationship dimension in each sector could have a strong influence on the managerial profile for each sector in Kuwait.

These results are consistent with hypothesis 2, which suggest that in term of personal relationship and level of

relationship pattern between employees themselves within organizational environment the private sector employees would be favored.

5.6 The difference between the managers and employees regarding the sex and sector variables.

To further our investigation in the differences between the employees sample of the two sectors, an additional analysis has been carried out. The objective is to see if any differences exist in the employees and managers sample, according to sex regarding the ten factors within the work environment scale.

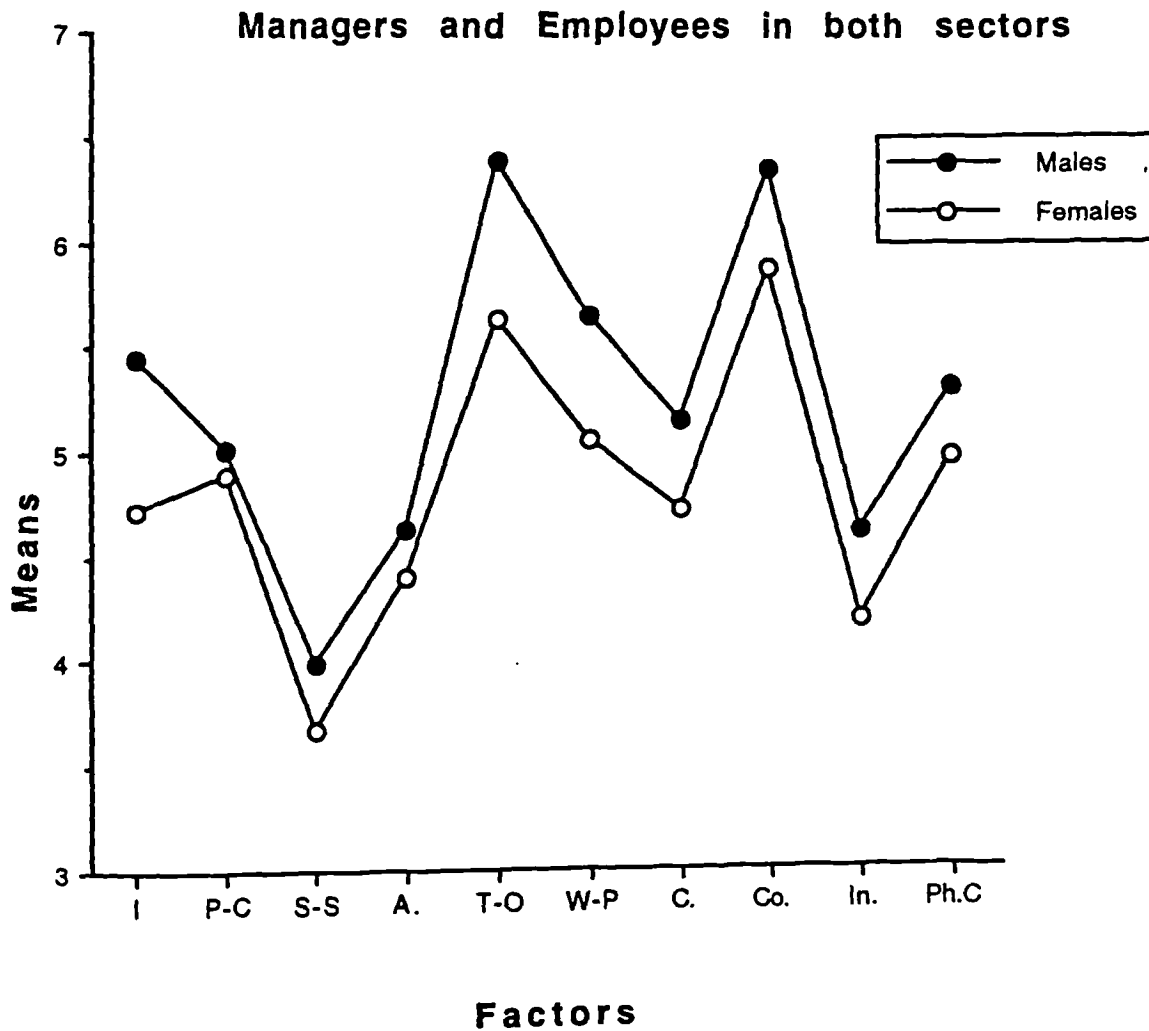## 5.6.1 The differences between male and female in both sectors (managers and employees)

By comparing 354 male and 346 female managers and employees in both sectors, the results showed that seven of ten factors revealed significant differences. The results are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

The mean, standard deviation, F values and the significance differences of male managers and employees and female managers and employees in both sectors.

Factor	M.M.	S.D.	F.M.	S.D.	F	p
I	5.45	2.14	4.72	2.45	17.48	0.0000
P-C	5.01	1.78	4.90	1.90	00.69	0.4074
S-S	3.99	2.04	3.68	2.04	04.18	0.0412
A	4.63	2.26	4.41	2.29	01.54	0.2144
T-O	6.39	2.25	5.63	2.37	18.90	0.0000
W-P	5.65	1.75	5.05	2.06	16.83	0.0000
C	5.15	1.74	4.72	1.73	10.63	0.0012
Co	6.35	1.93	5.87	2.05	09.93	0.0017
In	4.61	2.39	4.19	2.41	05.35	0.0210
Ph-C	5.31	2.30	4.98	2.30	03.75	0.0531

The factors which revealed significant differences are: Involvement ($F = 17.48$, d.f. 1, 698, $p< 0.0000$); Staff-Support ($F = 4.18$, d.f. 1, 698, $p = 0.0412$); Task-Orientation ($F = 18.90$, d.f. 1, 698, $p< 0.0000$); Work-Pressure ($F = 16.83$, d.f. 1, 698, $p< 0.0000$); Clarity ($F = 10.63$, d.f. 1, 698, $p= 0.0012$); Control ($F = 9.93$, d.f. 1, 698, $p = 0.0017$); Innovation ($F = 5.35$, d.f. 1, 698, $p = 0.0210$); Physical-comfort showed almost significant differences between the two sexes ($F = 3.75$, d.f. 1, 698,

Managers and Employees in both sectors

GRAPH 5.3

The means of males both managers and employees, and females both managers and employees in both sectors for the ten dependent variables.

p= 0.0531). Regarding the significant differences from the above factors, males had higher mean scores than females.

5.6.2 The differences between males and females in the public sector

Table 5.5 showed the results of comparing 175 male managers and employees and 171 female managers and employees of the public sector.

Table 5.5

The mean, standard deviation, F values and the significance of the male and the female managers and employees in the public sector.

Factors	M.M	S.D.	F.M.	S.D.	F	p
I	5.03	2.05	3.70	2.20	34.07	0.0000
P-C	4.94	1.72	4.57	1.82	03.78	0.0528
S-S	4.01	1.93	3.37	1.94	09.35	0.0024
A	4.75	2.18	4.08	2.22	08.07	0.0048
T-O	6.15	2.14	5.09	2.26	20.15	0.0000
W-P	5.37	1.69	4.42	2.06	22.03	0.0000
C	4.99	1.77	4.43	1.79	08.43	0.0039
Co	6.04	2.00	5.63	1.98	03.63	0.0577
In	4.49	2.25	3.30	2.10	25.70	0.0000
Ph-C	4.95	2.11	4.49	2.27	03.96	0.0473

Managers and Employees in the Public Sector
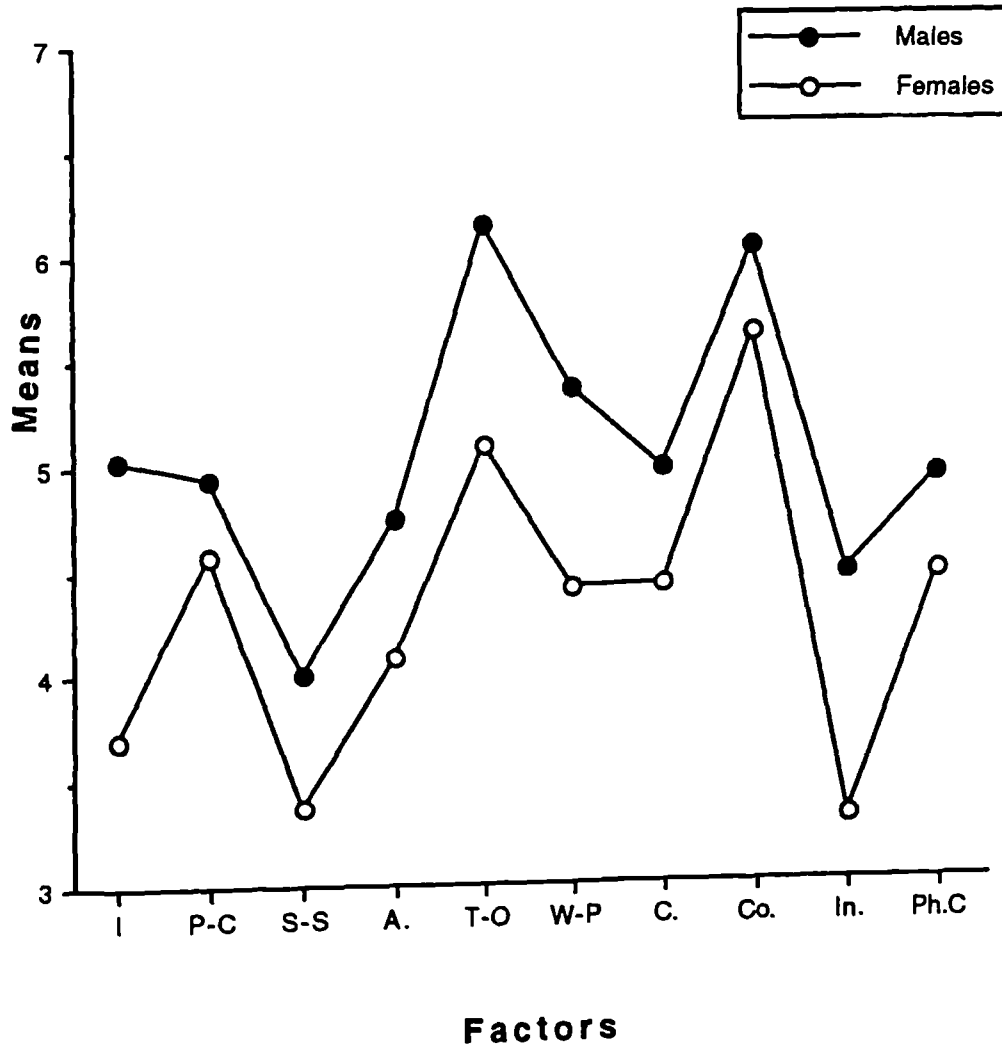
GRAPH 5.4

The means of males both managers and employees, and females both managers and employees in the public sector for the ten dependent variables.

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The results showed that Peer-Cohesion (F 3.78, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0528) and Control (F = 3.63, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0577) revealed almost significant differences, while all the remaining eight factors revealed significant differences: Involvement (F = 34.07, d.f. 1, 344, p< 0.000); Staff-Support (F = 9.35, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0024); Autonomy (F = 8.07, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0048); Task-Orientation (F = 20.15, d.f. 1, 344, p< 0.0000); Work-Pressure (F = 22.03, d.f. 1, 344, p< 0.0000); Clarity (F = 8.43, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0039); Innovation (25.70, d.f. 1, 344, p< 0.0000); Physical-Comfort (3.96, d.f. 1, 344, p = 0.0473).Males had higher scores than females for all the factors. Males had the highest scores for the task-Orientation and the lowest score for the Staff-Support. However, females had the highest scores for the Control and the lowest score for the Innovation.

## 5.6.3 The differences between males and females in the private sector.

Table 5.6 showed the results of 179 male managers and employees and 175 female managers and employees in the private sector.

Table 5.6

The means, standard deviation, F values and the significance of males and females in the private sector.

-

Factors	M.M.	S.D.	F.M.	S.D.	F	p
I	5.86	2.16	5.73	2.26	0.33	0.5671
P-C	5.08	1.84	5.21	1.93	0.44	0.5065
S-S	3.97	2.14	3.97	2.09	0.00	0.9977
A	4.51	2.34	4.75	2.32	0.90	0.3439
T-O	6.61	2.34	6.15	2.37	3.46	0.0637
W-P	5.92	1.77	5.68	1.86	1.57	0.2105
C	5.30	1.70	5.00	1.62	2.92	0.0885
Co	6.65	1.82	6.11	2.09	6.72	0.0100
In	4.73	2.51	5.06	2.39	1.61	0.2050
Ph-C	5.66	2.43	5.46	2.23	0.70	0.4024

From table above it is clear that Control is the only factor which revealed significant differences between the male and female managers and employees sample in the private sector (F = 6.72, d.f. 1, 352, p = 0.0100), males showed higher mean scores than females according to this factor. Task-Orientation showed almost significant differences between males and females (F = 3.46, d.f. 1, 352, p = 0.0637).

Managers and Employees in the Private Sector
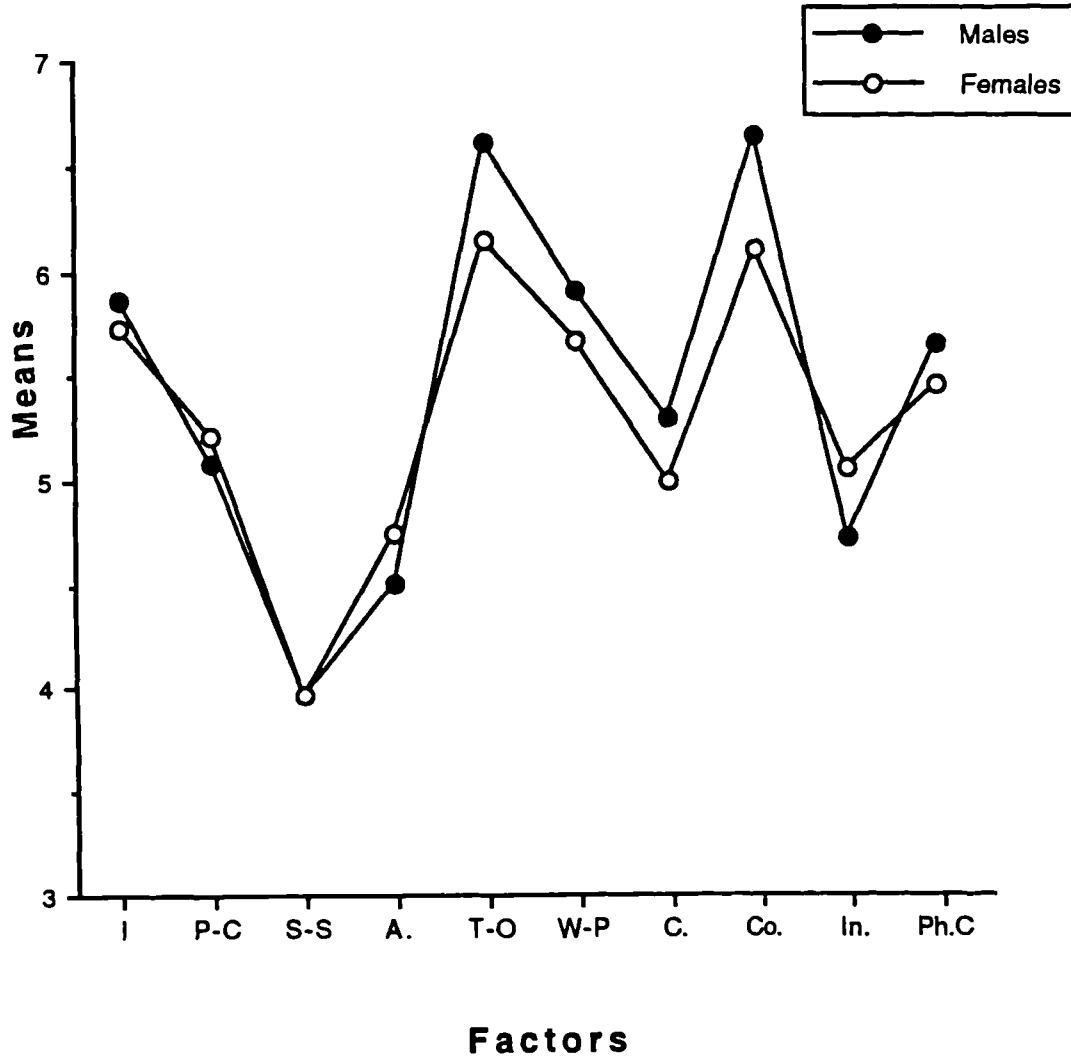
GRAPH 5.5

The means of males both managers and employees, and females both managers and employees in the private sector for the ten dependent variables.

Regarding these results one can conclude that the
differences between males and females are more clear in the
public sector than the private sector.

CHAPTER SIX: WORK ENVIRONMENT FEATURES FOR

THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS-

THE MANAGERS SAMPLE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four reviewed the relative importance of the differences between the two main forms of employment of human resources in Kuwaiti society, the public and private sectors. The differences between male and female employees in the public sector and private sector regarding sector variables were reviewed. In this chapter the differences between managers will be examined in the same way as the employees sample was investigated previously.

6.2 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGERS SAMPLE OF BOTH SEXES IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, WITHIN KUWAIT'S WORK ENVIRONMENT.

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 presents the relative importance of the differences between managers sample (both sex) within two sectors.

Table 6.1

Distribution of means, standard scores, and standard
deviations of the scores of the managers sample (both sex)
within two sectors according to the work environment scale.

Factors	Public sector = 80			Private sector = 80		
	Mean	S.S	S.D	Mean	S.S	S.D
I	4.53	42	2.56	6.44	54	1.81
P-C	5.43	52	1.78	6.06	55	1.63
S-S	4.21	46	1.97	4.63	48	1.91
A	5.03	51	2.62	5.56	54	2.03
T-O	5.63	45	2.08	6.83	51	1.89
W-P	4.95	43	1.78	6.00	53	1.83
C	4.73	44	1.95	5.35	50	1.61
Co	5.43	47	2.02	6.47	53	2.14
In	4.41	48	2.49	5.50	54	2.33
Ph-c	4.95	43	2.38	5.85	48	2.11

S.S = Standard score, which is converted from the row
score.

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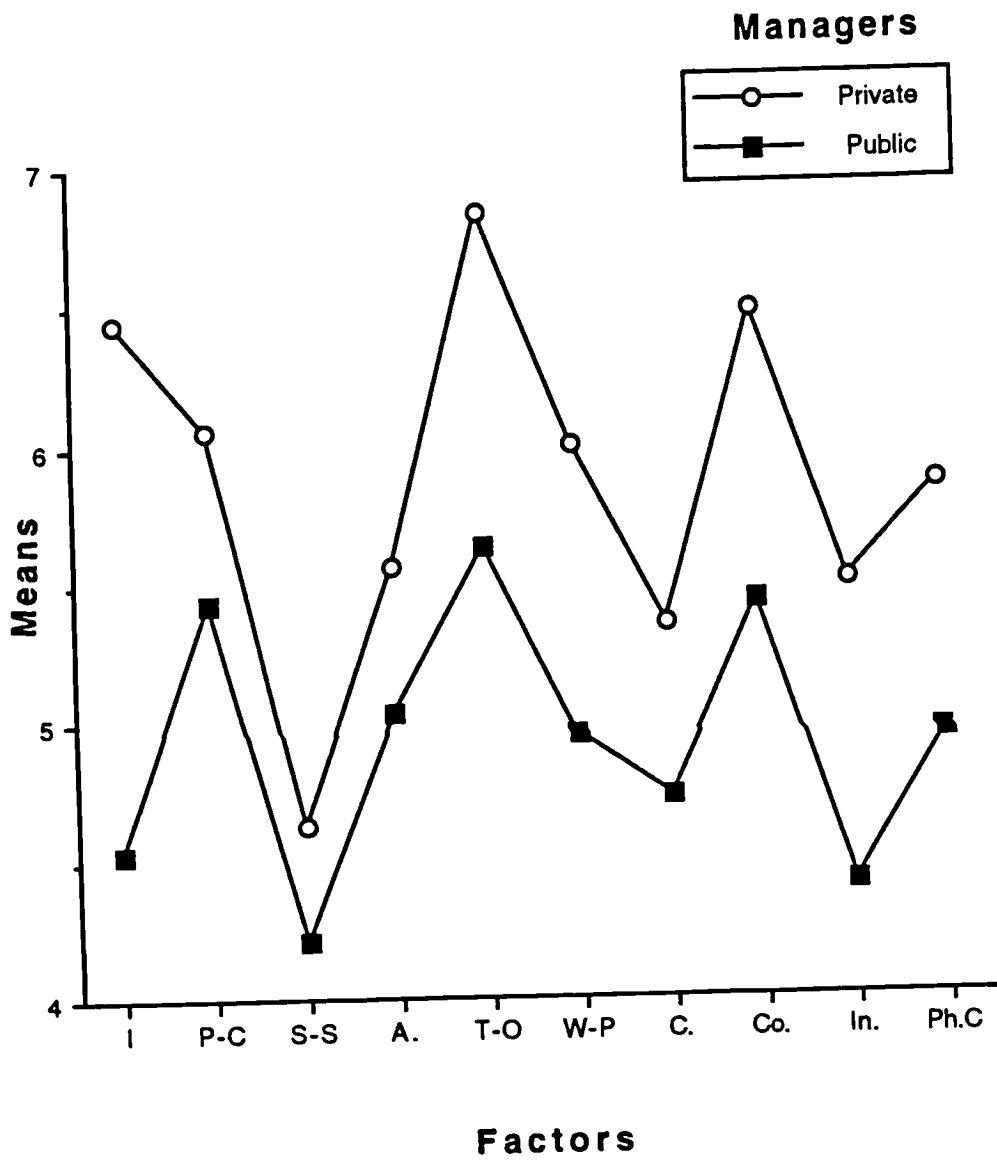
GRAPH 6.1

The means of the mnagers both sexes in the public and private sectors for the ten dependent variables.

Table 6.2

Analysis of variance of the scores of the managers sample of both sex within the two sectors regarding the work environment scale.

Factors	F value	p	
I	35.04	0.0000	*****
P-C	5.58	0.0194	*
S-S	1.81	0.1804	
A	2.10	0.1493	
T-O	14.53	0.0002	****
W-P	13.40	0.0003	****
C	4.90	0.0283	*
Co	9.93	0.0019	**
In	8.13	0.0049	**
Ph-C	6.40	0.0124	*

* $p < 0.05$ ** $P < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

**** $p < 0.0001$ ***** $P < 0.00001$

As Table 6.1 shows there are important differences in mean and standard scores for the work environment factors for the managers' sample (both sexes) in the two sectors.

1. Private sector managers have higher mean scores than their public sector counterparts.

2. According to the mean scores, the task-orientation factor showed the highest scores for the private and public

sector managers sample, while the staff-support factor showed the lowest mean scores.

3. The peer-cohesion factor shows the highest standard scores for both groups of managers. However, staff-support, and physical-comfort factors showed the lowest standard scores, for the private sector managers, and the involvement factor showed the lowest standard score for the public sector managers.

The F-values for each factor are shown in Table 6.2. There are 8 significant differences between two groups: involvement (F = 35.04, d.f. 1, 158, p< 0.0000), peer-cohesion (F = 5.58, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0194), task-orientation (F = 14.53, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0002), work-pressure (F = 13.40, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0003), clarity (F = 4.90, d.f. 1, 158, p =0.0283), control (F = 9.93, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0019), innovation (F = 8.13, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0049), and physical-comfort (F = 6.40, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0124). However, two factors did not show any differences in this respect, which are staff-support, and autonomy. It is worth mentioning that all the differences are in favour of the private sector group who scored higher than their public sector counterparts. This result indicates that the managers group (both sexes) in the private sector were more aware of their work environment and gave more respect to their work regulations than their public sector counterparts.

The private sector group score higher than average in seven of the factors, namely: involvement, peer-cohesion,

autonomy, task-orientation, work-pressure, control, and innovation. However, two factors show lower scores than the average, namely: staff-support and physical-comfort. The clarity factor scored on average. While the public sector group scored higher than average in peer-cohesion, and autonomy. However, eight of the factors for the public sector showed scores lower than the average, which are, involvement, staff-support, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical comfort. This result shows that the private sector managers seem to be more concerned with involvement, peer-cohesion, autonomy, task-orientation, clarity, control, and innovation. They also suffer more from work pressure. While they are less positive in staff-support, and physical comfort, since they show low scores in these factors. With respect to the public sector group, the result indicates that managers appear less concerned with involvement, staff-support, task-orientation, clarity, control, and innovation. Also, they suffer less from work-pressure and expect more physical-comfort in their jobs. While they are more likely to be partly concerned with peer-cohesion, and autonomy.

6.2.1 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO SECTOR GROUPS.

The differences between the private sector managers and public sector managers regarding to the:

1. relationship dimensions.

2. Personal development dimensions.

3. Improvement and protection dimensions.

6.2.1.1 Firstly: according to the relationship dimensions.

The relationship dimension is determined by the first three factors within work environment scale: involvement, peer-cohesion, and staff-support. Involvement (standard score = 54) and peer-cohesion (standard score = 55) were higher than average and staff-support (48) lower than the average for the private group. While involvement (42) and staff-support (46) scored lower than average, however, peer-cohesion (52) scored a little higher than average for the public sector group (see Table 6.1). Added to that, two significant differences have been found between the private and the public sector groups as regards, involvement (F= 35.04, d.f. 1, 158, p < 0.0000), and peer-cohesion (F = 5.58, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.0194). The staff-support factor (F = 1.81, d.f. 1, 158, p = 0.1804) did not show significant differences between the two groups. However, these two differences are in favor of private sector group (see Table 6.1). Therefore, the private sector managers (both sexes) are more concerned and involved in their jobs than their public sector counterparts.

From previous results, it is quite to point out that the private sector group seem to be more aware, and more concerned to the, involvement, and peer-cohesion dimensions. Whereas, the same group seem to be less concerned to the staff-support dimension. On the other

hand, the public sector group appeared to do not have
assertion, and they revealed not to enthusiast to the two
relationship dimensions which are, involvement, and staff-
support, whereas, the same group tend to have a mean
assertion to the peer-cohesion dimension. This may be due
to the fact that private sector managers (both sexes) have
more experience, and are more professional within their
work than their public sector counterparts. Consequently,
they revealed more involvement. Added to that they show
more peer-cohesion, because the private sector managers are
always those who try more to achieve works with more
responsibilities to gain their employees confidence. So,
they have more peer-cohesion, and less staff-support than
their public sector counterparts.

6.2.1.2 Secondly: according to the personal development dimensions.

This is determined by two factors - autonomy and task-orientation.

The private sector group scored higher than the
average in the autonomy (54), and task-orientation (51)
factors. Whereas, the public sector group scored little
higher than the average in the autonomy factor (51) and
lower than the average in the task-orientation factor (45)
(see Table 6.1). Furthermore, one significant difference
has been found between the private and public sector groups
for the task-orientation factor (F = 14.53, d.f. 1, 158, p
= 0.0002) and this difference is in favor of the private

sector group. Whereas, the private sector managers (both sexes) tend to be more familiar with modern styles of management, and systems in their work environment than their counterparts in the public sector.

6.2.1.3 Thirdly: According to the improvement, and protection dimensions.

As mentioned in chapter 2, the last five factors (work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort) are considered to determine the improvement and protection dimensions. This result indicates that the private sector group responds more positively to the improvement and protection dimensions than their public sector counterparts. Moreover, there are 5 significant differences between the two groups regarding work-pressure (F= 13.40, d.f. 1, 158, p= 0.0003), clarity (F= 4.90, d.f. 1, 158, p= 0.0283), control (F= 9.93, d.f. 1, 158, p= 0.0019), innovation (F= 8.13, d.f. 1, 158, p= 0.0049), and physical-comfort (F= 6.40, d.f. 1, 158, p= 0.0124). It is worthy of note that these differences are in favour of the private sector group, who have scored higher than their public sector group counterparts (see Figure 6.1).

The previous results indicate that:

1. In terms of work-pressure the private sector group suffered more than their public sector counterparts.

2. In term of work regulations and procedures the public sector do not have clear awareness of their work procedures and regulation, whereas their private sector counterparts

show more awareness of their work constitutions, and regulations.

3. In term of control, the private sector group revealed more control to keep their employees to encourage them to conform to the organization's disciplinary rules than their public sector counterparts.

4. In term of innovation, the private sector group revealed that it was more used to new styles of management than their counterparts in the public sector.

5. In term of physical-comfort, it seems that the private sector's work environment is more comfortable and the managers feels more please and comfortable than their public sector counterparts.

To shed more light on the differences between the private managers group and the public managers group and in order to know if any differences would exist in the managers sample, regarding the sex and sector variables within work environment scale, an additional analysis of variance has been carried out.

6.3 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGERS SAMPLE ACCORDING TO THE SEX AND SECTOR VARIABLES WITHIN KUWAIT WORK ENVIRONMENT.

Tables 6.3 presents means, standard scores, F values and the significance of the comparisons carried out in this respect.
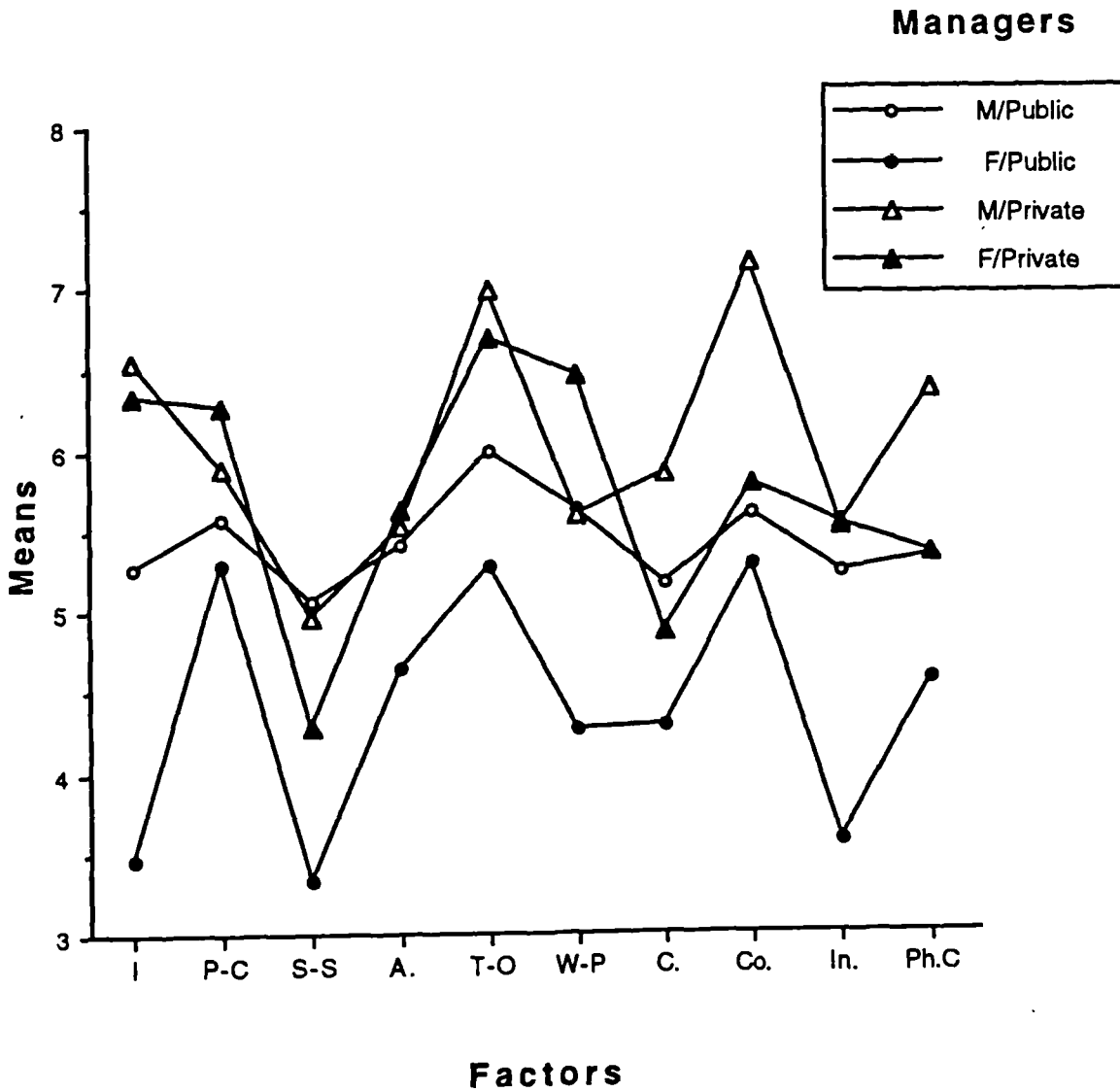
Table 6.3

Distribution of the mean scores standard scores, F values and the significance of the managers sample within work environment scale regarding the sex and sector variables.

| Factors | Public sector = 80 | | | | Private sector = 80 | | | | | |
| | Male = 41 | | Female = 39 | | Male = 41 | | Female = 39 | | | |
	M	S.S	M	S.S	M	S.S	M	S.S	F	p
I	5.27	45	3.74	36	6.54	54	6.33	51	7.60	0.0065
P-C	5.56	52	5.28	49	5.88	52	6.26	55	0.03	0.8543
S-S	5.05	51	3.33	40	4.95	51	4.28	46	16.84	0.0001
A	5.40	51	4.64	48	5.51	51	5.62	54	0.76	0.3852
T-O	5.98	48	5.26	42	6.98	54	6.67	51	2.68	0.1024
W-P	5.61	49	4.26	39	5.59	49	6.44	53	0.84	0.3606
C	5.15	47	4.28	41	5.83	50	4.85	44	11.32	0.0010
Co	5.59	47	5.26	44	7.12	56	5.77	47	6.84	0.0098
In	5.22	51	3.56	43	5.50	54	5.51	54	4.79	0.0301
Ph-C	5.32	46	4.56	43	6.34	52	5.33	46	6.29	0.0131

M = mean   S.S = standard score

According to Table 6.3 there are important differences between managers regarding the sex and sector variables as following:

GRAPH 6.2

The means of the male and female in the public sector and males and females in the private sector for the ten dependent variables.

6.3.1 According to the sex variable within public and private sectors group.

A. Public sector.

Table 6.3 shows that:

1. With respect to the mean scores, the task-orientation factor (5.98) showed the highest score for the male managers sample, while the peer-cohesion factor (5.28) showed the highest score for the female managers sample. The staff-support factor (5.05, and 3.33) showed the lowest mean score for both samples of managers.

B. Private sector.

Table 6.3 indicates that:

1. Regarding the mean scores, the control factor (7.12) showed the highest score for the male managers sample. The task-orientation factor (6.67) showed the highest score for the female managers sample. The staff-support factor showed the lowest scores for both male (4.95) and female (4.28) managers samples.

6.4 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MANAGERS SAMPLE WITHIN SEX VARIABLE ACCORDING TO THE RELATIONSHIP, PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT, AND IMPROVEMENT AND PROTECTION DIMENSIONS.

With respect to the differences between managers sample in the light of sex variable within two sectors the results indicate:

6.4.1 Firstly: The differences between public sector (male managers group and female managers group).

1. According to the relationship dimension.

It is clear that the involvement factor scores lower than average for male (45) and female (36) managers in the public sector, although the male sample scored higher than the female sample, in this respect. Whereas, peer-cohesion (52), and staff-support (51) factors score higher than average (49) and (40) for female managers in the public sector. This means that the two groups are low in involvement but the male group is more concerned with peer-cohesion and *staff-support than their female counterparts*. That indicates that the male managers group in the public sector are more aware of the relationship dimensions and more likely to behave cohesively with each other, than their female counterparts in the public sector. The female group scored quite high in the peer-cohesion factor, but still lower than the average. This can be ascribed to the fact that the male managers have more experience, more self-assured, and more dominant employment sector.

2. The differences between the two groups according to the personal development dimensions.

It is quite clear that the male sample scored slightly higher than the average in the autonomy (51) factor. While the females group scored lower than the average in the same factor (48). Whereas, the two groups scored lower than the average in the task-orientation factor (48, 42). This mean

that male, and female managers in the public sector do not have a clear awareness of the personal development dimensions, and also, the two groups do not take the personal development dimensions as an important dimension in their managerial life. Accordingly, the results indicate that there are no differences between male managers and female managers in the public sector, regarding to the personal development dimensions, although the male sample scored higher than their female counterparts within the above two factors. This may be due to the fact that the two groups (male and female managers) in the public sector are less giving attention to their employees to be self-sufficient and makes their own decisions within their work. Moreover, they also use less good planning and modern styles of management to achieve better services in the social and public services. Therefore, they revealed the same level of negative attention to the personal development dimension.

3. The differences between the two groups according to the improvement and protection dimensions.

As Figure 6.2 showed the male managers sample scored lower than average in four factors which are work-pressure (49), clarity (47), control (47), and physical comfort (46). However, the male sample scored a little higher than the average in the innovation (51) factor. Whereas, their female managers sample counterparts scored lower than the average on the above five factors. Consequently, the male group faces more work-pressure, and they seem to be more

aware of the work clarity and more likely to be innovative within their work. This may be due to the facts that especially in the public sector male managers always have more responsibility in their jobs, because they are more dominant than their female counterparts. So, they face work-pressure, and they are more self-assured, and have wider experience. This mean that there are differences between male and female managers regarding the improvement and protection dimensions. However, the male group have slightly more autonomy within their work than their counterparts, the female managers group in the public sector.

6.4.2 Secondly: The differences between private sector (male managers group, and female managers group).

1. the differences between the two groups according to the relationship dimension:

It is clear that the male managers group scored higher than the average in the three factors which are Involvement (54), peer-cohesion(52),and staff-support(51).Whereas, their female group counterparts have scored higher than the average in the first two factors which are Involvement, and peer-cohesion. However, the female group scores slightly lower than the average in the staff-support factor. This result indicates that there are no differences between male managers group and female managers group within relationship dimensions. The two groups are highly concerned with their jobs, and the two group revealed

highly cohesive behavior specifically in accordance with each group. However the male group score slightly higher than average for staff-support than their female counterparts. This may be due to the fact that in the private sector managers of either sex are always under strict supervision from their superior.

2. The differences between the two groups regarding to the personal development dimensions:

It is quite clear from that the two groups scored higher than the average on the autonomy, and task-orientation factors. Moreover, the female sample scored higher than male sample in autonomy. While the male sample scored higher in the task-orientation factor, by respectively than females sample. This means that there are no differences between the two groups regarding the personal development dimensions. Both male and female managers samples have concern and awareness of these dimensions. Therefore, they are more encouraging to their employees to be more self-sufficient, and self-decision making regarding their work. This may be due to the fact that the male group (especially within the private sector in Kuwait society) dominates all the managerial functions, so, they feel that they are more responsible for their position as managers. Consequently, they reveal more task-orientation than their female counterparts. This is on the one hand, on the other hand, the female group, since the government encouraging women to gain their social and vocational rights, revealed more autonomy than their male

counterparts, specifically within private sector banking.

3. The differences between the two groups according to the last dimensions which are improvement and protection dimensions:

It is clear that the male managers sample scored higher than the average by the three factors which are control (56), innovation (54), and physical-comfort (52). However, the sample scored on the same average mark by the clarity factor, and lower than the average by the work-pressure factor. Whereas, their female managers sample counterparts scored higher than average by work-pressure (53), and innovation (54), and scored lower than the average by clarity (44), control (47), and physical-comfort (46). It is important to note that the two groups scored at the same level higher than the average in the innovation factor (54). This mean that the two groups are very different regarding to these dimensions. Female manager sample suffered more from work-pressure, while their males manager counterparts suffered less from same factor. For, the female sample there was less clarity in work regulation, and constitutions and less in the control their employees to keep them under the organizational regulations and systems and, also, less in the physical-comfort factor than their male counterparts. While the male managers sample was very high in the control of their employees under organizational regulations and constitutions, and the clarity of the work regulations, and constitutions very clear to them. Also, in the physical-comfort they have high

concerned to provide the pleasing, comfortable and encouraging environment performance. While the two groups have the same level of innovation within their works. This can be ascribed to the fact that the two groups (male managers and female managers) especially in the private sector are always those who have more experience, and are more professional within their jobs. Consequently, the female group is more likely to be more innovative and try to improve themselves in order to qualified to be in the high position like manager to gets more conventional assurance from their authority that they are more qualification to be as managers. The male group because they dominate managerial functions feel that they are more self-assured, independent active. They (male) revealed more control, more innovation and more physical-comfort. Also, because the male group have longer experience within their work (specially in the managerial vocations) than their female counterparts, they reveal more clarity than their female counterparts.

6.5 The relationship between the managers (administration) and the employees within each sector

It has been mentioned in the beginning of this chapter; that the aim of the first study was also to identify the relationship between the administration and the employees in each sector in terms of work environment scale.

Hypothesis 4:

We expect that the relationship between the managers and employees in the private sector will be more clear and strong than the public sector.

To investigate the above point, an additional statistical analysis of the correlation between the ten factors of WES was applied.

As stated in chapter 2 on the description of the work environment scale, the first three factors of the WES namely, involvement, peer-cohesion and staff-support are determined to evaluate the type of personal relationship within work environment, especially the relationship between the managers and their employees. The objective of this additional analysis is to identify the relationship between these three factors. By achieving this target, as well as, using the previous results of analysis of variance as shown in Table 4.8 the previous mentioned hypothesis will be examined.

6.5.1 Results

Table 6.4 shows the correlation between the ten factors within the work environment scale.

Table 6.4

The correlation matrix distribution between the ten factors of the WES.

Factors	I	P-C	S-S	A	T-O	W-P	C	Co	In	Ph-C
I	1.00									
P-C	0.42	1.00								
S-S	0.51	0.44	1.00							
A	0.56	0.44	0.60	1.00						
T-O	0.67	0.30	0.41	0.48	1.00					
W-P	0.31	-0.01	0.05	0.08	0.39	1.00				
C	0.51	0.28	0.41	0.43	0.51	0.02	1.00			
Co	0.36	0.10	0.20	0.22	0.49	0.40	0.36	1.00		
In	0.63	0.34	0.52	0.52	0.46	0.23	0.34	0.29	1.00	
Ph-C	0.40	0.24	0.29	0.31	0.30	-0.02	0.38	0.17	0.35	1.00

The calculations comparing the correlations show significance on the level 0.05 two tailed test for z is $r = 0.075$. So, any correlation between any two factors more than $r = 0.075$ is significant correlation and vice versa.

According to Table 6.4:

1. Most of the correlations between the ten factors reveal significant positive correlations which vary from 0.08 to 0.67. However, the correlation between peer-cohesion and work-pressure, physical-comfort and work pressure showed negative correlation, while, staff-support and work-pressure, clarity and work pressure did not show significant correlation.

2. The strongest significant correlation (r = 0.67) was between the task-orientation and involvement.

3. The next strongest significant correlation (r = 0.63) is between the innovation and involvement.

4. The weakest significant correlation (r = 0.08) is between work-pressure and autonomy.

5. The correlation between work-pressure and peer-cohesion (r = -0.01), and physical-comfort and work-pressure (r = -0.02) constitute a negligible or zero correlation.

6. As Table 6.4 shows that the correlation between; involvement and peer-cohesion (r = 0.42), involvement and staff-support (r = 0.51), and peer-cohesion and staff-support (r = 0.44) are significant positive correlation.

With respect to Table 6.5 which expound the analysis of variance and differences between the two sectors by relationship dimension factors (involvement, peer-cohesion and staff-support).

Table 6.5

The distribution of means, standard scores, F values and the significance of the private and public sector by involvement, peer-cohesion and staff-support.

Factors	Pr.M	Pr.S.S	Pu.M	Pu.S.S	F	p
I	5.80	51	4.37	39	72.26	0.0000
P-C	5.14	49	4.80	46	7.69	0.0057
S-S	4.00	46	3.70	43	3.18	0.0748

According to Table 6.5 that these factors showed higher means and standard scores for the private sector than the public sector. Added to that, there are significant differences between the two sector by involvement and peer-cohesion, and these differences favor the private sector. So, these factors are relatively more clear in the private sector than the public sector. Since these three factors reveal significant positive correlations between each other. In conclusion, the relationship between the managers and their employees as measured by the three previous factors are more clear and positive in the private sector than the public sector. The result is consistent with Hypothesis 4.

CHAPTER SEVEN WOMEN'S CAREERS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we will focus our attention on Kuwaiti career women and the relative importance of the changes affecting her status regarding the social, educational, and vocational situation over three stages of Kuwait's history: A. before the oil era (before 1945). B. In the beginning of the oil era from (1946 - 1960). C. During the modernization period from (1960 -1985). In addition, the rapid socio-economic development in Kuwait society during the three above period will be reviewed.

To achieve these objectives, this chapter is organized as follows:

1. Section One, review of the status of Kuwaiti women, before the oil era.

2. Section Two, the participation of Kuwaiti women in economic activity is reviewed together with related changes among Kuwaiti career women which have begun to appear since the oil era from (1946 - 1960).

3. Section Three, the contribution of Kuwaiti women to educational development is reviewed. Their participation in the process of change in traditions and customs

affecting traditional family-centred work is examined. The contrast between veiled women living within the four walls of their houses to young women moving about freely in schools and offices is explored together with their competition with men to reach high positions in the many parts of the managerial sector.

7.2 KUWAIT BEFORE THE OIL ERA

Kuwait was a poor and undeveloped country, the first population estimate in 1910 was of 35,000 people. The second estimate in 1935 was of 75,000, and the third in the early 1950's of 100,000. The first population census was conducted in 1957 when the population was found to have doubled to 206,000 (Ministry of Information, 1989, p 30).

In the past the people of Kuwait eked out their living as fishermen, pearl divers, animal herdsmen, and traders. They carried goods through the Gulf countries to India, and East Africa. Because of its location at the head of the Gulf and its excellent natural harbor, Kuwait town was an important market and enter port for trade with the interior of Arabia. The boat building industry was also one of the traditional occupations of Kuwait because of the carrier trade. There was little domestic farming because the local water was too salty to drink or even to

be used for agriculture. Fresh water for drinking was
bought and brought by boat from Shatt Al-Arab.

7.3 THE STATUS OF KUWAITI WOMEN BEFORE THE BEGINNING OF THE OIL ERA (1887-1910)

7.3.1 Social Status

Kuwait as one of the undeveloped Arab Middle Eastern
countries was heavily dominated by men. Men had more
social opportunity to improve their domination in the
society than the women. The socio-economic hierarchy of
Kuwait at that time consisted of the ruling family and
rich merchants. Below these groups came fishermen, pearl
divers, and Bedouins (Shehab, 1964). Men had complete
responsibility for their family. Most if not the whole
population of Kuwait were Moslems (because no immigrant
yet).

The loss of women to the labor market and their
underemployment can be seen in every society where
traditions and customs limit their participation. It
results from male prejudice concerning the position of
women. The best picture of the status of Kuwaiti women at
that time:

Women stay at home because of their strict seclusion. The
women of the extended families can meet other women like
their neighbors from other extended families. The women of

a rich family, does not work in their house at cooking,
cleaning, making bread, and taking care of their children.
Most domestic and non domestic work was done for them by
servant women. They just had to supervise their servants
at home.

At the same time in the families of the poorer-
fishermen, small artisans, and bedouins the woman helped
the men with selling clothes, vegetables, and dresses they
had made.

7.3.2 The educational status of Kuwaiti men and women
before the oil era

The educational resources:

With most civilized societies the origins of
education can be traced back to centres of religious
worship. So it was in Kuwait, where basic schooling was
provided in the "Kuttab" or Al-Mutawwa'a or Al-Mulla,
attached to the mosque, where children were taught the
Quran, and learnt the elements of reading, writing and
arithmatic. These above named were the beginning of the
education in the state of Kuwait. The Mutawwa'a or Kuttabs
were often endowed by wealthy businessmen and merchants
because the development of Kuwait as a focal point of
commerce and trade helped to emphasis the need to read,
write, and calculate. Others were established by the

teachers themselves, who were known as Mutawwa'as or Mullas.

Another source of the educational process in Kuwait at that time was the "diwaniyah", a word that originally meant the men's quarters in a bedu tent, but which has come to have the wider meaning of men's societies or fraternities. Meetings in the diwaniyhas were often very intellectual and of considerable importance in disseminating knowledge. Books would be read, speeches would be made and profound debates would be held on both religious and linguistic topics. These two resources of the origins of the educational process in Kuwait continued in the 20th century. The first proper school was established on 22 December 1911 and named "Al-Mubarakiya" in honour of the then ruler of Kuwait, skeikh Mubarak Al-Sabah. The number of students attending at that time was approximately 254. It was established by wealthy Kuwaiti merchants and citizens. Nine years after the first official school the citizens of Kuwait, encouraged by Amir Sheikh Ahmed Al-Jaber Al-Sabah, subscribed to the establishment of another school. This opened in 1920 and was named Al-Ahmadiya after the Amir (Al-Abdul Ghafour, 1984; Shehab, 1984; AlNouri, no date). Kuwait's educational system continued in this way until 1936 when the first Council of Education was established by Kuwait's

citizens. It comprised 12 leading citizens chaired by Sheikh Abdullah Al-Jaber Al-Sabah. This Council of Education recognized the need for reorganizing Kuwait's education system. They imported qualified teachers from other Arab Middle Eastern countries who formed the nucleus of the first educational mission in Kuwait and were the first of the many hundreds of oversees teachers who, with their Kuwaiti colleagues, constitute the backbone of Kuwaiti's education until the beginning of the oil era (Ministry of Information, 1989).

The previous explanation concerned education for Kuwaiti males before the beginning of the oil era. But, what about Kuwaiti womens' education?

There was no consideration for women's education, especially from their families and relatives. The educational process at that time was considered for males only because they were the basis of the economy. There were no school for girls and the education of girls was frowned on by the society. Most of the women were illiterate. Tradition and custom demended that women be covered from head to foot and any women past the age of puberty was veiled and married soon after. Marriage was usually with cousins or other relatives. Women's educational situation continued in this way up until 1916, when the first "Kuttab" for girls (run by Al-Mutawwa'ah or

Mullayah which was female) was established. Its aim was to teach the girls to read and recite from the Quran. A few girls tried to learn to write from Mutawwa'ah and sometime from their brothers who had learned to read and write from the (Mutawwa'as) or from the two official schools. The first official "Kuttab" was established to teach girls to read and write. Since that time Kuwaiti women began the process of girls education. This process continued until 1937-1938 with the opening of the first formal girls' school, close to the Al-Mubarakiya boys' school. More schools were built and the girls took their educational rights. Women's education came under the government's authority as the society recognized the need to educate girls. The first official girls' school named, the Alwastta school consisted of 140 girls and three teachers. In the 1938-1939 the second girls' school was established so the number of the female students increased noticeably (300), and the number of the teachers rose to 11. They were from Kuwait and other Arab countries (Al-Sabah, 1987). The modern education system continued until Kuwait became an independent country in 1961. Then the number of girls schools increased year after year until 1967/1968 where the number of schoolgirls reached 47,655 (Al-Seddany, 1980). Table 7.1. provides statistics on the number of schoolgirls between 1938 and 1967/8.

Despite the modern education system for Kuwaiti women

begun in 1938, many of the Kuttabs continued their

teaching process until 1950 where the last ones were

closed (Al-Saleh, 1975).

By 1941 the third official girls' school has opened.

However, women's education in that time was in small

school

located at different parts of Kuwait city. The council of

education in that time decided to establish two more

girls-school, the first one located on the eastern part of

Kuwait city, and named (Al-Sherghiya school), and the

second one located west of the Kuwait city, named (Al-

Geblah school) and as well as the third one in the middle

of Kuwait city named (Al-Wastta school). During that time

the number of the school girls were increased, as well as

the number of the girls-school, by early 1950 the number

of the girls-school rose to eight built as a modern system

(Al-Sabah, 1989).

In 1955-1956 academic study year, the first group of

Kuwaiti women had been sent to Egypt as a scholarship

group mission to achieve their higher education.

Table 7.1

Number of the school girls from 1938 to 1968 in the 30 years since the opening of the first official female school in Kuwait until 1967/8.

Year	schoolgirls	Year	Schoolgirls
1938-1939	300	1953-1954	4182
1939-1040	330	1954-1955	5200
1940-1941	400	1955-1956	6776
1941-1942	464	1956-1957	8578
1942-1943	520	1957-1958	10761
1943-1944	590	1958-1959	12661
1944-1945	670	1959-1960	15324
1945-1946	820	1960-1961	17459
1946-1947	935	1961-1962	20230
1947-1948	985	1962-1963	23877
1948-1949	1215	1963-1964	28597
1949-1950	1334	1964-1965	32509
1950-1951	1772	1965-1966	38238
1951-1952	2447	1966-1967	43026
1952-1953	3550	1967-1968	47655

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 369).

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7.3.3 Vocational Status of Kuwaiti women before the oil era

Male domination of the economic development process
gave them full rights to supervise all the productivity
process. Added to that, the participation of the women in
economic activity before the oil era period were limited
by the inside home service (child nurse, and family's
affair) concerning her position, and the inhibition of
tradition, like all their sex in the other Arab Gulf
countries. Nevertheless, Kuwaiti women have contributed in
the variety of previous productivity process which were
prevalent in the society in that time. For example, the
Bedouin's wife was involved with cutting and gathering
fire wood, breeding cattle, and carrying water (Al-Sabah,
1987). As mentioned before, this situation was consistent
with all the Gulf countries as well as in many parts of
Arab world. Therefore, there were no women's roles in the
services or production process outside the home before the
oil era (Al-Romeahi, 1977 and Al-Sabah, 1987).

Nevertheless, some of the young educated women from
the members of the wealthy families participated with
their male counterparts in the social and educational
development of Kuwait before the oil era (Al-Seddany,
1980).

The development of a modern educational system for Kuwaiti women took place early in comparison to some of the other Arab Gulf countries: Saudi Arabia in 1960, Qatar in 1955, U.A.E. in 1958 and Oman 1973. In contrast Bahrain started in 1928 (before Kuwaiti by almost ten years) (Al-Sabah, 1989). The previous discussion indicated that there were no roles for women in the economic sector outside the home, or any actual role in the development process, except those women from middle class families who often helped their husbands in their work.

7.4 KUWAITI CAREER WOMEN AND HER STATUS FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE OIL ERA (1946-1960)

Most Arab countries offer the image of societies in transition. Major changes are taking place in their traditional socio-economic patterns, paralleled by even more rapid changes in their demographic, manpower and employment structures (Berouti, 1976).

The early stages of economic development in Kuwait society appeared to be caused by progressive change in the traditional work roles which prevailed in the society of that time. These changes created a significant need for additional workers and led to a large scale use of migrant workers. This created new occupational, industrial and educational opportunities for Kuwaiti women to participate

in the social and economic development in occupations which were dominated by males such as banking and companies in the private sector (Al-Sabah, 1989).

During the first fourteen years of the oil era, particularly, from 1950 to 1965 Kuwait was transformed from a small traditional Arab Gulf country into a modern city-state with large commercial and financial institutions. The Kuwaitis modernized their life-styles with astonishing speed and vigor. The changes also involved the Kuwaiti people and their social life-style. For the men the changes were enormous, but for the women the changes were more limited. Moreover, the changes brought new values which were accepted along with the new wealth and created essential changes in the attitude of government and social attitudes towards economic development and towards the employment of women in the modern sectors of the economy. The change toward women can be noticed in many parts of Kuwait society. The government encourages an increasing involvement in work by women, and this affects the whole spectrum of social attitudes, values, and institutions. However, the organization of the home and family and the marriage customs are only slightly influenced by this change. Girls now can chose their partner, from among cousins or relatives but she can only see her partner one time and with her family in

attendance. Polygamy had disappeared among the educated young people, although it is still prevalent among older people.

Despite the changes to social and economic development and the related changes in the attitude of the government toward women's status, the effects can only be seen in parts of Kuwait society. The high class wealthy families who enjoyed considerable social prestige and political power have accepted changes to the status of young women. This can be seen in their participation within government service as civil servants, social welfare workers, and teachers from 1938-1960 (Al-Seddany, 1984). However, in that time the dress and living patterns of these educated women (from high class families who were educated in other countries) had changed a little from veiled women living within the four walls of the house to young women moving to schools or work place but still wearing the outer garment (the Abaya). For the school girl (in most Kuwaiti society), they even keep the face cover or dispensed it (the Boshia). Although in 1956 some school girls of the higher secondary school burned their "Boshias" and discarded or cut up their "Abayas" as a protest against the veil, which prevented them from making a greater contribution in the new social life-style in that time (Al-Najjar, 1984).

During the first fourteen years of the oil era (1946-1960), it appears that there were two distinct situations of social status for Kuwaiti women.

Firstly:

Educated young women contributed and participated alongside men in the social and educational development in the country. Those who were leaders of the women's revival in Kuwait in the current time numbered 384 in 1957. Working women represented 0.3% of the total number of females at that time (1955) was 54468 (Al-Sabah, 1987).

Most of these young women who graduated were working in the education sector at the girls' schools, or in the offices of the Ministries of Health and Social Affairs. The number of Kuwaiti women who joined the work force at that time increased yearly until 1965. The numbers rose from 384 in 1957 to 1,002 in 1965. The corresponding numbers of male Kuwaiti workers were in 1957, 23,540 and in 1965, 39,148 (Al-Sabah, 1987). It is important to note that the number of non-Kuwaiti women who had work in 1957 in Kuwait were 1,687 and in 1965, 7,613. These women were from other Arab countries - Lebanon, Egypt, Jordan - and were a powerful influence in inducing changes at that time.

Secondly:

The small number of educated women in comparison to the total female numbers at that time indicates that the majority of Kuwaiti women continued to live within the home and the practices of tradition and custom. A large part of Kuwait society believed that the education and employment of women was not appropriate. The social changes were generally more rapid within the families of leading merchants, who had positions of prestige and power within the Kuwaiti commuinity. However, most of the middle class families did not accept these social changes. The leading merchant families had more contact with the highly westernized Arab communities like Lebanon, Egypt, and Jordan. In addition, they are more educated, and involved in economic development and modernization. So, tradition was less important in showing the diffusion of these new practices. In contrast, most of the the middle class families did not have any contact with highly westernized communities and were less involved with education, economic development and modernization. Moreover, most of these families were illiterate and this constituted a major inhibiting factor in the diffusion of new practice and the rejection of new social changes. Therefore, the women from this group remained under the inhibitions of tradition and custom. Although, some of these families (a

small number) accepted the new social changes and involved

within education, and economic development, specially from

1955 to 1960.

With respect to the educational status of Kuwaiti

women, in the 16 years since the opening of the first

girls' school, women's education in Kuwait has progressed

at a startling rate. In 1954 the new curriculum was

implement and three stages of school education were

established, namely primary, intermediate, and secondary.

Each stage consists of four years study, in addition to

the kindergarten stage. During this time the number of the

 school girls increased, and women's education become more

widely established in Kuwait society. Added to that, since

1957 the government has operated a number of illiteracy

eradication centres primarily aimed at those people who

were deprived of education or were unable to continue it.

Open to both men and women, the centres were originally

attended on a voluntary basis. It is worth mentioning here

that the percentage of Kuwaiti women who were illiterate

in relation to the total number of females above 10 years

of age in 1957 was 74.2%. This means that 3/4 of Kuwaiti

women were illiterate at that time. While the percentage

of the Kuwaiti male illiteracy in relation to the total

number of males above 10 years of age in the same year was

46.4%. It was only to be expected that female illiteracy

was higher than male (Al-Sabah, 1987). The education of women increased yearly and the percentage of the Kuwaiti women who were illiterate became lower each year particularly among young Kuwaiti women and those who were from wealthy families. But it was still prevalent among Kuwaiti from middle class families specially among 20 years age and over.

7.5 THE ROLE OF KUWAITI WOMEN IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT (1946-1960)

Some studies indicate that the economic development, and modernization of any country, is dependent on the rate of women's contribution to its social and economic activity (Al-Rejaib, 1981; Al-Khalid, 1982).

It is widely accepted that any development plan in any country is associated with the participation of women in the work force alongside men after all they are potentially half of the economicaly active population force in the society (Al-Rejaib, 1981).

The vocational status of Kuwaiti women in the beginning of the oil era from 1946 to 1960, and her role in the economic activity was very limited. Since then major changes have taken place in traditional socio-economic patterns, paralleled by even more rapid changes in Kuwait's demographic, manpower and employment

structures. This transition results from the economic boom. Kuwait needs extra manpower for her development plans and has resorted to employing expatriates to fill positions that could have been occupied by indigenous citizens. The rate of women's contribution to the total work force in the Kuwait in 1957 was 0.3% (Al-Sabah, 1989) at a time when the total number of females above 15 years of age was 28,448 (Ministry of Planning, p 18, Table 5, December, 1985).

As a remedy to many of the problems affecting the structure of manpower the participation of women in the labor force has been given more attention by the government. This encouragement to participate in the labor force not only contributes to accelerating economic development, but also relieves social and economic problems such as those created by the growth of non-Kuwaiti employment.

Table 7.2

The distribution of manpower and labor force for Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti by sex, nationality in 1957.

	Sex	Ku	%	Non-Ku	%	Total	%
Employment	M	23540	16.0	53273	36.1	76813	52.1
	F	384	0.3	1687	1.1	2071	1.4
Total		23924	16.2	54960	37.2	78884	53.5
Unemployment	M	678	0.5	720	0.5	1398	0.9
	F	-	-	6	0.0	6	0.0
Total		678	0.0	726	0.5	1404	0.9

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 125).

Table 7.3

The percentage of the women's contribution to the work force.

	Years					
	1950	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
% of women to the total work force	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.3	1.7	2.3

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 125).

The above table indicates that the work participation rate of women has been very low and inconsistent with what has been offered by the government to encourage the participation of women in a variety sectors, especially education.

Table 7.4

The percentage and number of the Kuwaiti women and men by the different occupations in 1957.

Occupation divisions	F	%	M	%	Total	%
Professional and technical workers	34	0.1	450	1.6	484	1.7
Administrative and managerial workers	-	-	527	1.9	527	1.9
Clerical and related workers	10	-	3224	11.4	3234	11.4
Sales workers	44	0.1	3607	12.7	3649	12.9
Service workers	298	1.1	3931	13.8	4229	14.9
Agricultural, animal husbandry, hunting and fishing workers	-	-	618	2.2	618	2.2
Production workers and laborers	-	-	11183	39.4	11183	39.4
Non clear workers	-	-	4449	15.7	4449	15.7
Total	384	1.4	27989	98.6	28373	100

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 133).

The process of socio-economic development in Kuwait
society was continuous, especially among the educational
sector. Entry of women into government service, and the
contribution of women in the variety of the governmental
sectors were increased, as a resulting of modernization of
the community and the education of women. Kuwaiti women
participated in a variety of work within the government
sectors as professional and technical, clerical and
related workers, sales workers, and service workers. The
estimated distribution of the percentage and numbers of
the Kuwaiti women and men by the different occupations in
1957 were as illustrated in Table 7.4.

Increasing numbers of educated women are revealed in
Kuwait society. In 1938 the total of educated women were
300 and in 1960 were 4,862 distributed as follows:

1. The numbers of Kuwaiti women who can read and write at
that time were 4,862.

2. The number of Kuwaiti women who had completed primary
education stage were 272.

3. The number of Kuwaiti women who had obtained the
secondary stage were 45 as well as in 1956 the first group
of Kuwaiti women were sent to Cairo on government
scholarships. Moreover, many Kuwaiti women attended the
adult education and illiteracy eradication centres to get

their education. However, most of their children brothers and even their husbands were studying in schools, or colleges out of the country on government scholarships. Several of those who were married had husbands with university degrees, and some had postgraduate qualifications.

Most educated women at that time were in government service. The educated Kuwaiti women had a very high work participation rate. More than 99% of them worked for the government. More than 85% of Kuwaiti women workers were in the service sector (Ministry of Planning, 1985, pp. 155). For example, in the Ministry of Education as teachers in girl's schools or in various branches of the Ministry's Offices (see Table 6.8). Some of them worked in the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor as social workers. The participation rate appears truly remarkable in comparison with the low work participation rate 1.1% for all Kuwaiti women of working age. This concentration of graduates in education and social service had arisen partly from two requirements of the government: one, to find Kuwaiti teachers and social workers to replace expatriates for the girls' school (in the case of teachers) and to be closer to their community (in case of social workers); two, teaching was considered to be the most suitable place for women because it was illegal for

men and women to work together in the community. Most

women who started work were from the families of leading

merchants. Work by educated women came to be associated

with modernization and wealth- the thing to do, and not as

an indicator of economic need. There was no difficulty in

obtaining a job, since the government was committed to

provide jobs for all Kuwaitis, men and women.

Most educated people wanted women to become teachers,

social workers, and doctors. Few desired women for such

jobs as personal secretary, bank clerk, and in the

Ministry of Information, as announcer in the radio (at

that time there was no television station), or working as

librarians and administrators. The women who were in

government service in the Ministry's Offices worked in

separate wings of the building to the men's offices. In

the case of other jobs such as lawyer or diplomat. Kuwaiti

women did not have the right to take these occupations

(Al-Seddany, 1984). It is interesting that, in that time

(from 1946-1960), some ministries did not allow women

employees to come to the work without wearing the outer

garment like (Abaya) or covering their face (Boshia).

Other ministries allowed women employees to work without

wearing the veil. This situation changed particularly,

after 1961, when the veil disappeared among employed

women. They dressed in the latest western styles and

worked in offices alongside men.

Despite the improvements for women in education, vocational opportunity and social status, men still dominate the community. Men had better opportunities for work than women and women did not reach top decision-making positions even if they had higher qualifications. So, the women were dominated by men in the home as well as in the work place, and still the view and attitudes of society toward the women did not change. But, the educated people wanted women to get more opportunities and these attitude and practices will change, but this change will take time. The situation of Kuwaiti women continued until 1963, when some of the graduates, who went out of the country to gain their degrees and practiced their work in the government sectors, established the first women's social and cultural association. The association demanded that women must be free from male domination, gain equal rights and more opportunity to contribute to socio-economic development (Al-Seddany, 1984).

The process of change and modernization in Kuwait society continued. The change relating to the rest of the Kuwaiti community resulting from the immense size of the oil revenues in relation to the Kuwait population at that time, particularly in the late 1950s and the early 1960s, led to a high concentration of the investment in economic

and social service including the building of a new modern
city. This led to a massive increase in the education of
women. They participated in modern service occupations in
increasing numbers. There was a growing trend toward
adoption of the life-styles characteristic of the cities
of the western Arab countries, such as Lebanon and Egypt.
A large number of young Kuwaiti women became veilless,
dressed in the latest Western styles, and drove their own
cars. Moreover, a number of Kuwaiti women became
university graduates; those who went on government
scholarships in 1956 got their degrees from Cairo
University in 1960 (Al-Saleh, 1975).

7.6 WOMEN'STATUS DURING THE MODERNIZATION PERIOD (1960-
1985)   As mentioned in section four we will focus our
attention on the Kuwaiti career women during the economic
development and modernization period from 1960-1985
regarding:

1. Social status.

2. Educational status.

3. Vocational status.

7.6.1 Social status of Kuwaiti women during the period of modernization.

With respect to the status of Kuwaiti women, by early 1965 the veil had disappeared among younger women, but the older generation kept the veil. Some of them had discarded the veil and dispensed with the "Boshia" and "Abaya". Most educated young women were dressed like Westerners.

Marriage customs became more flexile. Some Kuwaiti girls (especially from educated families) no longer married at a very young age. Most of them can now determine their choice of partner. The girls have much greater opportunity for meeting men especially their various cousins and other relatives. Marriage for Kuwaiti women by non-Kuwaiti men was unacceptable. Although some families wanted to keep the marriage custom limited to the various cousins because the older people wanted the family property to stay within the family. The unmarried rate of women (15 and over) had gone up from 48.5% in 1965 to 61.8% in 1980. While the married rate of Kuwaiti men by non-Kuwaiti wife had gone up also from 11.4 in 1982 to 15.2% in 1988 (Annual Statistical Abstract, 1989).

Polygamy almost disappeared, among educated people, although it was still prevalent among the older generation. But, the worst thing which appeared as a

result of these changes and modernization is that the joint living of the families had disappeared. In the early 1960s, most Kuwaiti people did not want womens' participation in the armed forces or such jobs as personal secretary, bank clerk, television artist, sales women, and telephone operator, because in these jobs women either had to work closely with men or had to appear before the general public. Although by the 1980s a massive number of Kuwaiti women participated in these jobs (except the armed forces). Moreover, men and women started to work in the same wings of the office building. In the case of other jobs such as lawyer, beautician, shop managers, hair dressing, and dress shop large number of Kuwaiti women practiced the above jobs especially during the 1980's, and 1990's.

In 1981 Al-Khalid had studied the attitude and trends of Kuwaiti society toward employment of Kuwaiti women in the modern sectors. She reported that there are two trends regarding to employment of Kuwaiti women:

1. 46% of the educated (have degrees) peoples wanted women to participate in the expanding modern sectors.

2. 54% of the educated peoples wanted women to be in limited jobs such as teachers social workers and doctors (Al-Khalid, 1982, pp. 304). This result indicates that the process of change and modernization in the Kuwait

community has affected social attitudes toward women. A large number of Kuwaiti women became university educated, and Kuwaiti women travel frequently to Western countries. Many Kuwaiti women were sent to Western universities: in 1973, 122 Kuwaiti women gained their degrees from Europe or the United States, and in 1977, 716 Kuwaiti women were to get their degree from Europe or U.S.A. Moreover, a number of Kuwaiti women participated in the variety of women's associations or unions which had been established in Kuwait as public associations. Added to that, many Kuwaiti women had reached the top decision-making positions like Under Secretary in the 5 Ministries of the Government, which are the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Planning, and Ministry of Oil. Also there were large numbers of women in high positions at Kuwait University as professors and heads of departments. Furtheremore, in recent times Kuwaiti women through various governmental or public associations symbolise the modernization of the community. Many Kuwaiti women now participate in economic activity, and social attitude towards women have changed.

7.6.2 The educational status of Kuwaiti women within changing and modernization period

With respect to the educational situation of Kuwaiti women in this period of changed times. The process of the women's education in Kuwait has progressed and the rate of educated Kuwaiti women had gone up to 56.8% in 1984.

However, education at all levels was completely free for Kuwaiti men and women. According to Article 40 of Kuwait's constitution:

> "Education is a right for all Kuwaiti's, guaranteed by the state in accordance with the law and within the limits of public policy and morals. Education in its preliminary stages shall be compulsory and free in accordance with law" (Ministry of Information, 1989, pp.10).

Therefore, in 1966 the government made education compulsory for the age group of 6-14 years. The education of girls up to secondary school level and university level became acceptable in Kuwait society. As a result a massive

number of Kuwaiti women became university graduates, some of them were graduated from Arab university, in Egypt, Lebanon, and other Arab countries, a few went to universities in Europe or the United State. By 1961-1962 the government of Kuwait recognising the investment in the educational services, as a result an increasing number of school girls were attending government schools. Whereas, in early 1964, 41% of Kuwaiti women were attending government schools while in 1984-1985 the rate of attendance had gone up to 48.3%. As a result a large numbers of Kuwaiti women became school teachers, and a growing trend toward adoption by the Kuwaiti government to investment in human resources. Therefore, the numbers of girl's schools increased. In 1986 there were 339, nearly 57.3% of the total schools in the country. While the total number of school girls in 1986 was 175,601 between 5 and 18 years of age. This number attended government schools, where they constituted 48.2% of the total student body in the country (number of schools, the students, and teachers are illustrated in Table 7.5).

Table 7.5
State education statistics 1985/1986.

	Kinder.	Primary	Interm.	Secon.	Total
Schools:					
Male	*	93	85	56	234
Female	93	95	83	53	324
Total	93	188	168	109	558
Students:					
Male	12,274	62,320	64,962	47,146	186,461
Female	11,790	62,172	59,506	41,291	174,759
Total	24,064	124,492	124,468	88,437	361,461
Teachers:					
Kuwaiti	1,428	4,722	1,892	1,131	9,173
Non-Kuwaiti	459	2,894	6,807	6,325	16,485
Total	1,887	7,716	8,699	7,456	25,658

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 373).

Whereas, in 1965 the numbers of school girls were 23,930 out of the total student body of 85313. In 1975 the number had increased to 56,104 out of the total student body, of 121,244. This meant that 46.4% of the total student population were females. Moreover, in 1981 the government passed a law to help eliminate illiteracy for all the Kuwaiti people in the 10-50 age group who were deprived of education or were unable to continue their education. Hence education became popular with older women who pressed forward into adult education centres established by the government. The numbers of the Kuwaiti women attending these centres was 11,709 in 1986, nearly 36.8% of the total population (Al-Sabah, 1989).

Table 7.6
Kuwaiti population 10 years old and over according to the
education level and sex for the years 1957 - (1970-1985).

Education level	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
Illiteracy, 1957	27501	84.2	18694	52.8
1970	69091	63.9	36703	33.2
1975	88734	30.0	44880	59.1
1980	92150	49.6	40660	22.7
1985	82407	36.9	33466	15.5
Read and write, 1957	4862	14.9	15726	44.4
1970	12569	11.6	30480	27.5
1975	12653	20.9	31287	8.4
1980	19825	10.7	32255	18.0
1985	23666	10.6	28670	13.3
Primary, 1957	272	0.8	805	2.3
1970	16569	15.3	25400	22.9
1975	26199	26.7	39989	17.5
1980	31522	17.0	47686	26.7
1985	45699	20.5	58150	26.9
Intermediate, 1957	-	-	-	-
1970	7284	6.7	12095	10.9
1975	14496	14.0	20919	9.7
1980	24567	13.2	34480	19.3
1985	39027	17.5	54694	25.3
Secondary and less, 1957	45	0.1	152	0.4
1970	2321	2.2	4982	4.5
1975	6797	6.6	6806	4.5
1980	14310	7.7	18207	10.2
1985	25065	11.2	30299	14.0
Graduates & postgraduate,1957	-	-	51	0.1
1970	273	0.3	1074	1.0
1975	1224	1.8	2755	0.8
1980	3366	1.8	5508	3.1
1985	7532	3.4	10625	4.9
Total, 1957	32680	100.0	35428	100.0
1970	108107	100.0	110734	100.0
1975	150103	100.0	149636	100.0
1980	185740	100.0	178799	100.0
1985	223396	100.0	215904	100.0

Table 7.7

The illiteracy rate in the population (10 years old and over) by sex and year.

Years	Male	Female	Total
1957	46.4	47.2	59.7
1965	39.4	69.5	54.0
1970	33.1	63.8	48.2
1975	30.0	59.1	44.6
1985 (1)	22.7	49.9	36.4
1985 (2)	15.5	36.9	26.5

Table 7.6 from Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 44.

(1) Annual Statistical Group, 1985, Table 31, pp. 48.

(2) Ministry of Planning, Central statistic management, 1985, part one, Kuwait, February 1986, Tables 18, 19 and 20 pp. 110-130.

Added to that, in 1966 the University of Kuwait was established, and a large number of Kuwaiti women enrolled. The number of Kuwaiti women increased from 149 in 1966 to 6,521 in 1985. As a result increasing numbers of Kuwaiti women hold university degrees. The number of Kuwaiti women who finished secondary education (high school) or hold university degree had increased from 17,677 in 1980 to 32,597 in 1985 (Central Statistical office, 1989).

Table 7.8

Population (20 years old and over) who have university level according to subject and sex in 1975 and 1980.

Subject	Female		Male		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Human sciences, 1975	521	42.6	353	12.8	874	22.0
1980	411	12.2	279	5.1	690	7.7
Education, 1975	52	4.2	86	3.1	138	3.5
1980	689	20.5	330	6.0	1019	11.5
Art, 1975	15	1.2	45	1.6	60	1.5
1980	31	0.9	88	1.6	119	1.3
Law, 1975	37	3.0	207	7.5	244	6.1
1980	118	3.5	371	6.7	489	5.5
Social sciences, 1975	297	24.3	1067	38.7	1364	34.3
1980	1419	42.2	2235	40.6	3654	41.2
Natural sciences, 1975	229	18.7	304	11.0	523	13.4
1980	386	11.5	365	6.6	751	8.5
Engineering, 1975	5	0.4	511	18.6	516	13.0
1980	58	1.7	1349	24.5	1407	15.9
Medical sciences, 1975	56	4.6	144	5.2	200	5.0
1980	171	5.1	303	5.5	474	5.3
Agriculture, 1975	4	0.3	16	0.6	20	0.5
1980	21	0.6	66	1.2	87	1.0

continue Table 7.8

Not stated, 1975	8	0.7	22	0.8	30	0.7
1980	62	1.8	122	2.2	184	2.1
Total, 1975	1224	100.0	2755	100.0	3979	100.0
1980	3366	100.0	5508	100.0	8874	100.0

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 45).

In 1974 Dr. Al-Thagib also studied the trends and the social attitudes toward education and work participation of Kuwaiti women. He focused on 526 educated Kuwaiti males and females. He found a significant trend towards education and employment among Kuwaiti women. He concluded that:

A. Regarding women's education, 71% out of the total study sample wanted to have university level education, 23% wanted to have secondary (high school) level education, and 6% wanted to have primary level of education.

B. Regarding women's work participation he reported that 82% of the sample encouraged and supported work by women, and 90% of this group felt that women should have government jobs, and they wanted women to become teachers, social workers and doctors. From these results we can see

that attitudes toward Kuwaiti women's education and toward various kinds of jobs had undoubtedly changed in the society. Kuwaiti women are getting university education in increasing numbers and are entering the modern service sector. Moreover, thousands of Kuwaiti women had gained their first degrees from Kuwait university.

In 1981 Al-Khalid was working as an Undersecretary of the Department of Psychological and Social Service in the Ministry of Education. She investigated attitudes towards work participation and vocational education among Kuwaiti women in order to understand the general social attitudes toward employment of women in the modern sectors. She reported that a large majority of opinion had indicated that Kuwaiti women should anticipate different functions. In particular that women should have more opportunities for work. She added that they also indicated that women should be able to gain degrees and postgraduate qualifications. These people represented 46% of the sample, but 60% of this group were female and 40% male.

The second group of 29.3% felt that women should have limited work opportunity in government jobs and not work with companies or run a business of their own. They indicated specific jobs for women like teacher in girls schools, or in Ministry of Social Affairs as a Social Worker, or in the Ministry of Health as a doctor or nurse.

They wanted women to have a suitable education like liberal arts, social service, domestic science and teacher training. In this group 63% were male and 37% were female.

The third trend represents the remaining 24.7% who indicated that special training for women like; interior decoration, cooking, flower arrangement is necessary to make good housewives, and the women should have general education. Most of this group were male. She indicated that the large percentage of the sample were encouraging women to have higher education level and to participate within various kinds of jobs. Whereas, the low percentage of the sample were against women having a higher education level and participating in the various kind of jobs.

In view of the massive numbers of Kuwaiti women entering the modern service sector and since the participating in socio-economic development the government had to look at the structure and content of women's vocational education and training systems. In 1982 the government established the public authority for applied education and training. This applied education and training centre, is responsible for co-ordinating the activities of all the training institutes in Kuwait. Consequently, a large number of the Kuwaiti women were entering in the various polytechnics and training centres.

However, more adequate vocational preparation could be achieved through a greater expansion of technical education and vocational training than of general education.

7.6.3 The vocational status of Kuwaiti women within changing and modernization period (1960-1985)

An important result of the Modernization of the Kuwait community and the education of Kuwaiti women had been the entry of women in large numbers to government service as a civil servants, social welfare workers, and teachers.

In the light of the above situation, the importance of the women's role in the state of Kuwait has been increasing. The Gulf countries, in need of manpower for their development plans, have resorted to employing expatriates to fill positions that could have been occupied by indigenous citizens. As a remedy to many of the problems affecting the structure of manpower, the role of women has been given more importance by the government, especially considering what women have already achieved in many fields.

7.6.3.1 The vocational and economical features, of women's role in the Kuwait society

The rate of Kuwaiti women's contribution to the work force (i.e. the percentage of women working in relation to the total number of Kuwaiti females above above 15 years of age) is shown in the following:

1957	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
23.9%	19.8%	21.5%	21.7%	18.1%	16.7%

While, the rate of Kuwaiti men's contribution in the work force to the total number of Kuwaiti males above 15 years of age as shown in the following:

1957	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
26.1%	20.8%	21.9%	21.4%	17.3%	15.9%

(for two previous tables, Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 132).

The above percentages indicate that women's role in economic activity has been declined from 23.9% in 1957 to 16.7% in 1985. This mean the activity rate of women had declined by 7.2% in the above period. While, men activity rate has declined from 26.1% in 1957 to 15.9% in 1985.

This means that the activity rate of men had declined by 10.2% in the same period. This indicate that there has been a decline in the activity rate for both sexes in the labour force, in the above six years census in the state. However, it is clear that the decline rate result for men is relatively higher than for women. The decline could be a result of the increasing number of both sexes who continue their high education (university and more).

The statistics released in the above six years census revealed that the contribution rate of Kuwaiti women (percentage) in the total work force in the state from 1960 to 1985 as follows:

1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
0.3%	0.3%	0.4%	1.3%	1.7%	2.3%

Whereas, the contribution rate of Kuwaiti men in the total work force in the state for the same periods as follows:

1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
16.4%	13.5%	13.8%	15.2%	11.5%	9.5%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p.132 for both previous tables).

It is clear from above percentages that women's activity rates show an up ward trend from 0.3% in 1960 to 2.3% in 1985. Whereas, the men activity rate has declined from 16.4% in 1960 to 9.5% in 1985. The above percentages indicates that there has been an increase in the women's activity rate up to 2.0% in the 1985. While the men's activity rate had declined to 6.9% in the same period.

The contribution rate for Kuwaiti's of both sexes to the total work force in the state is very low because of the large size of the foreign work force population. The result is that the Kuwaitis form a small proportion of the work force. Whereas, the non-Kuwaiti women participation rate in the total work force in the state from 1960 to 1985 is as follows:

1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
1.1%	2.5%	3.2%	5.0%	6.0%	10.0%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p.128).

While the non-Kuwaiti men participation rates in the total work force in the state over the same period as follows:

1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
36.3%	42.9%	35.2%	33.4%	41.2%	40.7%

The above percentages indicate that the trend towards increasing activity rates for both sexes is for non-Kuwaiti work force up to 8.9% among female and up to 4.4% among males in 1985.

It appears quite clear from above evidence that the work participation rate of Kuwaiti women in the economic activity in the state were relatively very low, within twenty five years period from 1960 to 1985; whereas, the changes having taken place in the social attitudes toward employment of women in the various kinds of jobs, and also concerning the massive number of Kuwaiti women who are getting more education and joined the work force. Although the contribution percentage of Kuwaiti women in the labor force was only 8% in 1975 and it jumped to 20% in 1985.

There is another factor which contributes to the low participation rate of Kuwaiti women to the work force. This may be due to the high standard of living of Kuwaiti women, who do not seek work for economic rewards.

Thus It is clear that the contribution of Kuwaiti women in relation to the total population of the labor force has grown from the 1957 census to the 1985 census.

1957	1970	1975	1980	1985
1.4%	3.4%	8.4%	13.4%	19.8%

(for the two previous tables Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 128).

Previous table shows a growth by the addition of 18.4% crude female work participation rate from 1957. Whereas, by 1985 one fifth (1/5) of the total Kuwaiti labor force were Kuwaiti women, and the other percent which are fourth fifth of the labor force were Kuwaiti males.

It is now possible to focus on the various economic sectors in order to show the contribution of Kuwaiti women by major occupational group in the labor force in the state.

The distribution of the Kuwaiti women by the major occupational group in the public and private sectors are dissimilar. Most Kuwaiti women work in government service, the education sector or civil servants at the University of Kuwait, in girls schools, or in the offices of the ministry of education, teachers, social workers, and researcher asistants in the University of Kuwait.

The work rate participation of Kuwaiti women in the service sector in relation to the total number of females in the work force in the state (above 15 years of age) has

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developed significantly during the last 25 years. Table
7.17 shows that the percentage of Kuwaiti women working in
the service sector in 1960 was 82.3%. Whereas, it increase
to 94.6% in 1985 as is shown in following:

1960	1970	1975	1980	1985
82.3%	94.4%	95.3%	93.4%	94.6%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 128).

This indicates that the substantial growth in the women
activity rate in the above economic sector, has been
increasing at amount addition about 12.3% in 1985 in the
areas of service, clerical, administratives and managerial
jobs. While the contribution rate of Kuwaiti men in the
service sector over the same period was recorded as is
shows in the following:

1960	1970	1975	1980	1985
51.3%	43.3%	71.9%	72.9%	74.3%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 128).

It is clear from the above that there has been growth in
the activity rate of the Kuwaiti male occupations in the
service sector from 51.3% in 1960 to 74.3% in 1985, an
addition of about 23.0% by 1985. However, the increase in

the males activity rate in the service sector is much larger than the increase in the female activity rate in the above same economic sector.

Generally, the contribution rate of Kuwaiti women to the service sector is very high. Whereas the major category within the broad groups of professional workers is that of teachers in government schools. In 1985 more than 98% of all the Kuwaiti working women were in the teaching occupations. Whereas the contribution rate of Kuwaiti women in the professional, technical and related workers sectors in relation to the total number of the Kuwaiti women work force is shown in the following:

1960	1970	1975	1980	1985
0.1%	1.6%	4.7%	6.9%	10.1%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 128).

This indicates that there has been growth in the contribution rate of the Kuwaiti women in the above section from 0.1% in 1960 to 10.1% in 1985 over 25 years period, at additional ranged for about 10.0% in 1985. Moreover, the total number of Kuwaiti women who are working in above mentioned section had been relatively increasing. The reason for this increasing contribution rate in the professional and technical section may be due

to the increase in the level of education and training for women. They are bound to contribute at an increasing rate to the above section.

In comparison between Kuwaiti males and females in clerical and related work, the participation rate of Kuwaiti women within this section is still very low against the participation rate of Kuwaiti males in 1985.

The total number of Kuwaiti women who were working in the education sector as teachers were recorded as 8,524 in 1985 and represented a activity rate of 66.9% in relation to the total number of Kuwaiti women who are working in the above section.

The second largest section of the proportion of the work participation rate of Kuwaiti women in the labour force in the country, is concentrated in the clerical and related work section.

It is clear that the contribution rate of Kuwaiti women in this section has been increasing from 22.1% in 1970 to 38.3% in 1985. This indicates that there has been an increase in the women's contribution rate in this section up to 16.2% in the 15 years period. The high activity rates of Kuwaiti women in the government sector were in professional, technical and clerical related work. In 1985 about 22,469 or 89.7% of all Kuwaiti women employment in the country are working in the above two

section. Most of the Kuwaiti women who were working in these above two sections are employed as teaching occupation, or as secretaries, typists, filing clerks, telephones, telegraph operators, librarian, and related workers.

The previous review indicates that the contribution rate of Kuwaiti women in the above section represents nearly one-fifth of the total labour force in the country. The administrative and managerial workers section of the economy absorbs a very small proportion of the labour force. Whereas, the percentage of the Kuwaiti women who were occupied in the above section in relation to all the employment labour force as is shown in following:

1957	1970	1975	1980	1985
-	0.1%	0.3%	0.5%	0.9%

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 128).

From the above percentages, it is clear that the contribution rate of women in this section of the economy remained very low. As well as the total number of the Kuwaiti women who were working in this sector is concentrated very low. Although the number of Kuwaiti women had increased from 3 in 1970 to 69 in 1980, and 222 in 1985. Moreover, the other sectors of the economy,

absorb very small proportion of Kuwaiti women, for example service workers, production workers and laborers, and employment in the primary sections like; agricultural, animal husbandry, hunting and fishing. These remain at a very low or negligible proportion of 0.0-0.4%.

The work participation of Kuwaiti women in economic activity and their role long side men in the socio-economic development in the country, indicates that the major development have been implemented during the 25 years period before 1985. Where the work participation rate of Kuwaiti women had attained up to one-fifth of the total labor force in the state within the above period (from 1960 to 1985). The remaining percentages which are fourth-fifths of the total labor force in the country, have been contributed by the Kuwaiti males. Despite the increasing contribution of Kuwaiti women in economic activity. The participation rate of both males and females in the process by economic development in the country, had been relatively low. It suffered from many of the problems affecting the structure of manpower, such as the inadequency of the indigenous labor force in the various economic sectors, in comparison to the non-Kuwaiti labor force. The non-Kuwaiti labor force had high activity rates in a range of economic sectors, especially in construction, production, trading, and manufacturing. The

state of Kuwait needs non-Kuwaiti manpower to complete

development plans within these sectors. Therefore,

considerable numbers of migrant workers were required in

the state of Kuwait.

7.7 THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE KUWAITI WOMEN LABOUR

FORCE

The education level of the Kuwaiti women workers as

illustrates in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9
The development of the Kuwaiti force work (15 years and over) according to sex and education level.

Educational level	F N.	%	M N.	%	T N.	%
Illiteracy, 1965	534	49.0	21655	51.7	22189	51.9
1970	493	24.0	28745	45.4	29238	44.8
1975	737	10.1	30444	38.2	31181	35.9
1980	753	5.5	25469	28.4	26222	25.3
1985	604	2.4	17297	17.0	17901	14.2
Read and write (informal education)						
1965	182	16.7	16585	39.6	16767	39.2
1970	139	6.8	30269	32.0	20408	31.2
1975	237	3.2	20161	35.3	20389	23.4
1980	398	2.9	17442	19.4	18740	17.2
1985	477	1.9	12775	12.6	13252	10.5
Primary, 1965	48	7.7	1460	3.5	1544	3.1
1970	188	9.2	6552	10.4	6740	10.3
1975	568	7.8	11794	14.8	12362	14.2
1980	718	5.2	12702	14.2	13420	13.0
1985	1097	4.4	15571	15.3	16668	13.2
Intermediate, 1965	109	10.0	1255	3.5	1364	3.2
1970	290	14.1	3985	6.3	4275	6.5
1975	1473	20.1	8867	11.1	10340	11.9
1980	2946	21.3	17304	19.3	30250	19.6
1985	5241	21.1	26217	25.8	31458	24.9
Secondary & less						
1965	127	11.6	489	1.2	616	1.4
1970	695	33.8	2572	4.1	3267	5.0

continue table 7.9.

1975	3275	44.8	5924	7.5	9199	10.6
1980	6246	45.1	11642	13.0	17888	17.3
1985	11106	44.8	19782	19.5	30888	24.4
Graduates & postgraduates						
1965	55	5.0	452	1.0	507	1.2
1970	146	12.1	1152	1.8	1408	2.2
1975	1015	14.0	2473	3.1	3488	4.0
1980	2768	20.0	5086	5.7	7854	7.6
1985	6278	25.3	9965	9.8	16243	12.8
Not stated, 1965	1	-	30	-	31	-
1970	31	-	39	-	40	-
1975	-	-	3	-	-	-
1980	-	-	-	-	-	-
1985	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total, 1965	1093	100.0	41926	100.0	43018	100.0
1970	2055	100.0	63314	100.0	65369	100.0
1975	7305	100.0	79666	100.0	86971	100.0
1980	13829	100.0	89645	100.0	103474	100.0
1985	24803	100.0	101607	100.0	126410	100.0

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p. 49).

It is clear from Table 7.9 that there has been a decline in the illiteracy rate of Kuwaiti women workers from 1965 to 1985. It is clear that the drop in the illiteracy rate among Kuwaiti women workers between 1965 and 1985 at decreasing rate of 46.6% (49.0 - 2.4 = 46.6) in 1985. This mean that the education level of Kuwaiti women workers has proved greatly during this period of time. In comparison the illiteracy rate among Kuwaiti males workers was 51.7% in 1965 and dropped to 17.0% by 1985. Namely a reduction of 34.7% over the same period. However, the decline in the illiteracy rate among Kuwaiti women workers was slower than the decline in the rate

among Kuwaiti male workers.

The previous percentages indicate that the decline among Kuwaiti women workers between 1965 and 1985 was 14.8%. While the decline among Kuwaiti male workers was 27.0% over the same period, from 39.6% in 1965 to 12.6% in 1985.

It is quite clear from above review that the levels of illiteracy and informal education (read and write) among Kuwaiti women workers are low in comparison with that of the Kuwaiti male workers.

However, in the case of Kuwaiti women workers who have primary qualifications, the work participation rate among this group had declined to 3.3% in 1985 in relation to all the women employed in the country. It is worth to mention, that the decrease in the Kuwaiti women workers who have primary education level could be due to the improvement in their education level to their optimal position, during the previous period of time. Whereas, the percentage of the Kuwaiti male workers who have the primary education level in 1965 was 3.5% and the above percentage has been increasing up to 15.3% in 1985, showing an average increase of 11.8% during the 20 years period time (1965-1985). This means that the percentage of Kuwaiti male workers with primary education level is higher than the percentage of the females workers with primary education level over the same period of time.

However, there has been a notable increase in the proportion of Kuwaiti women workers with intermediate education during the 20 years period time, showing addition increasing rate of 11.1% in 1985 in relation to all the Kuwaiti women employment in the above five censuses. While the percentage of intermediate education level among Kuwaiti male workers have traditionally been lower than their female counterparts, over the same period time.

In the case of Kuwaiti women workers who have secondary education level, the substantial increase of 33.2% in 1985 among secondary education level group had achieved, which are much higher than the above two education level over the same period of time. Over two-fifth of all the Kuwaiti women employed in the country possessed secondary education level qualification (Al-Sabah, 1989). The position of the Kuwaiti male workers is very low in comparison with the rate for women. The range of the percentage of the Kuwaiti male workers among this group in 1965 was 1.3% in relation of all the Kuwaiti male employment in the state, and had gone up to 19.5% in 1985. Consequently, the range of the percentage of Kuwaiti women among this group is much higher than their male counterparts in the same period of time.

It is clear that there has been a considerable increase in university education for Kuwaiti women workers during the 20 years period, showing an increasing rate of 20.3%. It is worth noting that the percentage increase which has been achieved among this group is relatively low in comparison with the percentage increase in the secondary education level among Kuwaiti women workers over the same period of time. While the percentage of Kuwaiti male workers among this group in 1965 was 1.0% and jumped to 9.8% in 1985. It is interesting to mention, that the Kuwaiti women workers who have university education level is much higher than Kuwaiti male workers who have the same education level. This may be due to the fact that more Kuwaiti women are attending the university and achieving a higher educational level than Kuwaiti men because the men had better opportunities of attending to the applied education and training (Parallel education) than the women given their position in society. For example, the Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Defence, and National Guard (Al-Sabah, 1989).

As a general conclusion to this section, from previous review of Kuwaiti women workers, the percentage of illiteracy and the informal education is very low, at sum of 4.3% in 1985. Among Kuwaiti male workers the illiteracy rate and the informal education is at 29.6%.

Moreover, over 70.0% of Kuwaiti women workers have secondary and university and other level of education whereas only 29.3% of Kuwaiti men have secondary, university and other levels of education.

7.8 THE DISTRIBUTION OF KUWAITI WOMEN WORKERS BY MARITAL STATUS

The probability of the participation of Kuwaiti women in economic activity is closely associated with her marital status.

Kuwaiti women's activity rates by marital status in 1985 was as follows:

Single or unmarried	Married	Divorced	Widowed
13.8	15.0	25.0	2.4

(Annual Statistical Abstract, 1987, p.84).

It is clear from above that the divorced women group is revealed to have the highest rate of participation in the labour force. While the lowest rate is among widowed group, the rates for married and single groups fall in between.

It is worth mentioning that the activity rate of the widowed group is relatively low in comparison to the other groups. This fact is highly significant, and may be due to

the fact that according to social expectations these groups should not participate in economic activity alongside men in the various economic sectors (Ministry of Planning, 1985) (this section will be discussed widely later).

As stated in the beginning of this chapter that we will review in briefly the Kuwaiti women's role in the Kuwait banking sector, as well as the vocational and economical features, of the Kuwaiti women's role in the Kuwaiti society from aforementioned.

Since the highest proportion of the work participation of Kuwaiti women in the economic activity in the state is concentrated in community services which include government as well as personal services and banking sector from aforementioned. And since the banking and financial services sector occupies a prominent role in the Kuwaiti economy, ranking second after the oil sector in relation to its contribution to the total domestic product (The Kuwaiti Banks Committee Union of Bank's Employees, 1986, Kuwait).

Two main points are worthy to focus:
First: The contribution of Kuwaiti women in the Kuwaiti local banking sector and the extent of their contribution.
Second: To identify the attitudes and some view points toward employment of Kuwaiti women in the banking sector

alongside men.

The work participation of Kuwaiti women within banking sector is high if compared to their contribution in other occupations in the country. According to the Kuwaiti Banks Committee Unions of Banks Employees that: the percentage of the Kuwaiti women working in the banking sector has been estimated at 25% of the total labor working in the above sector in 1985. The total number of the employees in the banking sector is estimated at 7,429 in 1985 and the number of Kuwaiti women who working in the banking sector was 1325 workers in 1982 jumped to 1,735 in 1985. This increase in in line with the increase in the total amount of manpower employed in this sector. However, some studies have indicated that 63% of the total number of women workers in this sector are holding positions in the head offices.

7.9 THE MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN in THE BANKING SECTOR

Despite the prevalent belief that the local banks prefer to hire unmarried women, the previous study indicated that 61.0% of women in the banking sector are married. The remain 39% is made up of single, divorced, and widowed.

The study has indicated that 516 or 30% of the women working in the banking sector hold university degrees or

postgraduate qualification, moreover about 12% are holding

degrees above high school (two years college), and 54% are

holding the high school degree, with only 4% holding

degrees below the high school. Moreover, more than 280

women hold the B.Com., 25 hold the Advanced Diploma in

Banking studies, 38 have the first Diploma banking studies

and 114 have the Diploma of the Commercial Institute. It

is interesting to mention that 65% of the Kuwaiti women

workers joined the banking sector after 1980. Whereas, 27%

have been working for period ranging between 5-10 years.

The percentage of those who have been employed for more

than 10 years were only 8%. It is clear that these

percentages may be attributed to the fact that a number of

local banks have only been founded within the last 15

years.

The age distribution among Kuwaiti women workers in

the banking sector is predominately young with about 60%

of the women worker in this sector below the age of 30,

and 83% below 35. This reflects the fact that the presence

of women in the banking sector is comparatively new. Also

the image that they represent 25% of the total manpower in

the banking industry in 1985 indicates that the number of

women joining this sector is increasing steadily.

The Institute of Banking Studies discovered, through

a study conducted in 1986, that there were no women

working as general managers. However, six women were
working as sub-managers. An analysis of the specialized
jobs in the banking sector revealed that 46 women (2.5%)
work either as section heads in the head offices or as
branch managers. A further 97 women (5.5%) work as
assistant branch managers, unit heads, supervisors,
attendants and 361 (21%) work as auditors, researchers,
accountants, translators, programmers, system analysists
or specialists. The remaining number work in various
positions including secretarial, administrative and
technical services.

7.10 THE ATTITUDES OF UPPER MANAGEMENT TOWARD THE REAL
ROLE OF WOMEN IN THE BANKING SECTOR

Despite the increasing number of women entering the
banking sector many senior managers, and middle managers
prefer men rather than women to work in this sector. A
study conducted in 1986 by the Kuwaiti Banks Committee
Union of Bank's Employees identified attitudes toward
women in the banking sector. The results indicated that
62.4% of senior managers prefer not to select women to
work with them, only 12.3% preferred to recruit women
while 19.3% indicated that the sex factor is not important
and about 6% did not reveal their points of view. Senior
management was asked to evaluate the performance of women

in comparison to that of men and 49% indicated that no differences exist. While 41% thought that the standard of performance of women is below that of men and only 7.4% indicated that the performance of women in this sector is better than that of men. Also, 38% indicated that the women are more precise and are better than men when dealing with customers. While only 23% were of the opinion that men are better at performing such skills, some 38% of the respondents argued that no significant differences between the men and women could be found. In addition, they added that the senior managers, however, thought that men could perform a number of other skills better than women. In general, women were given a lower rating if compared to men in performing certain skills and behaviors which relate to those working in the banking industry. On the other hand, men are perceived to be more able than women at coping with work pressure. It is worth noting however, that more than 40% of respondents were of the opinion that women do not differ much in their behavior and their accuracy in performing many of the skills of banking.

Despite the rise of women in the business and management sector many women in various countries believe that inequality of opportunity exists women working in the above sector (Adams, 1978). In the study conducted by them

to determine the extent to which there is equality in work

opportunities offered to both men and women in the banking

sector in Kuwait. The results revealed that the senior

managers indicated that women are given equal

opportunities to those granted to men.

From a previous explanation it appears quite clear

that the work participation rate of Kuwaiti women in the

banking sector is relatively high compared to their

participation in the other sectors of the economy, such

as, production, and manufacturing industries.

Early in 1970 Kamla Nath studied work participation
and related changes of Kuwaiti women. The study was
focused on 246 university graduates who have been leaders
and pacesetters of the change among women. She described
that changes among Kuwaiti women in that time as a

> "speed or patterns of changes witnessed
> among Kuwaiti women were neither automatic
> nor inevitable but were conscious choices
> by men and women, specially those whose
> decisions influenced the rest of the
> community".

In addition she added that the social scientist could

explain the reasons for such rapid changes in Kuwait

society, when other neighboring Arab countries held onto

traditional attitudes. However, some of the more obvious

influences for change in the case of Kuwaiti can be

mentioned here. First; before the oil era the customs duty

on imports was the main sources of income for the Kuwaiti

community. Consequently, the carrier traders had seen

cultural norms and patterns of social organization very different from their own in India and East Africa. So, Kuwaiti society was influenced by foreign cultural patterns, and accepted these changes more rapidly. Second factor; Kuwait was a British protectorate until it became independent in 1961. During the colonial era, and at independence time, the British pattern of living had been looked at with some admiration. Third factor; Kuwait is a city-state and social changes are generally more rapid in cities than in the rural areas because distance, which is a major inhibiting factor in the diffusion of new practices, is much less in the cities. Fourth factor; the adoption of the distribution of oil wealth among all Kuwaitis by a deliberate policy of the government has enabled all the Kuwaitis to adopt modern patterns of living and has been reinforced by investment in education, medical care and social welfare.

These four factors have had a substantial influence on the rapid social changes in Kuwait society.

CHAPTER EIGHT: PERSONALITY TRAITS AMONG

MALE AND FEMALE KUWAITI MANAGERS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we will further our investigation within the managers sample. An additional experiment has been conducted on the 300 Kuwaiti managers (150 male and 150 female managers), to identify their personality traits, and to see if there are any differences between Kuwaiti managers according to the sex variable regarding personality.

8.2 THE TRADITIONAL VIEW OF FEMALE MANAGERS

From chapter seven it was very clear that the participation rate of Kuwaiti women in the work force has increased over the last two decades. Despite the great changes of traditional attitudes there has been relatively little increase in the percentage of women holding middle and senior management positions. Most of the males questioned stated that the reasons for this were that women cannot direct others and possess few successful managerial traits. Also that women are moody and unstable (Al-Ziben, 1985, p. 648).

Males are generally thought to be independent, objective, assertive, unemotional, and active. Whereas, females are generally perceived as dependent, subjective, passive, and emotional (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman,

Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Mckee and Sherriffs, 1957).

It was reported that only 6 percent of all female workers are in management or administrative positions. It is clear that males more often hold positions of authority in western society and that they are ascribed a higher social status than are females (Johnson, 1978). In 1977 Kanter identified traditional attitudes and female stereotypes as two very important factors that prevent women from seeking and attaining senior management positions. Bernard in 1938 and Taylor in 1947 ascribed the low percentage of women in the top management position to managerial ideology which from its beginning has stressed the masculine traits of rationality, efficiency, and lack of emotionality. Furthermore, Schein (1975) reported that these masculine personality traits are also frequently perceived as elements of the masculine stereotype or management stereotype.

Most studies on sex differences deal with personality traits (characteristics). However, in the literature on sex differences, several researches focus on the relative differential between men and women within the managerial positions. These studies generally require subjects to indicate which of a list of attributes apply to women and men, and to identify their personality traits as well as to determinate the managerial style of men and women in the senior management positions.

The relative low percentage of Kuwaiti women in top level of management positions in comparison to the western

societies seems inconsistent with the large number of
Kuwait women holding high positions at the University of
Kuwait, e.g. deans, heads of department, and lecturing
staff, and recently, the head of the only university in
Kuwait. Moreover, a hundred of them occupy top positions in
the various ministries, as senior managers alongside men,
as well as a large number of Kuwaiti women in the education
sector as head teacher in the girl's schools.

Regarding the 1985 census data, the number of Kuwaiti
male who hold the above occupation were (3,700). While the
number of Kuwaiti female who holding the same position in
the same year were 223. However, as the number of women in
the labour force and managerial sector has increased, of
course, the percentage of women in the middle and senior
management in the managerial sector also increased.

8.3 THE METHOD OF THE SECOND STUDY

The designated sample size for the second study was
300 Kuwaiti managers (150 males and 150 females). These
number of managers determined by the investigator in
respect of the diversity of Kuwaiti managers. Therefore,
the initial sample of 160 men and women managers were
collected at the same time as the work environment sample,
(Similar procedures were used as illustrated in chapter 4).
Added to that, in an attempt to obtain the actual sample
size of the above sample, the further collection has been
carried out by researcher to collect the remaining numbers
of the actual sample of 140 managers (both sex). However,

the remaining group of the men and women managers has been collected from the same six main cities, as well as from the same organizations and companies as the first sample, but from different departments.

Therefore, the remaining numbers of the managers sample were collected as follows:

1. Ministry of Education 50 female managers. The percentage of Kuwaiti women workers in the education sector is very high in comparison to the other economic sectors. Also, 12 females managers from Ministry of Social Affairs, and 10 female managers from the Ministry of Commerce.

2. For male managers, 30 subjects from the Ministry of Communication, 20 from the Ministry of Education, and of the remaining 18 managers 6 from Social Affair and Labour Ministry, 6 from the public authority for applied education and training, and 6 from the Ministry of Public Health.

8.4 APPARATUS

The two questionnaires provided the following data:
The Biographical Questionnaire designed for 300 male and female managers contained 8 questions on personal and work related issues, for instance, sex, age, level of academic qualification, work experience, number of years in managerial position, marital status, years married and number of children.

The Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) was used to collect data on personality, because it is widely respected as a research instrument.

These sixteen personality factors have been coded and named as it applied and symboled by the original author (Cattell, 1973) in the following way:

Factor 1 = A   Factor 2 = B

Factor 3 = C   Factor 4 = E

Factor 5 = F   Factor 6 = G

Factor 7 = H   Factor 8 = I

Factor 9 = L   Factor 10 = M

Factor 11 = N   Factor 12 = O

Factor 13 = Q1   Factor 14 = Q2

Factor 15 = Q3   Factor 16 = Q4

Before the raw scores can be evaluated and interpreted, they must be converted into a system which places the examinees's score in relation to scores obtained by other people in some defined population (normal adults, college students, or special groups in current study for two different groups male and female managers). Therefore, each subject group has a special table representing norms of standard scores against raw scores.

8.5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

8.5.1 The difference between male and female managers on the sixteen personality factor questionnaire

In the light of differences in the personality traits of male and female managers. Table 8.1 shows the distribution of means and standard deviations of the standard scores of the sample of the two groups.

Table 8.1

Presents means (standard scores) and standard deviations of male and female managers on the 16PF.

Factors	Male managers = 150		Female managers = 150	
	S.S (M)	S.D	S.S (M)	S.D
A	16.89	3.56	16.59	3.08
B	9.60	3.33	9.87	2.17
C	15.24	4.08	15.95	3.69
E	13.15	4.15	13.63	5.11
F	17.38	3.05	16.67	3.45
G	15.61	3.69	16.08	4.28
H	15.97	4.52	15.65	4.42
I	13.81	4.52	14.30	4.57
L	16.25	4.34	16.68	3.98
M	14.66	4.44	13.32	4.79
N	15.55	4.44	15.92	4.65
O	13.11	4.01	16.02	4.34
Q1	14.65	4.11	15.38	4.27
Q2	15.52	3.48	15.63	4.03
Q3	15.52	3.85	17.50	3.74
Q4	13.39	4.96	12.37	4.61

Standard scores = S.S   Mean = M

Standard deviation = S.D
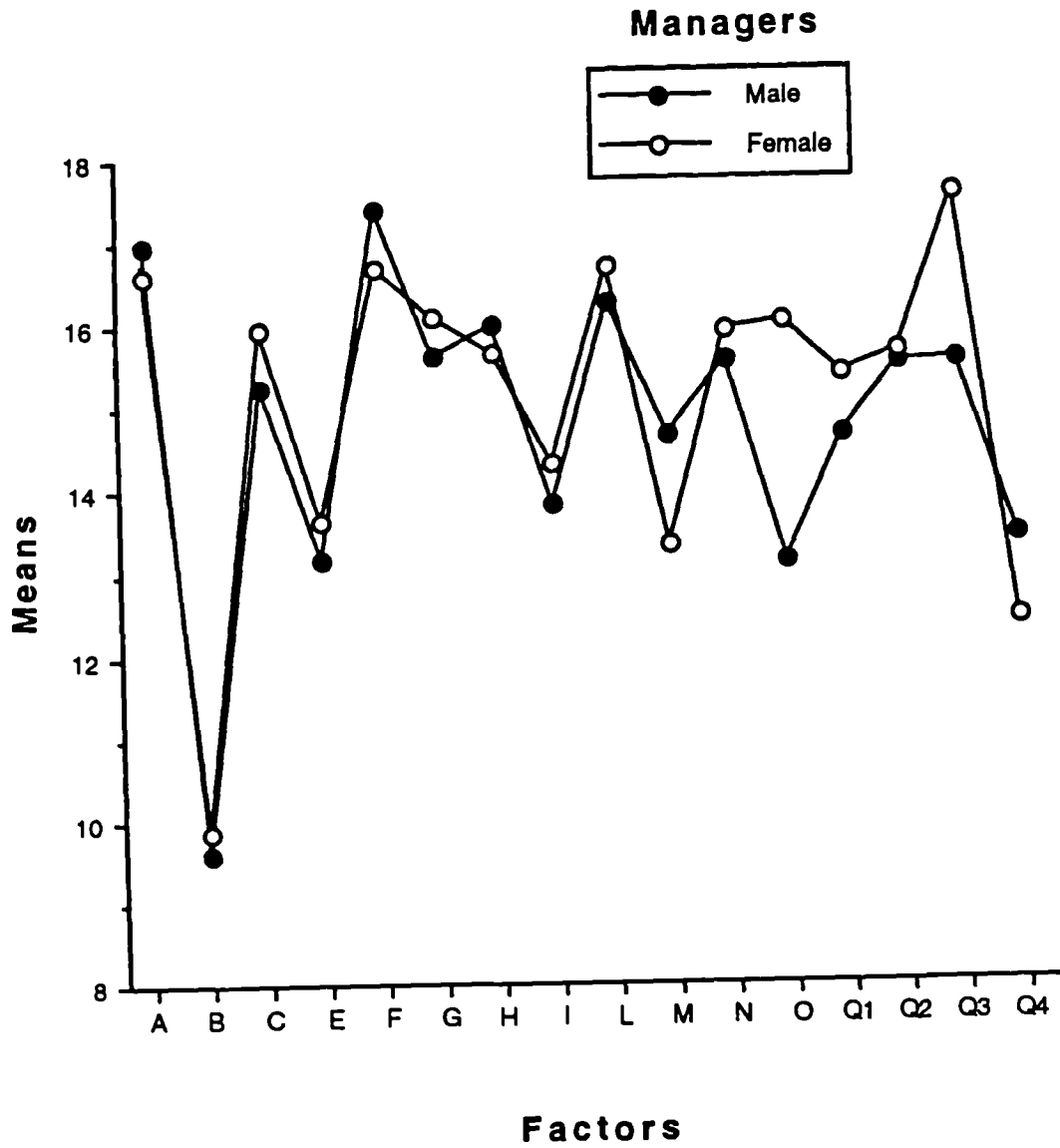
GRAPH 8.1

The means of the males and females managers on the 16PF.

Table 8.1 reveals that there are some similarities and differences between male and female managers regarding the mean standard scores for the sixteen personality factors:

<u>Firstly</u>: According to the extremely high scores (above 16 points) the table indicates that:

1. Male managers score extremely high within A, F, L and Q3 factors.

2. Women managers score extremely high within A, F, L and Q3.

It is quite clear from findings 1 and 2 that the two groups sample have scored (extremely high scores) in the same above mentioned factors.

<u>Secondly</u>: According to the moderately high scores (from 14 to 16 points) the table shows that:

1. Male managers score slightly high scores within; C, G, H, M, N, Q1, and Q2 factors, as well as this group, also have scored (almost) slightly high scores in the I factor.

2. Women managers score slightly high score within; C, G, H, I, N, O, Q1, and Q2. However, they scored slightly high for E factor.

Again the two group of managers have been scored in the same range points of the slightly high scoring within some of the 16PF factors like, C, G, H, N, Q1, and Q2, as it is

reveals from the above two points.

Thirdly: Regarding to the normal scores (through the range
of 7 to 13 points) Table 8.1 indicated that:

1. Male managers group have scored in the normal scores
points within B, E, O, and Q4 factors.

2. Women managers group have scored normal scores points
within B, M, and Q4 factors.

The two groups of managers have scored in the same
range of normal scores points to the same two factors which
are B, and Q4 factors.

It is necessary to note, that neither of these two
groups scored in the range of 7 and below.

Analysis of variance for male and female managers
sample, using sex as a dependent variables, within sixteen
personality factors, also has shown evidence that there
were very few significant differences in the personality
traits among the above two groups, are shown in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2

Presents the F values and the significant differences between male managers sample and female managers sample within sixteen personality factors questionnaire.

Factors	F value	P	
A	0.58	0.4455	
B	0.68	0.4118	
C	2.48	0.1165	
E	0.69	0.4055	
F	3.60	0.0587	*
G	1.02	0.3125	
H	0.44	0.5065	
I	0.86	0.3546	
L	0.79	0.3755	
M	6.31	0.0125	**
N	0.51	0.4776	
O	36.30	0.0000	****
Q1	2.30	0.1304	
Q2	0.06	0.8064	
Q3	1.04	0.3088	
Q4	3.40	0.0663	

$* \ p < 0.05$ $** \ p < 0.01$ $**** \ p < 0.0001$

From Table 8.2 there are only three significant differences between the male and female managers sample, regarding to the F values within the sixteen personality factors; which are; F, M, and O factors, as well as Q4 factor which showed an almost significant.

According to the Table 8.1 and 8.2 these above factor revealed as following:

1. M factor; male subjects scored higher (14.66) than female subjects (13.32), and (F = 6.31, d.f. 1, 298, p = 0.0125).

2. O factor; female subjects scored higher (16.02) than male subjects (13.11), and (F = 36.30, d.f. 1, 298, p < 0.0000).

3. F factor; male managers scored higher (17.38) than female subjects (16.67), and the difference is almost significant (F = 3.60, d.f. 1, 298, p = 0.0587).

4. Q4 factor; this factor showed an almost significant, which male subjects scored higher (13.39) than female subjects (12.37), and (F = 3.40, d.f. 1, 298, p = 0.0663).

However, the remaining twelve factors of the sixteen personality factors did not reveal any significant differences between male and female managers regarding to the F values.

The results revealed in Table 8.2 support what has already been hypothesized, in particular, that, "there would be relatively few significant differences in personality traits, between male and female managers in managerial sector in Kuwait society".

Although, the means as standard scores for male and female managers groups as shown in Table 8.1 are different for each factor, the two group still in the same range of average scores which determined the subjects are respectively in a low, normal, high, and extreme high direction, regarding to the each factors of the 16PF questionnaire. Hence, these differences which have appeared within standard score mean values of each group reflect the differences in the attitudes of each group of managers towards to the statements within the Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire. Also, the twelve remaining factors of the sixteen personality factors scale did not show any significant differences between the two groups of manager except the above shows a loss (in which its showed significant differences between two groups of manager) as it appeared within Table 8.2.

The general aims of this study within our current research, is to identify the personality characteristics of male and female managers in Kuwait society, and to see if there are any differences in the personality traits among these two groups of managers. A few significant differences between above two groups, presented in the analysis of variance (see Table 8.2) within 4 factors of the sixteen personality factors measurement, have been found.

To investigate the extent of differences or congruency between men and women in personality characteristics, it is better to focus more deeply within each factor of the 16PF.

8.5.2 Comparison of the personality traits for the two groups of sample by sex variable within each factor of the sixteen personality factor scale

1. Factor A:

This factor represents the two bipolar of personality traits which are reserved and the outgoing.

However, from Table 8.1, it appears quite clear that the two groups of the managers have scored through the extremely high scores range within standard score on this factor. On the other hand, no significant differences have been found between male managers group and female managers group within F values in the above factor (see Table 8.2).

Consequently, the above results clearly indicate that the two groups of the managers are more likely to have extremely high outgoing and warm hearted personality traits.

Although the two groups of manager have points in the same score range within standard scores, the males manager group revealed higher scores than their females counterparts by 0.30 points of standard score.

2. Factor B

This factor completes the supply of data on the range of source traits important in most predictions for general ability and is obviously an important dimension of individual differences. This factor represent intelligent or abstract thinking. In the study sample of the two groups of the managers, Table 8.1 shows that they have scored

within a range of 7 to 13 points (standard scores) which is considered as normal score range in the present study. Also, the two groups scored slightly below average (which are male group scored 9.60 and female group scored 9.87). Added to that the two groups of the managers did not show any significant differences within F values regarding to the factor B (see table 8.2). Hence, the results indicated that the two groups of manager are located in the same range points of the standard score (normal scores range). Therefore, the two groups clearly tend to approach the average points range (10). Consequently, the two groups of managers more likely to have normal (intelligent, or abstract-thinking) personality trait.

Although, the two groups of manager have scored though the same scores range, as we illustrated from above results. But, it appears quite clear from Table 8.1 that the female group have scored higher than their male counterparts within the standard score by 0.27 points.

3. Factor C

This factor measures two different bipolar dimension of personality traits; emotional instability (C-) and emotional stability (C+).

From table 8.1 it appears quite clear that the sample of the two group of managers showed that they scored through a range of 14 to 16 points of standard scores, whereas, male group scored 15.24, and female group scored 15.95 (see Table 8.1) within factor C. The above range (14

to 16) is considered to be a slightly high score range within 16PF measurement (as it illustrated in N.B. no. 3, p. 11). Also the two group of managers did not show any significant differences regarding to the F values within factor C (see Table 8.2). Hence, the two group of managers seem to take all the characteristics of the C+ from aforementioned. Consequently, the two groups of managers more likely to share some of the following traits; emotional stability, mature, faces reality, calm, unruffled, adjusts to facts, shows restraint in avoiding difficulties, and does not let emotional needs obscure realities of a situations.

Although, the two group of managers revealed located in the same range of the standard scores (slightly high scores) within factor C. And also the two sample of managers did not evoke significant differences regarding the above factor, the female managers group appeared have scored higher than their male counterparts within standard scores by 0.71 points.

4. Factor E

This factor measures two different bipolar of personality traits; submissiveness (E-) and dominance (E+) traits.

From Table 8.1, the two group of managers have scored within the middle range of points which are located on the normal range of points within the scale. The male manager group scored 13.15 standard scores and the female managers

group scored 13.63 standard scores for this factor. No significant differences have been found among the two groups on this factor.

Consequently, the two groups more likely to be in normal (middle range) on this factor. But, in comparison to the two group of managers in the standard scores, the female group have scored higher than their male counterparts by 0.48 points.

5. Factor F

According to Table 8.1, the result indicated that the two group of managers have scored within a range above 16 points (male group scored 17.38, and female group scored 16.67), on the F factor. This is an extremely high score within the 16PF scale. Added to that, an almost significant differences (F = 3.60, d.f. 1, 298, p = 0.0587) has been found between male managers and female managers within F values regarding to the above factor (see Table 8.2). Therefore, the two group of managers appear extremely high on the; enthusiastic, heedless, talkative, happy-go-lucky, and quick and alert traits. In contrast, although the two group of managers scored above 16 points the male group scored higher than their female counterparts by 0.71 points within standard scores on this factor. This finding indicates that male managers seem to have more extreme personality traits than their female counterparts.

6. Factor G

With respect to the study sample, from Table 8.1, it appears that the two group of managers have scored through 13 to 16 points (slightly high score range) within the G factor. Furthermore, no significant differences have been found between male and female managers within F value regarding the above factor, consequently, the two groups of managers seem to have conscientious and rule bound personality traits. But, the male group scored higher than their female counterparts by 0.47 points on this factor (see Table 8.1).

7. Factor H

Table 8.1 showed that the two groups of managers have scored through the 14 to 16 points range, which means, they considering scored quite highly on this factor. Added to that, no significant differences have been found between the F values regarding the above factor. Consequently, it appears quite clear that the two group of managers are more likely to have venturesome personality traits.

Although, the two groups of managers have been scored in the same range of points the male managers group were higher than their counterparts by 0.32 points.

8.Factor I

This factor, particularly, give a clear picture of the differences in culture pattern (environmental, cultural in origin and cultured homes).

According to Table 8.1, it appears quite clear that the two group of managers have scored on this factor. Moreover, no significant differences have been found between the two groups within F values for this factor. Consequently, the two group of managers are likely to have tender-minded, sensitive, dependent, and overprotected personality traits. However, female managers scored higher than their male counterparts by 0.49 points within standard scores.

9. Factor L

Table 8.1 showed that the two managers group revealed scores above the 16 point range on this factor. The male group have 16.25 standard scores, and the female group have 16.68 standard scores. This mean, that both groups of managers are located within an extremely high score range. Furthermore, no significant differences have been found among the two groups of managers within the F values. Therefore, the two group of managers are likely to have the same personality traits (suspicious and self-opinionated).

10. Factor M

In this dimension (factor) the two groups of managers did not obtain congruent standard scores. The male group have a 14.66 standard score whereas the female group have a 13.32 standard score. The differential between the two group within standard score is by 1.34 points.

This result indicates that the male group have a slightly high score range while the female group are located within the normal score range. A significant differences has been found between the male managers group and the female managers group, in the above named factor (F = 6.31, d.f. 1, 298, P = 0.0125). Therefore, the male manager group are more likely to have the high imaginative trait than their female counterparts.

11. Factor N

In this factor the two group of managers scored below 16 points of standard score (through the slightly high score range). Also, no significant differences have been found between the two groups within F values regarding the above factor. Consequently, the two group of managers are likely to have the shrewd and calculating personality trait.

However, Table 8.1 shows that the female group have scored higher than their male counterparts by 0.37 points of standard score within the above sector.

12.Factor O

According to Table 8.1, it appeared quite clear that the female managers group have scored higher than their male counterparts in this factor. As we observed from Table 8.1, that the female group have scored 16.02 standard score, while male group have scored 13.11 standard score. Moreover, a highly significant difference has been found

between the male and female managers groups within this
factor (F = 36.30, d.f. 1, 298, p < 0.0000). From above
results, it appears that the female group have obtained a
slightly high score range while the male group have
achieved a normal scores range. Hence, the two groups tend
to have apprehensive trait. However, the female group have
scored higher than their male counterparts by 2.91 points
within the standard score. Therefore, the female managers
group appears more likely to have the above personality
traits than their male counterparts.

13. Factor Q1

This factor has not clearly appeared in behaviour
ratings, and comes to be known mostly through the ways in
which the subject lays out their views in questionnaire
responses (Cattel, Eber, and Tatsuoka, 1970).

With respect to the study sample, it is clear from
Table 8.1 that the two groups of managers have scored
slightly high in this factor. No significant difference has
been found between the above two group within F value in
this factor (see Table 8.2).

Consequently, the two groups of managers seem to have
"experimenting or liberal" personality traits. However, the
female manager group scored higher than their male
counterparts by 0.73 points within the standard score in
this factor.

14. Factor Q2

Table 8.1 showed that the two groups of managers have scored very close standard score (male group have scored 15.52 and female group have scored 15.63). This means that the two groups are located through the slightly high score range. Moreover, no significant difference has been found between the two groups of managers within F values in this factor (see Table 8.2). Also the differences between the two groups of manager within standard score appeared relatively small. Consequently, the two groups of managers are likely to have similar self-sufficient personality traits.

15. Factor Q3

Table 8.1 showed that both groups of managers scored above 16 points. This indicates that the two groups have extremely high scores in this factor. Also, no significant difference has been found between the two groups of manager within F value in the above factor. Therefore, the two groups of managers appeared to have high "controlled" or (high self-concept control) personality trait. The female managers scored higher than their male counterparts by 0.45 points within standard score in this factor.

16. Factor Q4

According to the Table 8.1 the two groups of manager scored within normal range in this factor (where the males have scored 13.39 and females have scored 12.37). However,

This factor showed an almost significant difference between male and female managers (F = 3.40, d.f. 1, 289, p = 0.0663). Also, the male group scored higher than their female counterparts by 1.02 points within standard scores on this factor. Consequently, it appears, that the male manager group are more likely to have the "tense" or (high tension) personality trait than their female counterparts.

As a general conclusion of this section, it appears that the analysis of male and female managers on the sixteen personality factor questionnaire showed only two significant differences by sex, at the 0.05 level of significance or better, respectively which are of the factor, (M, and O). However, factors F and Q4 showed an almost significant differences.

Table 8.3 summarizes of the previous personality traits for the male and female Kuwaiti managers.

Table 8.3
The personality traits of each group of Kuwaiti manager.

Personality traits	Male manager	Female manager
Outgoing (warm hearted)	little extremely higher than their female colleagues.	they showed high scores.
Intelligent or abstract -thinking	normal intelligence.	they have slightly more intelligence than the males.
Emotional stability	they have emotional stability.	they have slightly more emotional stability than the male.
Dominance	they have normal dominance.	they are slightly more dominant than the males.
Lively or enthusiastic	they are extremely higher than the female.	have high scores on both traits.
Conscientious persevering stronger super ego strength.	They have quite high scores.	they are a little higher than the male.
Venture some uninhibited	these personality traits are slightly higher than the females.	they are quite high on these traits.
Tender-minded dependent	they are normal on these traits.	they are a little higher than the male.
Suspicious self-opinionated	they are high on these traits.	they are slightly higher than the male.

Continues Table 8.3

Personality Traits	Male managers	Female managers
Imaginative significant differences.	they are high on this trait.	they appeared normal on this trait,
Shrewd, calculating	they are slightly high on these traits.	they are partly higher than the males.
Apprehensive worrying depressive significant differences.	They appeared normal on these traits.	they scored higher than the males,
Experimenting free-thinking	they appeared slightly high on these traits.	they scored higher than their male colleagues.
Self-sufficient	they appeared slightly high on this trait.	they also slightly high on the trait.
Controlled high self-concept control	they scored extremely high on these traits.	they revealed more extremely higher than the male.
Tense high eric tension	They appeared slightly higher than the females (almost significant differences).	They revealed normal on these traits.

Table 8.3 showed that there were very few personality differences between the male and the female manager samples. Whereas, the male manager group appear higher than their female counterparts on lively (enthusiastic), and imaginative personality characteristics the females manager group were higher only on the apprehensive personality trait. However, male manager group had higher scores than female groups on the tension trait (in which the factor Q4 revealed almost significant differences between the two groups).

From the previous findings, Table 8.3 indicated three facts:

1. The hypothesis "that there would be relatively few significant differences in personality traits between the male and the female manager on managerial sector in Kuwait society was proven.

2. It is useful to point out that, identifying the personality traits for each group of managers is the first major target of this study.

Two points are worth emphasizing regarding the significant differences that have been found:

Firstly, are these differences in personality traits, consistent with their managerial characteristics i.e; managerial ability, dominance, responsibility, achievement, and self-assurance. Second point, are these differences, consistent with the stereotype roles in this situation. ie.; masculine and feminine.

Table 8.4

The means scores and F values for male and females manager by the four factors of the sixteen personality factor questionnaire.

Factors	M. (male)	M. (female)	F	p	
F	17.38	16.67	3.68	0.0587	*
M	14.66	13.32	6.31	0.0125	**
O	13.11	16.02	36.30	0.0000	****
Q4	13.39	12.37	3.40	0.0663	almost

The F factor:

The two groups of managers are situated in the range of F+. However, it has already been known that the F+ factor measures the happy-go-lucky, impulsively lively, and enthusiastic personality traits. The person who scores high on this trait tends to be cheerful, active, talkative, frank, expressive, effervescent, carefree. He is frequently chosen as an elected leader. He may be impulsive and mercurial.

Moreover, the person who obtained F+, always tends to work in sales and in group interactions these persons are widely accepted, and receive high ratings as effective speakers (Cattel, Eber, and Tatsuoka, 1970).

However, some of these personality traits have substantial influence on managerial characteristics (or situational traits). For instance, urgency, enthusiasm, active, expressive, frank, and lively impulse. The persons who holds executive positions, for example, "senior management" should have some of these personality traits, since these traits are important factors for the managerial production and creativity profile. As well as, encourage his/her subordinates to be more productive within their jobs. This is on one hand, on the other hand, it has already been known that the F factor is considered as one of the most important fundamental components to the exploration of the extraversion cases, and to distinguish between the depressive and outgoing person. However, both groups of managers appeared to possess these traits, but male group showed higher scores than their female counterparts (see Table 8.4). In accordance with the above evidence, it is useful to point out that the male managers have the lively trait more than their female counterparts. This can be ascribed to the social facts in Arab society and the male's traditional position in Kuwait society. Men usually have more opportunity to express their cheerfulness and extroversion in public places. Moreover, more opportunity to be in the leading positions. In constant, women usually cannot express their cheerfulness and extroversion in public. It is socially unacceptable, and her opportunity to express the cheerfulness and extroversion is limited to female society or her husband.

The M factor:

Essentially, this factor measures the imaginative, wrapped up in inner urgencies, careless of practical matters, and absent-minded personality traits (M+). These traits occur in artists, research persons, and the M+ has been found most significantly to distinguish the more creative researchers and artists from administrators and teachers of the same experience (Cattel, Eber, and Tatsuoka, 1970). In addition, the M- factor measures the, practical, careful, conventional, regulated by external realities, personality traits. Although, the two groups of managers are located in different score ranges it is apparent that both groups are still in the range of M+ (see N.B. no. 3 in this chapter). This means that the two groups of managers tend to have the imaginative and creative personality trait.

Despite the prevalent belief that the imaginative trait occurs in artists, researchers, some planning executives and many editors, there are also associations with situational traits or behavior as the variety of previous studies in managerial sector have indicated. Hence, it is useful to point out that the traits of the M factor which varied significantly between male and female could be considered as a managerial characteristic.

Since, the male manager group scored higher than their female colleagues in this factor the imaginative and

creative personality traits are more likely to be visible within male rather than female behavior. This may be due to the fact that men have more experience in the managerial sector, and also the traditional attitude toward the women as dependent, subjective, sociable, and emotional has discouraged women to reveal their imaginative and creative personality traits.

The O factor:

It has already been noted, that a high O score, indicates the depressive tendency, moodiness, emotional sensitivity, self-depreciation, and neuroticism. These personality traits seem more likely to fit the feminine stereotype, including such traits as moody, sensitive, cries easily, easily touched emotionally, and conservative in dealing with people. Considering the women's, traditional and customary position in Arab societies that the wide differential which has been found between male and female managers within the factor O tends to reinforce female stereotypes. Therefore, the females manager group appeared to have higher apprehensive personality trait than their male counterparts. This may be due to the two reasons:

Firstly:

As explained above, women always appear to possess more strongly the above named personality traits than men.

This, despite the fact that Kuwaiti women have relatively better opportunity to be in leading positions than their

female counterparts in the other Arab Gulf countries. However, social attitudes towards women in leadership positions are resistent to change. Hence, because of the strong socio-cultural and religious traditions women scored more strongly on the following: reserved, moody, and apprehensive personality traits than the men in the managerial section in Kuwait society.

The Q4 factor:

The Q4 factor measures neuroticism, and it is often associated with drive, push, and tension. Moreover, this factor is also considered to determine the relaxation (low Q4) and tension (high Q4) cases. Therefore, the persons who score high on this factor tend to be tense, excitable, restless, fretful, impatient, and easily stimulated. In groups this person takes a poor view of unity, orderlines, and leadership. On the other hand, the person who scores low on factor Q4, tends to be sedate, relaxed, composed and satisfied. In some situations over satisfaction can also lead to laziness and low performance. Conversely, high tension levels may disrupt work performance (Cattel, Eber and Tatsuoka, 1970).

The two groups in the manager sample showed almost significant differences at the $p < 0.0663$ level on the Q4 factor (see Table 8.4). Hence, the two groups of managers have a normal tension trait. But, the male group of managers appear to have a slightly higher score on this personality trait than their female counterparts. This may

be due to the fact that in Arab countries the man has full social responsibility of his family, and at the same time occupies a responsible position in the managerial sector. Hence, the man is influenced by these factors more than the women, and reveals more tension than the women.

From previous explanation, it is quite clear that the above mentioned personality trait are not related to situational traits or managerial characteristics. Hence, the differences between Kuwaiti male and female managers within the above trait do not affect their managerial behavior, since these traits do not have direct impact on the managerial style of the two group of managers.

A final comment on this brief discussion of the four personality characteristics in which the two group of managers differ:

1. Male and female managers both have the enthusiastic-lively personality trait, but the male managers are more exhibitive than the female managers.

2. Male managers have slightly higher score on the imaginative personality trait, while female managers have this personality trait on the normal setting.

3. Male managers appear to have the apprehensive personality trait at the normal setting, while the female managers appeared strong on this personality trait.

4. Finally both groups of manager possess the tension personality trait at the normal level but the male group score slightly more than the female on this trait.

CHAPTER 9 SUMMARIES AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, consideration is given to the research findings within two studies; Kuwaiti's work environment characteristics within public and private sectors, and sex differences in personality traits between male and female managers in Kuwait society. The contribution of the current study in the development of the managerial context in Kuwait, the limitation of the study, and proposal of future study will be indicated later on in this chapter.

9.1 SUMMARIES

The main objectives of this study were:

First, the work environment.

1. Identify the characteristics of two sectors public and private through work environment.

2. Focus on the relationship between employees and their administration (managers) in each sector.

3. Identify the personal relationship among employees themselves in each sector.

Second, the sex differences in personality traits of male and female Kuwaiti managers.

1. Identify the personality traits for male and female managers in managerial context in Kuwait society.

2. To focus on sex differences in personality traits, in order to see if these differences related to their managerial characteristics or to their stereotype.

The summary of the results regarding the private and public sectors' characteristics within Kuwaiti's work environment, are as follows:

Firstly:

According to the combined sample (employees and managers both sexes in each sector) the analysis of results showed that:

1. There were 8 significant differences between the two sectors in; involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort dimensions. These differences are in favour of the private sector group (managers and employees of both sex) or in other words the private sector exceeded the public sector regarding these dimensions.

2. In comparison between the two sectors for the combined sample of managers and employees (both sexes) regarding the three main dimension of Kuwait's work environment:

A. According to the relationship dimensions. There were two significant differences; involvement, and peer-cohesion. These differences are in favour of private-

sector's managers and employees group.

B. According to the <u>personal development dimensions</u>. There is one significant difference in the task-orientation dimension, and this difference is in favour of the private sectors group.

C. According to the <u>improvement and protection dimensions</u>. There were five significant differences in; work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort. These differences are in favour of the private sector group.

Secondly:

For comparison between employees group (both sexes) in the private and public sectors, regarding the personal relationship profile.

The analysis of results showed that the:

1. Personal relationship profile among employees themselves within two sectors was dissimilar, in favour of the private sectors' employees.

2. There were significant differences between the employees sample (both sexes) within two sectors regarding the three main dimensions (relationship, personal development, and improvement and protection), these differences are in favour of private group.

3. For comparison between private employees group (both sexes) and public employees group (both sexes) and males

employees group (in two sectors) and females group (in two

sectors), regarding the sex and sector variables.

The analysis of result showed that:

A. Regarding the sector variable; there were eight

significant differences between the private and public

employees groups (both sexes) within work environment

dimensions (involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation,

work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, physical-

comfort). This difference is in favour of private sector

employees group (both sexes).

B. Regarding the sex variable, there were five significant

differences between male employees group and female

employees group in both sectors, within work environment

dimensions (involvement, task-orientation, work pressure,

clarity, and control). These differences are in favour of

males group in both sectors.

Thirdly

For comparison between managers sample (both sexes)

in private and public sectors within Kuwait's work

environment.

1. The analysis of results showed that there were 8

significant differences between the public and private

sectors managers groups within Kuwait's work environment

dimensions (involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation,

work pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical comfort). These differences are in favour of the private sector's managers group (both sexes).

2. Also, for comparison between managers sample (both sexes) in the two sectors, regarding the three main dimensions of Kuwaiti's work environment. The analysis of results showed:

A. In term of relationship dimensions; there were two significant differences between private and public sectors managers, which are involvement and peer-cohesion, and these differences are in favour of the private sector group (both sexes).

B. In term of personal development dimensions, there was one significant difference in task orientation, this difference is in favour of the private group.

C. In term of the improvement and protection dimensions; there were five significant differences which are work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation and phyiscal-comfort. These differences are in favour of private sector manager group (both sexes).

3. For comparison between managers sample regarding the sex variable.

A. Regarding the sex variable, there were six significant differences between private and public sectors managers groups within Kuwait's work environment dimensions as

following:

1. In term of <u>involvement</u>, the difference favours the male managers group in both sectors.

2. In term of <u>staff-support</u>, the difference favours the male managers groups in both sectors.

3. In term of <u>clarity</u>, the difference favours the male managers group in both sectors.

4. In term of <u>control</u>, the difference is in favour of the male managers group in both sectors.

5. In term of <u>innovation</u>, the difference is in favour of the male managers group in both sectors.

6. In term of <u>physical-comfort</u>, the difference is in favour of the male managers group in the both sectors.

9.2 DISCUSSION OF FIRST STUDY

To make this section clear the research questions outlined in the introductory chapter, will be individually stated, followed by the answer to these questions derived from analysis of results.

Research question 1

The first research question was concerned with the difference and similarities between private and public sectors according to the particular dimensions; involvement, innovation, physical-comfort, and control

within Kuwait's work environment.

From the above summaries of the research findings (previous section) the analysis of the results of the study indicated that the involvement, innovation, physical-comfort, and control dimensions are more prevalent in the private than the public sector. This means that the whole staff (managers and employees both sexes) of the private sector were more likely to be seen as high in the involvement factor, more concerned with the work's regulations, conscientious, and more likely to remain and conform to the organization's disciplinary systems (control factor), more committed to new styles and modern systems in their jobs to achieve their targets (adopt new strategies that make substantial change in production, marketing, finance) and they are seen to be more satisfied and interested with their work place, than their public staff counterparts. However, this disparity between private and public sectors within these four dimensions can be ascribed to the fact that:

1. In term of the involvement dimension, since most of the work force in private sector are not part of the native labor force (non-Kuwaiti 82.2%, only 17.8% are Kuwaiti work force, Annual Statistical Abstract Table no. 131 p. 142, 1989), particularly within employees group (both sexes). Actually these migrant workers are always to look

for their benefits and profit, regardless of their participation and their experience in this sector. Since, the private organizations always seek to improve productivity and the quality of their work the promotion opportunities of any employees in this sector will be linked to those who are more productive and high-performing within their job. In contrast, in the public sector the promotions system is not dependent on the person's productivity in his work context. Hence, the private sector work teams were more concerned and more involved with their work than the public sector work teams.

Another reason that the private sector have more involvement than public sector may be due to the fact that; the hire and fire in the private sector are taken individually by the organization's authority (owner or Administration Department). These decisions are substantialy affected by personal considerations. Therefore, to make hire or fire decisions' for employees in this sector is less bureaucratic. Consequently, it is not surprising, that senior people in the private sector are in the best position to make hire or fire decision for any deserving or undeserving employee. In contrast, the process of employment in the public sector is more bureaucratic and the decision to hire or fire in this

sector is not taken individually and it is not influenced by personal consideration. Hence, people in high positions in the public sector cannot use their power to make decision for employees who are not qualified. Consequently, the procedure of the employee's hire and fire in the private sector is easy in comparison with public sector. Therefore, the private sector revealed more involvement than public sector.

Thus, it could be concluded that:

A. The Kuwait's work environment system represents a different pattern of involvement.

1. High pattern of involvement, revealed within the private sector.

2. And low pattern of involvement, revealed within the public sector.

Whereas, this situation has been determined that the profit motive and production motive are more prevalent in the private sector. However, it is already known that the involvement dimension has been discussed as one of the basic enduring factor of the work environment characteristics in the current study. Also, we considered this dimension as a subscale within work environment instrument in order to determine to what extent the work team (managers and employees both sexes) in the two sectors are concerned and linked with their jobs context.

According to the current literature on this matter, although the involvement dimension has been investigated intensively, most of previous studies have looked at this dimension in a different way from the current study. For instance, Horn and Stinnett (1984) studied the involvement dimension as one of the linking structures in organization operating as a mechanism to solve problems and to resolve conflicts that arise between units in the organization. This investigation was conducted within the private sector (Honeywell; Rosen, 1985) and looked at the involvement dimension as one of the basic organizational factors to promote a healthy work environment. Kinlaw (1985) has studied the employee involvement dimension as an instrument of employee perception, and how involved employees see themselves as capable of exerting influence in such areas as planning and problem solving. Lawler and Mohrman (1987) reviewed employee involvement as a first step toward organizational effectiveness.

As final comment on this matter, although the previous studies have investigated the involvement dimension in a different way it is quite evident that the previous studies were consistent with current study with regard to two important points:

A. The power and effectiveness of employee involvement in organizations has a positive impact on the employees'

performance.

B. Most of the above investigations have been conducted in private sector companies, which indicate that the involvement trait is one of the basic characteristics of the private sector.

2. In term of the innovation dimension since the private sector is always seeking profit and revenue it has to produce in a way which is satisfactory with consumer's demand to get consumer's confidence. Hence, the private sector uses modern methods and more innovation.

It is worth of note that the analysis of result from previous chapters indicated that the female employees group in private sector have showed higher in the innovation dimension than all the employees sample both sexes in the two sectors. This can be ascribed to the fact that:

A. Despite the fact that a large number of Kuwiti women have reached a high position in Kuwait society a considerable number of males still believe that women are less qualified and less effective in managerial functions. Therefore, females attempt to improve themselves as qualified and effective persons within their organization's.

B. Also the private sector group (both sexes) are more experienced and more professional within their jobs.

Therefore, they revealed more innovation.

The innovation dimension reflects two kinds of practices in Kuwait's work environment.

A. A high pattern of innovation represented by the private sector. Most of the organizations in this sector adopt a strategy that supports innovation as way of increasing productivity, by hiring innovative and professional people and providing their employees and managers with new technology and training programs.

B. A low pattern of innovation represented by the public sector. Here innovation is not as important and they do not hire innovative people or they discourage them.

Bearing in mind the nature of current study, innovation dimension has considered as one of the important characteristics of the work environment, which play an important role in determining, which of the two sectors (private or public) is seen as a best work place which provide good training programs; high productivity, and more using to the new and modern methods to offering better service for their consumers.

Up to this point, it is worth emphasizing that the innovation dimension is playing the important role, to provide incentives for work team to gain the necessary knowledge and skills, which would lead to the high-performance in organization.

According to the earlier literature on innovation dimension. Peters and Waterman (1982) in their study "In Search of Excellence", have suggested that innovation should be regarded as an asset. While Aaker (1984), has described innovation as an effective factor to help and encourage corporate wide in organization. However, Myerson and Hamilton (1986) have indicated that innovation is risky for organizations and work teams.

These conclusions by previous studies lead to the suggestion that these studies are consistent with the results of the current study in regard to the innovation dimension by two points:

A. These studies reinforce the view that innovation is playing an important role in determining the features of work environment in organization.

B. Since, most of the previous studies regarding the innovation dimension have been conducted within private sector companies. This mean that, most of the innovative people are concentrate in private sector organizations.

3. In term of physical-comfort dimension. The finding of current study has indicated a highly significant difference between private and public sectors in term of result of the above dimension and this difference has revealed in favour of private sector. This may be due to the fact that private organizations always prefer to

provide their work team with more pleasing and comfortable physical environments, in order to get high performance from them to improve production. The physical environment in these organizations include such factors as physical space, facades, buildings, the place of job, the level of noise, the air circulation, and flourescent lighting.

Bearing in mind the physical-comfort dimension within the current study has been considered as one of the basic characteristics of the work environment which contributes to encouraging job's performance in the organization. Most of the earlier literature has administrated the physical-comfort dimension as one of important factor within work environment, which affect the degree of performance, sense of job satisfaction from a discussion meeting, and perfections' decision-making in the organization.

Taking the above considerations into account, these studies suggesting that all the visible features of the organization which could be called "physical environment" have a substantial influence on the work-team, either positively or negatively depending upon the workteam's reaction to the stimuli of the physical environment which represents an overall impression good, bad, or neutral. The previous studies are consistent with our point of view regarding to physical-comfort dimension by two points:

1. The current study and that conducted by previous authors both agree, that the physical comfort dimension contributes in various ways to providing an encouraging, pleasing and comfortable environment in organization.

2. Since most of the above studies have been conducted in the private sector organizations for instance, IBM Corporation, Washington Business Group on Health, and International Metal Workers Federation, this means that the private sector organizations' give more consideration to the physical comfort dimension.

3. In term of the control dimension, this is more visible in the private sector than the public sector within the Kuwaiti work environment. This means that the private sector is relatively more concerned and used to the regulations and stressors in order to keep and remain their employees under a high level of control. This emphasis on control suggests that there is efficient administration and coordination of effort to obtain a high rank and file motivation, high performance, and increased satisfaction in these organizations. This high control in the private sector may be due to the facts that:

Each organizational unit and all the workteams, either individual or group, contribute to and are involved in the increased control, leading to more effective decisions and also to higher motivation, and performance. The private

sector, always tend to a more strict adherence to rules and regulations than the public sector.

It is worth mentioning here that this result is not supported by hypothesis number three (chapter 2).

From the above explanation, two points could be concluded:

First: The Kuwaiti's work environment system represents a specific pattern of the control dimension

1. Pattern of high control represented by private sector, this pattern leading to higher rank-and file motivation, which has created more effective decisions, and also highly skilled workers performing a variety of complex tasks.

2. Pattern of low control represented by public sector. This pattern leading to low rank-and file motivation, which has created less effective decisions, and lowly skilled workers performing.

Secondly: The present results have clarified the importance of the control dimension as a factor in organizational effectiveness;

1. The overall amount of influence in the organization correlates with higher performance and satisfaction.

2. The degree of control which is exercised by supervisors or managers over their subordinates is positively related to the high amounts of control which exercise over him by

a superior administration in organization.

Regarding this matter, the previous studies did validate the above conclusion. The studies of Bachman, Smith and Slesinger (1966), and Rosen (1985) suggested that a favourable and supportive control dimension, could influence the overall organizational life and effectiveness. Control is said to lead to higher performance and increased satisfaction, and also to more effective decisions and higher motivation.

Taking the above considerations into account, the concept of control dimension is defined by the previous studies as an enduring set of conditions and practices characterizing an organization which is distinguished by organizational behaviour throughout the occupational control of organizational life. The above definition of the control dimension is consistent with the current study. Moreover, the two previous studies have been conducted within private sector organizations which could be a support for the findings of current study according the control dimension.

Research Question 2:

The second research question was concerned with the degree of difference and similarity between private and public sectors profiles, according to three mean work environment dimensions, which include:

A. Relationship dimension.

B. Personal development dimensions

C. Improvement and protection dimensions.

The analysis of the results showed that the two sectors profiles were dissimilar in these above three dimensions. And high significance differences have been found between private and public sectors within these three mean dimensions in favour of the private sector.

The dissimilarity between the private and public sectors regarding these three dimensions, can be ascribed to the facts as follows:

1. Private organizations in the state of Kuwait, attempt to contribute to growth the domestic revenue, in the light of Kuwait's development policy which is aimed at diversifying sources of revenue, expanding the basis of the economy and reducing its dependence on oil exports. In this situation the private sector is facing continuing pressures to increase productivity and organizational effectiveness. Hence, the authorities in this sector have adopted several principles and practices to respond to these pressures and promote productivity and organizational effectiveness as follows:

A. Greater employee involvement in efforts to identify and improve productivity and understanding the work condition.

B. Restructuring of work through job enhancement, job rotation and job enlargement; increased variety of tasks assigned to particular jobs; increased flexibility of job goals; cross-training and increase work diversity. However, despite the swift growth in this sector, it still plays only a modest role in the country's economy.

2. In order to get optimal results for the organization, they tend to adopt new plans, strategies, tactics, operation planning, developed or borrowed from other countries in order to achieve these productivity gains.

Taking the above two points into account, the private sector is often seen as an efficient and productive work sector in comparison with the public sector. Therefore, the present findings again illustrate the degree of these differences between the private and public sectors profiles regarding three main work environment dimensions.

Hence, the differences between private and public sector, are not only within above eight sub-dimensions, but also throughout the organizational condition, practices, and relationship among organizational teams. They are related to the behavioral system (the social/psychological environment, or the culture) which impacts on the overall amount of influence in the organization correlated substantially with work teams include motivation, satisfaction, job performance,

autonomy, control, decision-making, task-orientation, and other important aspects of job behaviour in the organizational settings.

The literature on this issue varies according to the level of subdimensions of organizational environment, as well as toward work accomplishment. The views of Newman (1975) and Cronan et al (1985), support the current study according to the common differences between typical and public organizational settings. Similarly, the two studies also validated to current study that the organizational environment considered as an important variable impacting on an organizational behavior. Newman's findings are consistent with the current study. Newman believed that the measures of the perceived work environment vary according to the level of subunit technology, as do attitudes toward organizational and subunit effectiveness. Similarly, organizational formalization and standardization have been shown to affect both attitudes about work accomplishment and organizational climate. While, Cronan's findings are inconsistent with the current study, Cronan believed that the difference between public and private sector with public sector settings usually being more labor-intensive, formalized, and standarized. Given common differences between private and public organizational settings Cronan indicated three important

results:

1. According to the city sample, the results suggest only five dimensions: co-work relation, employee competence, decision-making policy, work space, and pressure to produce.

2. According to the state sample the results suggests only four dimensions: employee work motivation, arrangement of people and equipment, employee competence, and decsion-making policy.

3. A strong congruence resulted between both samples for work motivation, in the public sector, yet both samples individually had weak level for the above dimension. Thus, it could be concluded that the differences between Newman's dimensions (which represents private organizational setting) and Cronan's dimensions (which represent public organizational setting) are in the following dimensions: co-worker relation, work motivation, arrangement of people and equipment, employee competence, decision-making policy, work space, and pressure to produce. In the Cronan's point of view, most of the above differences in favour of public sector except the work motivation in favour of private sector. Namely, the current investigation has occurred reverse results with Newman and Cronan findings. This may be due to the following facts:

1. The Newman and Cronan studies were conducted in public and private Western organizational environment. This mean that the behavioral system (the social/psychological environment or the culture) of the organizations, and organizational formalization and standardization are different from Kuwait's work environment. All of this impacts on: A. The attitude and behavior of both individuals and groups upon the work environment's concepts.

B. Modern societies (Western) are more concerned with work environment problems. This influences the employees to evaluate their work environment, and the employees' responses to their organizational change.

2. The two public and private employee samples used in the two previous studies are large (2,700 subjects for the public sector, and 1,200 subjects for the private sector).

3. The two previous studies were conducted at a different time, namely, Newman conducted his study in 1975, while Cronan conducted his study in 1985. As well as the current study is taken place in 1992. These above three periods of time may have affected on the results of the two previous studies.

It is important to clarify that the organizational culture is different from country to another. So, organizational culture may not apply equally all round the world.

Research Question 3:

The third research question was concerned with the Kuwaiti managerial style in the private and public sectors, and if it is different in term of:

A. Relationship between employees and their administration.

B. Relationship among the employees themselves.

C. Workers encouragement

The analysis of the results showed that the relationship dimensions are relatively stronger in the private sector than the public one. The analysis of the correlation among the three factors of the relationship dimension has showed a significant positive correlation between the above three dimensions.

Thus it could be concluded that the Kuwaiti managerial style represent two different patterns of relationship dimensions:

1. High level of the relationship pattern between the employees and their administrations, and among employees themselves, which are represented by private's sector managerial context:

A. Effective human relations between employees (both as individuals and as members of a work group) and managers depend upon trust and confidence, and sufficient

motivation and encouragement to work group.

B. Effective inter personal relationship among employees themselves who -cooperate more with each other and support each other to have better team spirit.

2. Lower degree of the relationship pattern between employees and their administration, and among employees themselves, which is represented by the public sector managerial context:

A. Less effective human relations between employees (individuals or group) and managers depend upon no real trust and confidence in the workers, less understanding, connection, and cooperation with work group, and insufficient motivational encouragement.

B. Less effective personal relationship among employees themselves who cooperate less with each other and support less for each other.

This difference between the relationship pattern of the two sectors (i.e. employees and their administration, employees themselves) may be due to the fact that: Since the private sector, represent the profit organizations they always try to offer the best service and the better production for their consumers. In order to reach this goal, management in these organizations adopt many ways that impact on the good relationship process at work as following:

A. Helping their employees to develop their self-confidence and self-esteem, in order to build a high level of motivation.

B. They encourage their employees to have as many opportunities as possible for self decision-making regarding their job goals.

C. They establish a climate of open communication with their employees, developing cooperation among employees themselves to be more cooperative with each other.

D. The employees themselves in the private sector organizations have more knowledge and understanding of what is expected from them regarding their job. The above relationship pattern (i.e. high level relationship in the private sector) indicated that:

1. There is an effective managerial style, as well as secure relationship between employees and their administrations, and among employees themselves in the private sector management context.

2. It is also evident that insecure human relationships among work teams in the public sector determine that the management context in the public sector is less effective to deal with this issue within work environment.

3. Also, this finding confirms the correlation between good human relations in the organizational environment and other types of work environment dimensions, such as job

involvement, peer-cohesion among work group, staff-support, job satisfaction, and occupational behavior.

These findings do support hypothesis No 4 that the relationship between the managers and employees in the private sector will be clearer and stronger than the public sector.

According to the earlier literature on this issue, the previous studies have demonstrated the importance of the human relationship dimension as a factor in organizational effectiveness, the studies of Rosen (1985), Mannheim and Dubin (1985), Kinlow (1988), Harris et al (1988), Johnson et al (989), who, as a whole, suggested that a favourable and supportive organizational environment are affected positively by the human relationship dimensions among workers. Also, the studies have reinforced that the relationship dimensions play an important role in determining the types of managerial styles which are exercised by management in the context of the organizational environment.

The earlier studies also validated to current study that the relationship dimensions as a distintive characteristic in organizational environment which distinguish different types of the work environment.

Research Question 4:

The fourth research question was concerned with classification of the Kuwaiti work environment within private and public sectors into different types of work environment, according to their work conditions, and managerial style.

The analysis of the results suggested that there were eight significant differences between private and public sectors. This means that eight factors of the Kuwaiti work environment dimensions are identified between private and public sectors: Job involvement, peer-cohesion, task-orientation, work-pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort. The findings also suggested that the above eight differences are in favour of private sector environment.

9.2.1 The work condition in the private and public sectors:

Eight of Kuwait's work environment dimensions have given significantly higher scores in the private sector than public ones. Hence, they indicate that the high level of the practices and performance regarding these eight dimensions have been achieved in the private sector, which means that:

- Greater employee involvement in the various kinds of problem solving and decision-making in order to improve work condition.

- Greater peer-cohesion among employees themselves and with their administrations.

Perhaps the most significant issue for improving work conditions in the private sector are task orientation, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort. However, the work pressure factor has shown higher scores in the private sector than the public sector. This may be due to the fact that the private organizations are always seeking profit and trying to increase their revenue. Therefore, they attempt to respond to the consumer's demands. Consequently, the employees and their managers in the private sector face more work pressure than their public sector counterparts.

From the above explanation, there appears no doubt that work condition in the private sector high activity and action work patterns, with high level of performance and production. This pattern of high activity, action, performance and productivity is successful because it involves members at all levels of the organization, leading to a more effective work place. Furthermore, the private sector seems to be more adapted to the many factors that impact on the improvement and development of

the work environment such as:

1. <u>New systems and technology</u> to enhance productivity and improve organizational effectiveness (i.e. all the knowledge, information, material resources, techniques, new machinary and equipment, and new system of computer).

2. <u>Constant training programs</u> develop the knowledge, skills and abilities of the work group which are required by various positions within an organization, provides the information needed to accurately assess both employees training needs and an organization's human resources needs.

3. <u>Appreciation of the work team and take into consideration their demands</u> to help the work team feel that they are valued even though they may have little final control over formal rewards and promotions. However, responsiveness is also a measure of employee's perception of how much the organization takes their personal problems and needs into account.

4. <u>High level of control of interpersonal relationships and over work space</u> The private sector seems to adapted a wide range of control exercised by members at all organizational echelons is associated with higher performance and motivation, and increased satisfaction within work environment.

5. Better quality of life at work The private sector seems

to be more concerned with the quality of life at work for

their work group. They adapt a creative corporate

environment that is both challenging and stimulating. They

also expect improved promotion and punishment system

exercised equally over the work group, and improved

physical surroundings such as campus-type facilities at

the plant, and also improved health programs and increases

in the employees' benefits and pay. Also they seem more

concerned with treating their workers with respect,

listening to their ideas, and getting them involved in

solving problems, and concerned about corporate support

services that enable them to function efficiently, both at

and away from work.

Regarding the second part of question 4, which

concerned managerial style in the two sectors it is

important, of course, to return to the earlier point of

discussion in question 3 which has indicated that there is

effective managerial style within private sector

management context, since the conclusion of Kuwaiti

managerial style (in private and public sector in question

3) has reinforced this point, by showing positive and

secure relationship between employees and their

administration in this sector, as well as good personal

relationship among employees themselves. In addition, it

was also shown that a positive and supportive managerial style in the private sector accounted for their work teams. It is useful to point out that the difference between the Kuwaiti private and public sectors are only within the pattern of basic assumptions of the two sectors. The differences are in both their external tasks in business and services context and internal tasks of organizing themselves and also the difference between these two sectors in the way that they invented discovered or developed in learning to cope with the problems of external adaptation and internal integration and also the differences are with the organization sets strategy, developed goals, choosen the means for reaching those goals, and with the style of the two sectors include: the technology, the basic design of tasks, division of labour, reward and incentive system, control and information systems.

9.3 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS REGARDING THE SEX DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY TRAITS OF MALE AND FEMALE KUWAITI MANAGERS

The analysis of results showed that there were only two significant, and one almost significant difference by sex at the 0.05 level of significance or better between Kuwaiti male and female managers. These differences are as following:

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1. Factor (F), the two group of managers are almost significantly different at P = 0.0587 level, the male managers (17.38) are more lively or enthusiastic than female managers (16.67).

2. Factor (M), the two groups of managers are significantly different at p = 0.0125 level, the male managers (14.66) are more imaginative than the female managers (13.32).

3. Factor (O), the two groups of managers are significantly different at p < 0.0000 level, the female managers (16.02) are more depressive or apprehensive than the male managers (13.11).

9.4 DISCUSSION

The results suggest that:

A. The Kuwaiti male managers appear to be more enthusiastic and lively with strong and imaginative personality traits. The female group appeared to be less enthusiastic and have normal levels of imaginative personality traits.

B. The Kuawiti female managers appear to have strong apprehensive personality trait. While, the male managers group appear to have the apprehensive personality trait on the normal setting.

The difference between Kuwaiti male and female managers through the enthusiastic, imaginative, and apprehensive personality traits are, in the investigator due to the facts that:

1. "Enthusiastic or lively" is ascribed to the social traditional in Arab societies. Despite that the Kuwaiti society is considered a developed and modern society (in comparison with other countries of the Arabian peninsula), many individuals in Kuwait Society are still holding on traditional attitudes towards women. A large number believe that they do not have the right to express her cheerfulness and extroversion in public places. It is unacceptable socially and their opportunities to express the cheerfulness and extroversion are limited only to her family and her husband. In contrast, men usually have more opportunity to express their cheerfulness and extroversion in public places and there are no limitations for them in this respect. Therefore, Kuwaiti male managers appear to possess more strongly than their female counterparts the lively or enthusiastic personality trait.

However, as explained previously, the person who obtained a high score (F+) in this trait, often tends to be surgency, enthusiastic, active, expressive, frank, and lively impulses. Actually, most of these personality traits are strongly related to managerial characteristics.

This positive relationship between enthusiastic trait and managerial characteristics indicated that the person who is in executive positions (i.e. managers, senior management) should have some of these personality traits. As stated earlier, the person who scores highly in these personality traits (F+) is frequently chosen as leader within the group and in occupational terms is often to be found as a sales manager (Cattel, 1970). The findings of the current study indicate that both groups of managers appear to have the "enthusiastic-lively" trait. But, the female group was less extreme than male group. However, this finding suggest considerable convergence between Kuwaiti male and female managers particularly in this personality trait.

The conclusion suggest that female Kuwaiti managers with promotion aspirations score relatively high on some of the traits that are perceived as being necessary for management.

2. Regarding "imaginative-creative" trait;

This characteristic is more likely to be visible and associated with male rather than female behavior (Cattel, 1970).

The findings indicated that male and female managers are significantly different in this trait. This may be

ascribed to the facts that:

In accordance with the traditional male position in Kuwait society, men usually have more opportunity to be in leading positions, to be self-assertive, and to prove themselves. While, the women have less opportunity to be in leading positions and prove themselves. Furthermore, men have more experience because they are promoted much faster at work than women. In addition, despite the rise of Kuwaiti women in management, and the large number of women who enter in various government services alongside men (as civil servants, social welfare worker, and teachers) a considerable percentage of Kuwaiti society is still believe that the women are insufficient to be holding senior management positions, and less efficiency and rationality in comparison with men in the managerial context. They see the women as dependent, subjective, sociable, and emotional. These overall factors and the traditional attitude towards women, have contributed to discouraging Kuwaiti women to reveal their imaginative and creative personality traits and also prevent her from seeking and attaining executive positions in managerial context in Kuwait society. The results of this study indicated that another personality trait in which the two groups of manager are different which tends to confirm the managerial characteristic. As mentioned earlier high M+ is

one of the factor which distinguish the more creative researchers and artists form administrations and teachers of the same experience. However, the person who scores "high M+" factor, tends to be self-motivated, imaginative, creative, and concerned with essential matters (Cattel, Eber, and Tatsuoka, 1970). Although, the imaginative, creative, and self-motivated personality traits are more likely to be associated with artistic persons these traits still have impact on the occupational behavior. In addition, the creative and self-motivated, personality traits help and encourage managers to improve their interpersonal skills. So, these traits are the requirements of the effective manager.

The findings of the current study indicate that both groups of the managers are still located in the range of M+; nevertheless, the male manager has the "imaginative-creative" trait a little more strongly while the female group appears normal for the trait.

3. Regarding the "apprehensive" personality trait;

This characteristic is more likely to be associated with female rather than male behavior (Cattel et al, 1970). The present findings indicated that the Kuwaiti female manager appeared to have the "apprehensive" personality trait more strongly than the male manager group. This can be ascribed to two facts that:

A. Social factor; considering the women's position, there are strong socio-cultural and religious traditions in the Arab societies that women are usually led by men and their opportunity to be in charge is limited. As well as the traditional attitude toward Kuwaiti women from aforementioned. These above factor may have substantial impact on Kuwaiti women's behaviour to reveal high apprehensive personality trait.

B. Psychological factors; with respect to the factor "O", a high "O" is one of the factors measuring neuroticism in the person's behaviour. Hence, the "high O" factor is often associated with setting high goals and worrying over not obtaining or meeting these goals. Therefore, the person who scores high on this factor always tends to be depressive, moody, emotional, sensitive, self-depreciating, and neurotic. The traditional and customary attitudes toward women also have a psychological impact on Kuwaiti women's behavior. For instance, if the attitude toward women is positive, it will create a high level of motivation for women, but, if the attitude, is negative, it will create high levels of depression for women. Consequently, the Kuwaiti female managers seems to be driven by two factors both, interpersonal turn neurosis in on the self (high O), and the negative attitudes toward women from the some in Kuwait society. This reflects a

variety behavior like tense, hard-working, self-blaming person, and having high apprehensive personality traits, these neurotic or unstable personality traits (sometime) described here as signs of a self-productive against the social attitudes toward women or perceptions that female manager are less competent than male manager.

Obviously, this personality characteristic of Kuwaiti female manager in this case tends to confirm the feminine stereotype (moodiness, tendency, emotional, mindedness; Cattel et al, 1970).

From previous explanation, it is quite clear to conclude that, only three of the sixteen personality characteristic (in which two group of managers that have measured) exhibited significant and almost significant differences between male and female managers included enthusiastic-lively, imaginative-creative, and apprehensive. The first two personality characteristics in which the male managers have scored significantly higher than female managers reinforce the managerial characteristics. The third trait in which female managers have scored higher than male managers confirms the feminine stereotype. The positive relationship between the very few personality differences (in which the managers differed by sex) and possibility of these differences to ascription with the managerial characteristics are still

far from clear; nevertheless, this finding suggest two conclusions: First, that the two groups of Kuwaiti managers appear to have more similarities than differences in their personality traits. Second, although the findings indicated more positive differences for the male manager group than the female group particularly within lively and creative personality traits, but both groups of manager have showed relatively high scores within the above mentioned traits, as well as the apprehensive personality traits. This finding suggests that Kuwaiti female managers seems to have adopted some masculine traits and behaviors typical of male managers, in order to succeed in the management context. These two expected conclusions may be ascribed to the fact that:

- Many of the women managers in this study are from those who went out of the country on government scholarships and got their degrees from Arab and Western universities (as stated earlier in chapter seven). Those educated women who are considered as leaders of change for the status of Kuwaiti women will enhance their opportunities to reach a high managerial level and give them more self-confidence. Also these groups have had more opportunity to see Western societies and have been influenced by the pattern characteristic of Western life styles. In addition, these women managers have a very high work participation in

management context which give them high level of managerial experience. Moreover, as stated earlier, these women managers are from the families of leading merchants, who are the most modern and educated group. Most of the older members (particularly fathers) of these families are civilized, some of them graduates and the families were generally favourable toward their kinswomen working. Thus, the Kuwaiti female managers have been greatly influenced by the above factors which impact on their managerial behavior and style which have reinforced their internal abilities, skills, self-confidence, and managerial experience. These variables guided those female managers to adopt some kind of similar personality traits or similar power strategies which lead them to fit into the masculine image inherent in managerial ideology. Hence, the Kuwaiti male and female managers revealed more similarities than differences within their personality traits. These findings are consistent with Hypothesis 1 (chapter 3), that there would be relatively few significant differences in the personality traits between the male and female managers group in Kuwait society.

Some of the previous studies have agreed with the results of the present study, that the men and women are relatively more similar than different within their personality characteristics. Studies conducted by Adams

and Hicks (1978); Steinberg and Shapiro (1982); Instone, Major, and Bunker (1983); Adams, Rice, and Instone (1984); Dobbins and Platz (1986); Anderson (1987); and Rosenberg (1987), suggest that it is more productive to talk about sex similarities than assume sex differences between male and female personality traits, and the gap between the pattern of two personalities have narrowed to a point where there are no more significant differences between the two sexes.

In accordance with the above suggestion, the study conducted by Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) which is similar to the present study, and uses the same instrument, found similar results as the present study. The findings indicate that there are more similarities than differences between male and female personality characteristics.

However, the present study disagrees with Steinberg and Shapiro in that male subjects scored significantly higher on the femininity trait, while, in the present study female subjects scored significantly higher than men on this trait. This may ascribed to the cultural factor, since, the previous study was conducted in a Western society, while the present study has been conducted in an Arab culture. Steinberg and Shapiro (1982), indicated that female subjects scored higher on tough-mindedness, and suspiciousness, while, male subjects scored on humbleness,

tender-mindedness, trust, and imaginativeness. In the present study the findings indicated that the females manager scored higher only on the apprehensive personality trait. Male managers scored higher on the enthusiastic-lively, and imaginative-creative personality traits. Given these two sets of results, there are three significant points of congruency:

1. There were very few personality differences between the male and female subjects.

2. The findings of both studies indicated that both women and men with managerial aspirations score very high on many of the traits that are perceived as being necessary for management - dominance, responsibility, and control (chapter 8).

3. The finding of the two studies indicated also that the female subjects scored higher on some of the traits that fit into the masculine stereotype.

However, the differences between the previous research and the present study are:

1. The previous study confirm that the male subjects scored higher on some of the traits that fit into a feminine stereotype. While, the present study does not reinforce this point.

2. The subjects of the present study are relatively more experienced in the managerial context and are employed in

various public and private sector organizations as a
senior and middle managers. In contrast, the two subjects
of the previous study are relatively less experience in
the managerial environment, since, the sample of the
subjects were in their first and second year of the MBA
program in the university.

3. The actual size of the present study are 300 subjects
(150 male and 150 female managers) from Kuwait society,
while the actual size of the previous study were 71
subjects (42 male and 29 female master of business
administration students) from Western society.

However, a considerable number of the earlier studies
are inconsistent with the general results of the present
study. The studies conducted by Harrell and Harrell
(1973); Steers (1977); Forisha (1978); Brown (1979);
Rigard and Galligan (1980); Brenner (1982); Pillai (1983);
Liden (1985); Anderson and Mclenigan (1987); Ottaway and
Bhatnagar (1988); and Cohen (1989), indicated that there
are wide range of disparities between men and women
regarding their personality traits, particularly on the
pattern of managerial characteristics. A considerable
number of the previous researches have suggested that
males are more favourable and supportive than females in
managerial performance. They ascribed their suggestion to
the masculine terms typical of male managers which

dominated and succeeded in the management ranks, as well
as the traditional attitudes and the female stereotype in
this respect. While, a very few of the previous studies
have suggested that women are effective in management
context, these groups ascribe their suggestion to the
changes in the attitudes toward employment of women
particularly in the management context in favour of women
in this respect, as well as some female managers tends to
adopt masculine traits and behavior typical of male
managers in managerial environment.

Bearing this in mind, the study conducted by Ottaway
and Bhatangar (1988), used the same instrument to test the
differences in characteristics between men and women in
managerial and leadership positions. They conducted the
study on a sample of male and female managers studying at
the Indian Institute of Management and a sample of male
and female managers studying at an American business
school. They found that in both countries there were
significant differences between male and female managers.
However, the differences which have been found between the
two subjects in their study were much more than the
differences between the subjects in the present study. For
example, they found ten personality characteristics in
which the managers differed by sex indicated that female
are more hard working, more driven, achiever, little

patience, more conflicted, more suffering from the experience, more tender-minded, more rule breaking, and more naive. It is clear that the direction of this finding is to reinforce the point that it is more productive to assume sex differences than similarities between men and women managers personality in both countries.

Taking the above consideration into account, the findings of the previous study are incongruous with the present study within four significant points:

1. Ten of the sixteen personality traits have exhibited significant differences. While, in the present study only three of the sixteen personality characteristics have exhibited significant differences between the two groups of managers.

2. The previous study showed that female subjects scored significantly higher on the tender-minded, suspicious, apprehensive, group oriented, and tense personality characteristics. While, the present study showed that female subjects scored significantly higher only on the apprehensive personality characteristic.

3. The present study showed that male subjects scored significantly higher on the enthusiastic and imaginative personality characteristics. While, previous study showed no significant differences between two sex subjects within the above two personality characteristics.

4. The previous study showed that male subjects scored higher on some of the traits that fit into feminine stereotype (emotionally, warmhearted), while, the present study showed that female subjects tend to adopt some of the traits that fit into masculine stereotype.

These significant points may be ascribed to the facts that, firstly it is possible that the subjects of the present study are relatively more professional and more experienced in the managerial context, since they occupy high position in management context as senior and middle managers. While, the subjects of the previous study, have limited experience in management context, since they are still students. Secondly, we stated earlier that traditional attitudes and female stereotypes work against women in managerial environment, particularly in Arab societies. In the present study female managers trying to prove their competetion in management context as an active and confidence manager in masculine working world. Thirdly, in our view point that the cultures also have very important role on the finding of study, that in present study the two subjects have the same cultural background, namely, male and female managers from one community (Kuwait society). While in the previous study the two groups of subject are from different cultures and societies (Indian and American). Whereas, the cultural

factors may also impact on research findings and cultures also differ in the extent to which each sex is permitted to adopt patterns of behavior associated with the other sex (Izraeli, 1987). Referring to Huang (1971), Izraeli (1987) mentions that they found significant differences between Chinese students from Taiwan and American college students in the traits identifies as typically male or typically female.

However, the previous study is consistent with the present study only in one point, that the female subjects in both studies scored higher on apprehensive personality trait than the male subjects. This phenomenon can possibly be ascribed to the feminine trait regardless of different cultures in both countries.

Other studies conducted by Chusmir and Koberg (1986), Forisha (1978), found that in overall levels of creative and imaginative personality trait significant differences have not been found between men and women. However, the finding of the present study is very incongruous with these two previous studies particularly within imaginative-creative personality characteristic, whereas the findings indicated that male managers scored significantly higher on this trait than female managers. This may be ascribed to the facts that, firstly, there is a consistent pattern of sex differences favouring males

over females in both verbal and figural in Arab society regarding the creative measure (Mar'i, and Karayanni, 1983), Much earlier research with the general population has indicated that high levels of creativity has historically been associated with males than females. This concept is common in Arab cultures, which has important impact on the women than men, despite modernization in some of the Arab countries. The creative women's status still seen as a less creative than men in this respect. Therefore, the findings of the present study have influenced by the cultural factors particularly in the imaginative-creative personality trait. Moreover, there are other independent variables for instance; age, level of education, socio-economic status, actual size of the sample, occupational role, and type of instrument which been employed in the study, those as a whole factors have also impact on research findings.

In the light of what has been presented so far in the discussion section, four research questions outlined in the introductory chapter are relevant to the status profile of Kuwaiti women, and the personality characteristics of Kuwaiti male and female managers.

Research Question 5 and 6

The fifth research question concerned with the status profile of Kuwaiti women during the oil era include her; social, educational, and vocational status. While, the sixth research question was concerned with the participation of Kuwaiti women in the economic activity, and to what extent contributed to accelerate the socio-economic development in the country? The answer of the above two questions have been stated earlier in chapter seven "Women's Career".

Research Question 7

The seventh research question was concerned with personality traits of the Kuwaiti male and female managers, are they similar or different?

From aforementioned discussion in this chapter, it was clear that the Kuwaiti male and female managers were relatively more similar than different within their personality characteristics.

Research Question 8

The eighth research question was concerned with differences between male and female Kuwaiti managers. Are these differences related to their managerial style, or to their role stereotyping?

The previous discussion (in this chapter) regard

differences between Kuawiti male and female managers has

indicated that only two personality traits in which the

male manager significantly scored higher than their female

counterparts (enthusiastic, and creative) have reinforced

the managerial characteristics, which may be have impact

on the managerial style of the Kuwaiti male and female

managers. The apprehensive personality trait in which the

female manager significantly scored higher than their male

counterparts has reinforced the feminine stereotype, which

impact on the female managers behavior.

9.5 SUMMARY OF CONCLUSION

The conclusion drawn from the previous discussion can

be summarized as follows:

1. The Kuwaiti private and public sector system represent

two different work environment patterns:

A. A high pattern of work environment where an emphasis on

work involvement, peer-cohesion, task orientation, work

pressure, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-

comfort dimensions, is seen to contribute to a high level

of performance and production, and is represented by

private sector organizations.

B. A lower pattern of work environment where there is less

emphasis on work involvement, peer-cohesion, task

orientation, work pressure, clarity, total control,

innovation, and physical-comfort dimensions, a lower level of performance and production, and is represented by public sector organizations.

C. A high level of relationship pattern between employees and their managers and employees themselves within private sector organizations.

D. A lower level of relationship pattern between employees and their managers and themselves with public sector organizations.

With this conclusion it is possible to identify the work environment characteristics of the two public and private sectors.

2. Hypothesis no 3 that public sector will achieve higher scores on control dimension than the private sector, but was not proven the reversal of this hypothesis was proven-namely that private sector scored significantly higher on control dimension.

3. Despite the fact that the private and public sectors have different patterns of work environment, they are nevertheless connected by similar staff-support and autonomy dimensions.

Regarding the sex differences in personality traits between Kuwaiti male and female managers;

1. The hypothesis that there would be relatively few significant differences in the personality traits between

the male managers group and female managers group in Kuwait society was proven.

2. The Kuwaiti male and female managers are relatively more similar than different within their personality characteristics.

3. Although, Kuwaiti male and female managers reveal more similarity within their personality traits they are different through three characteristics: male managers are more enthusiastic and imaginative than their female counterparts, while female managers are more apprehensive than their male counterparts.

4. The research identifies the personality characteristics of the Kuwaiti male and female managers.

9.6 THE CONTRIBUTION OF CURRENT STUDY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MANAGERIAL CONTEXT IN KUWAIT.

The importance of the current study lies in its contribution to our understanding of the managerial context and work environment conditions of Kuwait society. Some implications of the findings will be explained as follows:

regarding work environment,

1. Those responsible for work environment characteristics in each sector can focus on their positive and minimize the negative for the purpose of introducing better services to the society.

2. The decision makers must study the reasons why there are relatively few Kuwaiti employees in the private sector and try to focus on the issues of the salary, incentive, promotion, work pressure, and physical comfort.

3. The authorities could consider the reasons why the differences between male and female managers, in both sectors, favor the male in some of the work environment characteristics (involvement, staff-support, clarity, control, innovation, and physical-comfort), for the reason of equalizing both sexes in work situation to give better services for the society.

4.The relationship between the managers and employees is much stronger in the private sector more than the public sector. Authorities should find ways to enhance this relationship in the public sector, and that by strengthening the personal relationship between managers and employees managers could care more and better understand the employees situations and circumstances.

Regarding the personality traits,

1.The results suggested that male and female managers did not differ significantly regarding their personality traits except that males were more enthusiastic, imaginative and creative while females were more apprehensive and depressive. So, managerial positions must not be occupied only by males, and women must be given

more opportunities in managerial positions.

2. Training programs must be developed to improve managerial abilities specially for female managers.

9.7 THE LIMITATION OF THE STUDY.

1. Information about work force demography in Kuwait is some years out of date because, the experimental part of the research was conducted three months before Iraqi invasion (1990), and there have been no new Annual Statistical Abstracts released until now.

2. The research study consists of three main studies, and the organization of these three studies could be different: women career, personality traits and then work environment. The organization of work environment study and personality traits study is different than the study of women career, because the last is a historical study (contains different period of time) , while the other two are empirical studies.

3. There were some limitations regarding the procedure of the study, after displaying the test to the subjects the researcher collected the answer sheets the following day. It would have been better if the answer sheets were collected immediately. Also, the official permitting letters were distributed by mail, and it was better and saving time if the researcher distributed them by himself.

9.8 FUTURE STUDIES.

1. The Kuwaiti work environment had been affected by the Iraqi invasion, for instance: 1. The contribution by the private and public sectors within social-economic development. 2. The level of the services offered to the public. 3. Bureaucracy style predominated the managerial process, and so on. An empirical study will be carried out to measure the work environment dimensions for both sectors (private and public sectors) in order to see the extent of any changes within the above three points.

2. The personnel relationship among employees themselves and relationship between employees and their administration plays an important role in determining the work environment characteristics. So, it important to study the two formation dimensions within private and public sectors. Another study will be conducted upon Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti employees in the private and public sectors, to measure the personnel relationship dimension and relationship dimension between the two sectors.

3. The work involvement dimension could be related to vocational performance and work achievement. An empirical study will be carried out to examine the relationship between the work involvement and vocational performance and work achievement of the employees within the two

sectors of the Kuwaiti work environment.

4. A study will be conducted to indicate the personality traits of male and female Kuwaiti managers (same as current study), in order to see if there were any significant changes in personality exhibited after the invasion.

5. The disparity in the attitude of the Kuwaiti society toward the role of the Kuwaiti women in the economic activity and toward her capability in the management context, is an important topic to be tested. An empirical study will be conducted to measure the attitude of the Kuwaiti society toward the role of Kuwaiti women in the managerial context.

6. A comparative study between Kuwaiti male and female managers will be conducted regarding their mental and physical activities, and how these activities influence their performance and achievement in the managerial context.

7. A study will be carried out to indicate the differences in personality traits between female managers holding high positions who got their degrees from Western universities and female managers holding high positions who got their degrees from Kuwait University.

APPENDIX A

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THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

(16PF)

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Form C
1969 Edition
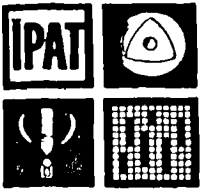
16 PF

WHAT TO DO: Inside this booklet are some questions to see what attitudes and interests you have. There are no "right" and "wrong" answers because everyone has the right to his own views. To be able to get the best advice from your results, you should want to answer them exactly and truly.

If a separate "Answer Sheet" has not been given to you, turn this booklet over and tear off the Answer Sheet on the back Page.

Write your name and all other information asked for on the top line of the Answer Sheet.

First you should answer the four sample questions below so that you can see whether you need to ask anything before starting. Although you are to read the questions in this booklet, you must record your answers on the answer sheet (next to the same number as in the booklet).

There are three possible answers to each question. Read the following examples and mark your answers at the top of your answer sheet where it says "Examples." Fill in the left-hand box if your answer choice is the "a" answer, in the middle box if your answer choice is the "b" answer, and in the right-hand box if you choose the "c" answer.

EXAMPLES:

1. I like to watch team games.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no

2. I prefer people who:

    a. are reserved,
    b. (are) in between,
    c. make friends quickly.

3. Money cannot bring happiness.

    a. yes (true)   b. in between.   c. no (false).

4. Woman is to child as cat is to:

    a. kitten,   b. dog,   c. boy.

In the last example there *is* a right answer--kitten. But there are very few such reasoning items.

Ask *now* if anything is not clear. The examiner will tell you in a moment to turn the page and start.

When you answer, keep these four points in mind:

1. You are asked not to spend time pondering. **Give the first, natural answer as it comes to you.** Of course, the questions are too short to give you all the particulars you would sometimes like to have. For instance, the above question asks you about "team games" and you might prefer football to cricket. But you are to reply "for the average game." or to strike an average in situations of the kind stated. Give the best answer you can at a rate not slower than five or six a minute. You should finish in a little more than half an hour.

2. Try not to fall back on the middle, "uncertain" answers except when the answer at either end is really impossible for you − perhaps once every four or five questions.

3. Be sure not to miss anything out but **answer every question, somehow.** Some may not apply to you very well, but give your best guess. Some may seem personal; but remember that the answer sheets are kept confidential and cannot be scored without a special stencil key. Answers to particular questions are not inspected.

4. Answer as honestly as possible what is true of you. Do not merely mark what seems "the right thing to say" to impress the examiner.

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO

1. I think my memory is better than it ever was.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

2. I could happily live alone, far from anyone, like a hermit.

   a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

3. If I say the sky is "down" and winter is "hot," I would call a criminal:

   a. a gangster,   b. a saint,   c. a cloud.

4. When going to bed, I:

   a. drop off to sleep quickly,
   b. in between,
   c. have difficulty falling asleep.

5. When driving a car in a line of traffic, I feel satisfied:

   a. to remain behind most of the other cars,
   b. in between,
   c. only after I've reached the front of the line.

6. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.

   a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

7. It's important to me not to live in messy surroundings.

   a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

8. Most people I meet at a party are undoubtedly glad to see me.

   a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

9. I would rather exercise by:

   a. fencing and dancing,
   b. in between,
   c. wrestling and cricket

10. I smile to myself at the big difference between what people do and what they say they do.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

11. In reading about an accident I like to find out exactly how it happened.

    a. always,   b. sometimes,   c. seldom.

12. When friends play a joke on me, I usually enjoy it as much as the others, without feeling at all upset.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

13. When someone speaks angrily to me, I can forget the matter quickly.

    a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

14. I like to "dream up" new ways of doing things rather than to be a practical follower of well-tried ways.

    a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

15. When I plan something, I like to do so quite alone without any outside help.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

16. I consider myself less "highly strung" than most people.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

17. I get impatient easily with people who don't decide quickly.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

    (End, column 1 on answer sheet.)

18. I have sometimes, even if briefly, had hateful feelings towards my parents.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

19. I would rather tell my innermost thoughts to:

    a. my good friends,
    b. uncertain,
    c. a diary.

20. I think the opposite of the opposite of "inexact" is:

    a. casual,   b. accurate,   c. rough.

21. I always have lots of energy at times when I need it.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

22. I am more annoyed by a person who:

    a. tells off-colour jokes and embarrasses people,
    b. uncertain,
    c. is late for an appointment and inconveniences me.

23. I greatly enjoy inviting guests and amusing them.

    a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

24. I feel that:

    a. some jobs just don't have to be done as carefully as others,
    b. in between,
    c. any job should be done thoroughly if you do it at all.

25. I have always had to fight against being too shy.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

26. It would be more interesting to be:

    a. a bishop,   b. uncertain,   c. a colonel.

27. If a neighbour cheats me in small things, I would rather humour him than show him up.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

28. I like a friend who:

    a. is efficient and practical in his interests,
    b. in between,
    c. seriously thinks out his attitudes toward life.

29. It worries me if I hear others expressing ideas that are contrary to those that I firmly believe.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

30. I am over-conscientious, worrying over my past acts or mistakes.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

31. If I were good at both, I would rather:

    a. play chess,
    b. in between,
    c. go bowling.

32. I like to join people who show lively group enthusiasm.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

33. I put my faith more in:

    a. insurance,
    b. in between,
    c. good fortune.

34. I can forget my worries and responsibilities whenever I need to.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

    (End, column 2 on answer sheet.)

35. It's hard for me to admit when I'm wrong.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

36. In a factory it would be more interesting to be in charge of:

    a. machinery or keeping records,
    b. in between,
    c. talking to and hiring new people.

37. Which word does not belong with the other two?

    a. cat,   b. near,   c. sun.

38. Minor distractions seem:

    a. to irritate me,
    b. in between,
    c. not to worry me at all.

39. I am quite happy to be waited on, at appropriate times, by personal servants.

    a. often,   b. sometimes,   c. never.

40. I would rather live in a town:

    a. artistically laid out, but relatively poor,
    b. uncertain,
    c. that is rough, prosperous, and booming.

41. People should insist more than they now do that moral laws be followed.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

42. I have been told that, as a child, I was rather:

    a. quiet and kept to myself,
    b. in between,
    c. lively and always active.

43. I enjoy routine, constructive work, using a good piece of machinery or apparatus.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

44. I think most witnesses tell the truth even if it becomes embarrassing.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

45. When I meet a new person I would rather:

   a. discuss his politics and social views,
   b. in between,
   c. have him tell me some good, new jokes.

46. I try to make my laughter at jokes quieter than most people's.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

47. I never feel so wretched that I want to cry.

   a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

48. In music I enjoy:

   a. military band marches,
   b. uncertain,
   c. violin solos.

49. I would rather spend two weeks in the summer:

   a. bird-watching and walking in the country with a friend or two,
   b. uncertain,
   c. being a leader of a group in a camp.

50. The effort taken in planning ahead:

   a. is never wasted,
   b. in between,
   c. is not worth it.

51. Inconsiderate acts or remarks by my neighbours do not make me touchy and unhappy.

   a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

   (End, column 3 on answer sheet.)

52. When I know I'm doing the right thing, I find my task easy.

   a. always,   b. sometimes,   c. seldom.

53. I would rather be:

   a. in a business office, organizing and seeing people,
   b. in between,
   c. an architect, drawing plans in a quiet room.

54. "House" is to "room" as "tree" is to:

   a. forest,   b. plant,   c. leaf.

55. Things go wrong for me:

   a. rarely,   b. occasionally,   c. frequently.

56. In most things in life, I believe in:

   a. taking a gamble,
   b. in between,
   c. playing it safe.

57. Some people may think I talk too much.

   a. likely,   b. uncertain,   c. unlikely.

58. I admire more:

   a. a clever, but undependable man,
   b. in between,
   c. a man who is average, but strong to resist temptations.

59. I make decisions:

   a. faster than many people,
   b. uncertain,
   c. slower than most people.

60. I am more impressed by:

   a. acts of skill and grace,
   b. in between,
   c. acts of strength and power.

61. I am considered a cooperative person.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

62. I enjoy talking more to polished, sophisticated people than with outspoken, down-to-earth individuals.

   a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

63. I prefer to:

   a. keep my problems to myself,
   b. in between,
   c. talk about them to my friends.

64. If a person doesn't answer when I make a suggestion, I feel I've said something silly.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

65. I learned more in my school days by:

    a. going to class,
    b. in between,
    c. reading books.

66. I avoid getting involved in social responsibilities and organizations.

    a. true,   b. sometimes,   c. false.

67. When a problem gets hard and there is a lot to do, I try:

    a. a different problem,
    b. in between,
    c. a different attack on the same problem.

68. I get strong emotional moods—anxiety, anger, laughter, etc.—that seem to arise without much actual cause.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

    (End, column 4 on answer sheet.)

69. My mind doesn't work as clearly at some times as it does at others.

    a. true,   b. in between,   c. false.

70. I am happy to oblige people by making appointments at times they prefer, even if it is a bit inconvenient to me.

    a. yes.   b. sometimes,   c. no.

71. I think the proper number to continue the series 1, 2, 3, 6, 5, is:

    a. 10,   b. 5,   c. 7.

72. I have occasionally had a brief touch of faintness, dizziness, or light-headedness for no apparent reason.

    a. yes,   b. uncertain,   c. no.

73. I would rather do without something than put a waiter or waitress to a lot of extra trouble.

    a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

74. I live for the "here and now" more than most people do.

    a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

75. At a party, I like:

    a. to get into worthwhile conversation,
    b. in between,
    c. to see people relax and completely let go.

76. I speak my mind no matter how many people are around.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

77. If I could go back in time, I'd rather meet:

    a. Columbus,
    b. uncertain,
    c. Shakespeare.

78. I have to stop myself from getting too involved in trying to straighten out other people's problems.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

79. In a shop or supermarket, I would prefer to:

    a. design and do window displays,
    b. uncertain,
    c. be a cashier.

80. If people think poorly of me, I can still go on calmly in my own mind.

    a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

81. If an old friend seems cold and reserved to me, I usually:

    a. just think "He's in a bad mood."
    b. uncertain,
    c. worry about what I may have done wrong.

82. More trouble arises from people:

    a. changing and meddling with ways that are already satisfactory,
    b. uncertain,
    c. turning down new, promising methods.

83. I greatly enjoy talking to people about local problems.

    a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

84. Prim, strict people don't seem to get along well with me.

    a. true,   b. sometimes,   c. false.

85. I think I'm less irritable than most people.

a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

(End, column 5 on answer sheet.)

86. I may be less considerate of other people than they are of me.

a. true,   b. sometimes,   c. false.

87. I would just as soon let someone else have all the worry of being in charge of an organization of which I am a member.

a. true,   b. uncertain,   c. false.

88. If the two hands on a watch come together exactly every 65 minutes (according to an accurate watch), the watch is running:

a. slow,   b. on time,   c. fast.

89. I am bored:

a. often,   b. occasionally,   c. seldom.

90. People say that I like to have things done my own way.

a. true,   b. occasionally,   c. false.

91. I find it wise to avoid too much excitement because it tends to wear me out.

a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

92. At home, with a bit of spare time, I:

a. use it chatting and relaxing,
b. in between,
c. arrange to fill it with special jobs.

93. I am shy, and careful, about making friendships with new people.

a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

94. I think that what people say in poetry could be put just as exactly in plain prose.

a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

95. I suspect that people who act friendly to me can be disloyal behind my back.

a. yes, generally,
b. occasionally,
c. no, rarely.

96. I think that even the most dramatic experiences during the year leave my personality much the same as it was.

a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

97. It would seem more interesting to be a:

a. naturalist and work with plants,
b. uncertain,
c. public accountant or insurance man.

98. I get unreasonable fears or distastes for some things, for example, particular animals, places, and so on.

a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

99. I like to think out ways in which our world could be changed to improve it.

a. yes,   b. in between,   c. no.

100. I prefer games where:

a. you're in a team or have a partner,
b. uncertain,
c. each person is on his own.

101. At night I have rather fantastic or ridiculous dreams.

a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

102. If left in a lonely house I tend, after a time, to feel a bit anxious or fearful.

a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

(End, column 6 on answer sheet.)

103. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

a. yes,   b. sometimes,   c. no.

104. Which word does not belong with the other two?

a. think,   b. see,   c. hear.

105. If Mary's mother is Fred's father's sister, what relation is Fred to Mary's father?

a. cousin,   b. nephew,   c. uncle.

(End of test.)

ANSWER SHEET: THE 16 P. F. TEST, FORM —— (C OR D)

NAME _____

FIRST   MIDDLE INITIAL   LAST

ADDRESS _____

(OR OCCUPATION OR AS INSTRUCTED)

SEX _____ AGE _____ DATE _____

(WRITE M OR F)   (NEAREST YEAR)

OTHER _____

(AS INSTRUCTED)

EXAMPLES:

1. I like to watch team games.
   a. yes,   b. occasionally,   c. no.

2. I prefer people who:
   a. are reserved.
   b. (are) in between,
   c. make friends quickly.

3. Money cannot bring happiness.
   a. yes (true),   b. in between,   c. no (false).

4. Woman is to child as cat is to:
   a. kitten,   b. dog,   c. boy.

★ Do not write here

Factor	SCORE	
	Raw	Std.
MD		
	(Experimental)	
A	____	____
B	____	____
C	____	____
E	____	____
F	____	____
G	____	____
H	____	____
I	____	____
L	____	____
M	____	____
N	____	____
O	____	____
Q1	____	____
Q2	____	____
Q3	____	____
Q4	____	____

(Use only for 1969 edition of these tests.)

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APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR MANAGERS AND SUBORDINATE

BACKGROUND INFORMATION: (For Managers)

Please mark " x " in the space which applies to you.

(1). Sex.

A. Male.   [   ]

B. Female.   [   ]

(2). What is your age range?

A. Below 30 years. [   ]

B. 30 - 40 years. [   ]

C. 41 - 50 years. [   ]

D. Above 50 years. [   ]

(2). Level of Academic qualification attained.

A. Secondary level. [   ]

B. Diploma level.   [   ]

C. University level. [   ]

D. Postgraduate.   [   ] (please specify)

(3). Work experience.

A. Less than 5 years. [   ]

B. 5 - 10 years.   [   ]

C. 11 - 15 years.   [   ]

D. 16 - 20 years.   [   ]

E. Over 20 years.   [   ]

(4). Number of years in managerial position.

  A. Less than 2 years. [   ]

  B. 2 - 5 years.   [   ]

  C. 6 - 10 years.   [   ]

  D. Over 10 years.   [   ]

(5). Marital Status.

  A. Single.   [   ]

  B. Married.   [   ]

  C. Divorced. [   ]

  D. Widowed.   [   ]

(6). If married, please for how long.

  A. 1 - 5 years.   [   ]

  B. 6 - 10 years.   [   ]

  C. 11 - 15 years. [   ]

  D. Over 15 years. [   ]

(7). Number of children in each age group. Please put a number in the space.

  A. None.   [   ]

  B. New born - 3 years. [   ]

  C. 4 - 7 years.   [   ]

  D. 8 - 11 years.   [   ]

  E. 12 - 15 years.   [   ]

  F. Over 15 years.   [   ]

<u>BACKGROUND INFORMATION:</u>   (For subordinate)

Please mark "x" in the space which applies to you:

(1). Sex.

   A. Male.   [   ]

   B. Female.   [   ]

(2). What is your age range?

   A. Below 20 years.   [   ]

   B. 21 - 25 years.   [   ]

   C. 26 - 30 years.   [   ]

   D. 31 - 35 years.   [   ]

   E. 36 - 40 years.   [   ]

   F. 41 - 45 years.   [   ]

   G. 46 - 50 years.   [   ]

   H. Above 50 years.   [   ]

(3). Level of academic qualification attained.

   A. Less than secondary level.   [   ]

   B. Secondary level.   [   ]

   C. Diploma level.   [   ]

   D. University level.   [   ]

   E. Postgraduate.   [   ]

(4). Work experience.

  A. Less than 2 years.   [   ]

  B. 2 - 4 years.   [   ]

  C. 5 - 7 years.   [   ]

  D. 8 - 10 years.   [   ]

  E. 11 - 15 years.   [   ]

  F. Over 15 years.   [   ]

(5). Marital status.

  A. Single.   [   ]

  B. Married.   [   ]

  C. Divorced.   [   ]

  D. Widowed.   [   ]

(6). If married please. for how long?

  A. 1 - 2 years.   [   ]

  B. 3 - 5 years.   [   ]

  C. 6 - 8 years.   [   ]

  D. 9 - 11 years.   [   ]

  E. 12 - 15 years. [   ]

  F. Over 15 years. [   ]

(7). If have children, please number.

  A. One.   [   ]

  B. Two.   [   ]

  C. Three.   [   ]

D. Four.   [   ]

E. Five.   [   ]

F. Over five. [   ]

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