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Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Ph.D., 1977 Business Administration

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AMONG MANAGERS OF PUBLIC VS. PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS IN THE LIBYAN ARAB REPUBLIC

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Management

by
Saddeg Mansour Busniena
B.S., University of Libya, 1968
M.S., Louisiana State University, 1971
August, 1977

EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

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ABSTRACT

This study is an investigation of the relationship between type of organization (public nonprofit, public profit-oriented, and private business) and the n Achievement among Libyan managers. It is an extension of previous efforts in the field, especially those by David C. McClelland and his associates in the United States, Poland, Italy, and Turkey.

Chapter I is an introduction to the study and includes a statement of the problem, the purposes and scope of the study, the hypotheses, the research design, limitations of the study, and a preview to the presentation. Chapter II provides a brief introduction to Libya. The third chapter is devoted to a review of the literature and a discussion concerning the improvement of the n Achievement. Chapter IV contains an analysis of questionnaire results; and in the last chapter, the summary and conclusions are presented.

After a statistical analysis utilizing the analysis of variance techniques, it was concluded that the n Achievement is higher among managers of private business organizations than among managers of either profit-oriented or nonprofit-oriented public organizations.

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This study is an investigation of the relationship between type of organization (public nonprofit, public profit-oriented, and private business) and the n Achievement among Libyan managers. It is an extension of previous efforts in the field, especially those by David C. McClelland and his associates in the United States, Poland, Italy, and Turkey.

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After a statistical analysis utilizing the analysis of variance techniques, it was concluded that the n Achievement is higher among managers of private business organizations than among managers of either profit-oriented or nonprofit-oriented public organizations.

In general, regardless of whether they are publicly or privately owned, profit-oriented organizations have managers with higher n Achievement than nonprofit government organizations.

Other variables and their interactions were investigated to determine their effect, if any, on the n Achievement. These included age, size of organization, span of control, and income. Of these, only education proved to have a significant effect on the n Achievement. As far as the interaction effect was concerned, only two of these--group education and age supervision--had a significant effect.

When comparing the n Achievement among Libyan managers with that of managers in the United States, Poland, Italy, and Turkey, Libyan managers scored higher than managers in Italy and Turkey in both the private and public sectors. When Libyan private business managers were compared with private business managers in the United States, the American managers scored little higher than did the Libyans. In public organizations, Libyan managers scored much lower than did managers in both the United States and Poland.

It was concluded that in the process of economic development, the Libyan government should not depend solely on the public sector and overlook the role of the

private sector. Since the n Achievement among managers in the private sector is higher, this sector can have a major effect on the success of the developing effort. However, if the government prefers to rely heavily on the public sector, efforts will have to be made to raise the n Achievement level in the atmosphere of the publicly-owned organizations.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study is an investigation of one of the most important motivational factors affecting the performance of managers in both developing and developed economies, namely, the need for achievement (hereafter referred to as the n Achievement or the n Ach). The n Achievement has been accepted as one of the more important factors leading to economic development. It is also a factor related to the successful performance of business organizations, especially in the developing countries.

It is an accepted proposition today that business activities and a majority of the development programs in most of the developing countries have been undertaken by the government, and the role of the private business is a shrinking one.

The case of Libya is not exceptional. Since the Revolution of the First September, which took place in 1969, there has been a tremendous change in the economic development in Libya. There has been escalating emphasis on the role of the government (the public sector) in economic activities.

This trend has been attributed to many factors. Among them are the following:

- 1) bringing together the small units of production and raising them to the most efficient and effective level:
- 2) bringing the financial and saving resources under the control of the government to assure that they will serve the best interests of the country; and
- 3) government-owned corporations, with the huge amounts of money and financial capacity which are not available to the smaller private businesses, have been able to execute development programs which cost hundreds of millions of dollars.

This study will compare the n Ach among Libyan managers in public nonprofit organizations, public profit organizations, and private business organizations in an effort to identify which group(s) has/have managers with the highest n Ach. Recommendations will be made according to the findings of the study.

Statement of the Problem

For over two decades, considerable research has focused upon the achievement motive and its positive correlates with entrepreneurial and managerial behavior

¹A Comprehensive Analysis for the Public Sector Organization (Libya: General Auditing Office, 1975), Part I.

(e.g., McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Winter, 1969). These research efforts, as representative of a large body of literature, have documented a significant link between high achievement need and more highly motivated behavior among businessmen. This study is concerned with the investigation of the need for achievement among managers of business-oriented and public organizations. Business-oriented organizations will, in turn, be divided into those owned by the private sector and those owned by the public sector.

It is a well-known phenomenon in most developing countries that the government has taken over most of the economic activities and limited the role of the private sector. Libya is going in the same direction due to two factors. First, the revolutionary regime has chosen socialism as a route for developing the economy. Second, the private sector has been unable to achieve the desired results and has avoided the high risks involved in undertaking the development programs in the country.

This study has attempted to compare the relative need for achievement among managers in the public and private sectors, to find out which group(s) is/are more effective, and to find a way to improve this need.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study are:

1) to test the validity of selected hypotheses

concerning the relationship between n Ach and type of organization. The types of organization included are two publicly-controlled organizations (one is profit-oriented, the other is not) and one private-controlled organization with a profit motive; and

2) to discover the effect of the ownership of the public sector to the profit-oriented organization on the n Achievement by comparing two types of profit-oriented organizations controlled by the government with those controlled by the private sector.

There is a tendency by many underdeveloped countries toward the extensive use of public enterprise to accelerate economic development. This is the case of Libya. Thus, it is particularly important to obtain factual information on the enterprise and attitudes of managers working for the government as contrasted with managers in private business.

This research will also provide useful information for answering the question. Are government managers less enterprising, more security-minded, and more impractical than their private counterparts?

This study should be considered as a check and an extension to the findings in the area of motivation, especially concerning the achievement motive. It is a continuation of the statements by McClelland and others in their book The Achievement Motive:

We do not regard anything in this report as final. It is truly a report of research in progress, a report which we hope will be of some assistance to others in their work and perhaps serve to stimulate them to check and extend our finding.²

The Scope of the Study

This research project is primarily concerned with the investigation of the relationship between type of organization and n Achievement among Libyan managers. If space and time permit, a comparison will be made between the n Achievement among Libyan managers and the n Achievement among managers in other countries. Due to the limitation of time and space, the managers in the sample will only be drawn from the organizations that operate in the two largest cities in the country, namely, Tripoli and Benghazi.

A recommendation will be made regarding the involvement of government in business activities according to the end results of this study. Also, a way for improving the need for achievement among Libyan managers will be discussed.

Justification for the Study

Many developing countries have extensively used public enterprise to accelerate economic development.

David McClelland, et. al., The Achievement (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953), p. vi.

Libya is no exception. It is important, therefore, to obtain factual information on the enterprise and attitudes of managers working for the government as contrasted with managers in private business. There is also the question of whether government managers are less enterprising, more security-minded, and more impractical than their private counterparts. By comparing the n Achievement among managers in public non-profit, public profit, and private business organizations, answers may be found to the above questions.

United States, and Poland regarding the n Achievement.

It has been found in Italy and in Turkey that bureaucrats in public organizations have less drive than private executives as far as the n Achievement is concerned.

According to all findings on n Achievement, government managers in these two countries seem to be less enterprising than are the private ones. However, in the United States and Poland, no significant differences in n Achievement were found. This research will be an additional investigation to either verify or corroborate these findings.

Findings in the United States provided a somewhat surprising result, for no significant difference in n

³David C. McClelland, <u>The Achieving Society</u> (Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961), pp. 294-95.

Achievement between the two groups of government and private managers could be found. Furthermore, Polish managers from the public sector scored significantly higher than Turks or Italians from the private sectors.

McClelland justified the contrast in findings as follows:

. . . To look at the other side of the coin, both American and Polish bureaucratic managers would appear to be near to Weber's ideal type4 in the sense that they are less concerned with people, and therefore presumably more guided by impersonal universalistic rules and regulations. . . On the other hand, one would expect the Turkish and Italian bureaucratics to be more concerned with "personal alliances," with particuliaristic interpersonal relationships. While systematic data do not exist, it is certainly a widely held belief based on many personal experiences that dealing with these two bureaucracies involves precisely this kind of interpersonal as opposed to impersonal relationship.5

It was hypothesized that the situation in Libya would be similar to that in Italy and Turkey where bureaucratic managers are far removed from Weber's ideal type.

Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, trans. by A.M. Henderson and T. Person (New York: Oxford Press, 1947).

⁵McClelland, <u>The Achieving Society</u>, p. 295.

⁶Weber, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 245.

This research also complied with the investigation by McClelland and others to check and extend their findings about the achievement motive. 7

Hypotheses

Based on studies by David McClelland and others, the following hypotheses were developed:

- H₁: Managers in profit-oriented organizations are predicted to have higher n Achievement than those in nonprofitoriented organizations in the public sector.
- H2: As far as n Achievement is concerned, it is predicted that there is no difference among managers working in profit-oriented organizations, regardless of whether they are owned by the government or by the private sector.

Concerning the first hypothesis, McClelland stated:

"bureaucrats" have less "drive" than private executives as expected in Italy and in Turkey, particularly in comparison with the more successful private managers. According to all our findings on n Achievement, then, government managers in these countries should be less enterprising than private ones. However, the surprise is provided by the United States . . . where there is no significant difference in n Achievement between the two groups . . . Furthermore, the Polish managers also from the public sector score significantly higher than the Turks or Italians from the public sector.

⁷McClelland, et. al., The Achievement Motive, p. vi.

⁸ McClelland, The Achieving Society, pp. 294-95.

The reason given by McClelland for the above conclusions is that American and Polish bureaucratic managers appear to be nearer to Weber's ideal in the sense that they are less concerned with people and, therefore, presumably more guided by impersonal universalistic rules and regulations. The situation in Libya is expected to be similar to that in Italy and in Turkey where bureaucratic managers differ widely from Weber's ideal.

The second hypothesis is drawn from McClelland's statement:

. . . There is no evidence that ownership is of importance to the man with high n Achievement though it may be to the man of high n Power. Owning and operating a small business is not the special refuge of the man with high n Achievement even in a capitalistic society where he is free to make such a choice.

The null hypothesis is:

Ho: There is no relation between groups and response. That is, the need for achievement is equal among all managers regardless of the type of organization.

Research Design

This section is divided into five parts. The primary concepts used in this study are defined, and the techniques of data analysis are indicated. Next follows a discussion of the general population and sample size,

⁹<u>Ibid</u>., p. 265.

as well as a discussion of the scoring of n Achievement tests. Finally, the research methodology is stated.

Definition of Concepts Used

The "need for achievement" can be defined as the striving to increase--or keep as high as possible--one's own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail.

The term "manager" as used in this study refers to the chief executive officer (CEO) of an organization, as well as the two or three people next to him in command. Executive personnel such as secretaries and subdivision heads were not included.

This study is devoted to the investigation of the difference (if any) in the n Achievement among groups of managers of three organizations:

- 1) groups of managers in government offices in nonprofit organizations (such as the ministries, i.e., Ministry of Education and Ministry of Economics) and all other government organizations which are not businessoriented. This group will be designated as NPGO or G₁ throughout the study;
- 2) groups of managers of organizations owned by the government with a profit motive (i.e.,

industry, construction). This group will be referred to as PGO or G2; and

3) groups of managers in private business organizations, referred to as PVT or G₃.

Techniques of Data Collection

A questionnaire was used to collect the data from the study subjects (see Appendix I for a copy of this questionnaire—in both English and Arabic). The questionnaire contained two major parts: Part A, which was designed to obtain demographic data on the managers such as age, organization for which he works, position, education, and so forth; and Part B, which was a modified Thematic Apperception Test to measure the relative level of the subjects'n Achievement.

The Thematic Apperception Test is a projective testing technique developed by H. A. Murray. It involves showing the subjects four rather ambiguous pictures (see Appendix) and having them tell a story about what is happening in each picture. These stories are then analyzed with respect to the particular aspect of the subject. The projective testing techniques are based upon the fundamental assumption that the subject will project himself into the stimulus situation (picture). Purther,

¹⁰ Gardner Lindzey, "Thematic Apperception Test: Interpretive Assumptions and Related Evidence,"
Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 49 (January 1959), pp. 1-25.

it is assumed that in describing or responding to the stimulus, the subject indirectly reveals something about himself. The subject's responses can then be analyzed and interpreted to reveal certain aspects of his personality. Subjects are provided four questions to stimulate their thinking in composing stories about the pictures. These stories are then analyzed and scored with respect to the level of n Achievement. 11

The logic of this particular technique and its interpretation is that subjects with strong n Achievement will write stories which are more achievement-oriented than will subjects with weaker n Achievement. 12

General Population and Sample Size

According to the results of Libya's second population census of 1964, those engaged in administrative and managerial work totaled 6,188, of which 5,420 were Libyans and 768 were aliens. This study, however, is not concerned with all managers at all levels. The term "manager" as used here refers to the chief executive officer (CEO) of an enterprise, as well as the two or

ll Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Dryden Press, 1951), Part 7, as cited in Aubrey Cecil Sanford, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Level of Need for Achievement and Employment Intentions Among College Juniors and Seniors at Louisiana State University" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1971).

¹²Sanford, <u>ibid</u>., pp. 25-27.

people next to him in command. This means that the number of Libyans engaged in managerial jobs referred to earlier must be cut to about half, which leaves a population of 2,710 managers from which the sample will be drawn. It was decided that a sample of between 10 and 15 percent would be sufficient for the purposes of this study (i.e., a sample of between 271 and 406 managers).

An attempt was made to distribute the total sample (300 were contacted) to the subsamples (government organizations with a profit motive, nonprofit-oriented government organizations, and private businesses) on a proportionate basis, but this was not possible because of the reasons discussed under "Limitations of the Study." The sample size finally utilized was 180, of which 71 were G_1 , 59 were G_2 , and 50 were G_3 .

Scording of n Achievement Test

The n Achievement scores for subjects were derived from the content analysis of the stories that were written by the subjects from the pictures. A subject's total score was the algebraic sum of the scores for each of the pictures. The content analysis used to score the stories was the standardized one developed by McClelland and his associates. 13 It involved scoring the stories on thirteen different criteria. Eleven of the criteria

¹³ McClelland, et. al., The Achievement Motive.

indicate evidence of achievement motivation and receive a score of +1. One of the criteria is considered evidence of doubtful achievement motivation and is scored 0. The final criterion is considered evidence of negative achievement motivation and will receive a score of -1. 4 (See Appendix C.)

Method of Analysis

The computer operation has been used to facilitate compilation and analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire survey. The statistical analysis performed in this study has been done by utilizing computer facilities available at Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge. The statistical method used in the analysis of the data, as stated previously, is the analysis of variance.

The analysis of variance is a method for dividing the variation observed in the experimental data into different parts, each part assignable to a known source, cause, or factor. It may assess the relative magnitude of variation where a particular part of variation is greater than expectation under the null hypothesis. The analysis of variance is used to test the significance of

¹⁴ McClelland, The Achieving Society, as cited in Sanford, op. cit., p. 37.

the difference between the means of different populations. 15

The rationale of the analysis of variance is that the total sum of squares of a set of measurements composed of several groups can be analyzed or broken down into specific parts. each part identifiable with a given source of variation. In the simplest case, the total sum of squares is analyzed into two parts: a sum of squares based upon the variation within the several groups, and a sum of squares based upon the variation between the group means. Then, from these two sums of squares, independent estimates of the population variance are computed. On the assumption that the groups or samples making up a total series of measurements are random samples from a common normal population, the two estimates of the population variance may be expected to differ only within limits of random sampling.

We may test the null hypothesis by dividing the larger variance by the smaller variance to obtain the variance ratio and the calculated F value or the observed F value. If the observed value of F equals or exceeds the value of F from the table, the null hypothesis that the sames have been drawn from the same common normal population is considered untenable. If we reject

¹⁵George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976), pp. 223-25.

the null hypothesis, the populations from which the samples have been drawn may differ in terms of either means or variances, or both. If the variances are approximately the same, it is the means that differ. 16

Limitations of the Study

This study is unique insofar as the country involved is concerned. Therefore, its findings must be interpreted in light of the following major limitations. First, there have been no previous studies on this subject done in Libya. Second, the findings might be proved or disproved through replication and future studies on the same topic. Third, the study is a single effort, except for the assistance and direction of the author by his main advisor and members of his committee. Fourth, there is a shortage of information and data needed for a more definitive study.

Lastly, the possibility of selecting a strictly random sample was considered, but for the following reasons was ruled out. First, there are no professional organizations and, therefore, no ready-to-use references or directories for any groups or subgroups of managers. The researcher had to invent his own methods of locating study subjects. Had such references existed, they could have been used as a basis for selecting a random sample

¹⁶ Allen L. Edwards, Statistical Methods for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 315-16.

that could be representative of subjects to be studied. Second, there was a lack of cooperation on the part of some subjects who were contacted and given a question-naire. A large number returned the questionnaires without filling them out at all. This situation occurred many times and in different organizations.

As a result of these difficulties, the decision was made to include in this study all those managers who could be reached and who were cooperative. On this basis, a total of 300 managers were contacted. Of the 115 managers from the nonprofit public organizations contacted, only 71 usable responses were obtained. Of the 100 managers contacted from the public profit-oriented organizations, only 59 responses were used. Only 50 responses were usable from the 85 managers contacted in private businesses. The usable questionnaires totaled 180, giving a response rate of 60 percent.

The study was conducted in the two major cities in the country--Tripoli and Benghazi. These two cities have approximately 37 percent of the total Libyan population and are the major centers of all private and government activities.

Preview to the Presentation

The following chapter provides a fairly detailed presentation about Libyan geography, location, and historical background. Also, the country's population and

labor force are presented. The final portion of the chapter covers the situation relative to economic development up to the present time and the governmental stand on economic issues.

Chapter III is devoted to a review of the literature concerning the findings in the area of the n

Achievement and its relation to types of organization.

Also, the chapter includes a discussion of the relationship between the n Achievement and economic development.

The last part of Chapter III presents a short discussion on how to develop the n Achievement.

Chapter IV is devoted to an analysis of the data used to test the hypotheses regarding the n Achievement in three types of organizations and a comparison of the findings.

The final chapter contains conclusions and implications, as well as recommendations, resulting from this inquiry.

CHAPTER II

A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO LIBYA

Historical Background

Libya became an independent country on December 24, 1951. This historic event followed a decision made by the United Nations in November, 1949, whereby the three territories of Tripoli, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan would constitute an independent country.

The settled areas to the west and east of Libya (Tripoli and Cyrenaica, respectively) are divided by hundreds of miles of desert; the south is desert except for a few cases. These settled areas had very different histories in early times. The west was first colonized by the Phoenicians; the east, by the Greeks. Though both subsequently became part of the Roman Empire during the first century B.C., they continued to form separate entities throughout the Roman period, which lasted until the middle of the fifth century A.D.

The Arabs, who have had the greatest influence on Libya, first invaded the country in the middle of the seventh century. Since that time, Libya has been one of the Arab states. The last invasion was that of the

Italians, which began in 1911 and lasted until the second World War, when Italy was defeated by the allied powers.

From its independence in December, 1951, until September 1, 1969, Libya was a constitutional monarchy. However, on September 1, 1969, the king was deposed during the First September Revolution and a twelve-man Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) assumed supreme authority in the new Libyan Arab Republic.

Islam has been the dominant religion since the Arab invasion, and it has been the state religion since independence. Arabic is the only officially-recognized language.

Location

The Libyan Arab Republic is situated along the north-central coast of Africa. Occupying a long coast-line of approximately 1,140 miles on the southern shores of the Mediterranean between Tunisia and Egypt, its domain extends deep into the Sahara near the Central African states of Niger, Chad, and Sudan. With a total area of 679,358 square miles, it is the third largest state in Africa, ranking after Sudan and the Republic of the Congo. It is about 2½ times the size of Texas, comparable in area to the states of California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, and Nevada combined. 1

¹Stephen Duncan, Libya, A Market for U.S. Products (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of International Commerce, 1962), p. 1.

Despite Libya's ast expanse, however, only some relatively narrow coastal plains, a few adjoining plateaus, and some isolated oases, comprising 17,230 square miles in all or 2.5 percent of the country's total area, are suitable for cultivation. In addition, some 68,000 square miles of plateau lands are available, but only under the best of climatic conditions.

<u>Population</u>

Libya is an underpopulated country, which is in marked contrast with the situation in most underdeveloped countries. This phenomenon can be attributed to three main factors, namely:

- 1) a low population growth during the 1950s. Due to the very low birth rate and high death rate, population growth during the 1950s was estimated to be approximately 1½ percent per year;²
- 2) its poor economic history. Bad economic conditions before 1960 resulted in a very low per capita income; and
- 3) the effect of the liberation war against
 Italian occupation and the second World War.

Since 1960, the situation has changed radically, as the birth rate has risen and the death rate has

²United Nations, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, <u>The Economic Development of Libya</u> (Baltimore, Md.: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1960), p. 28.

declined. According to the 1954 census, the population was 1,088,889. In 1964, the total population reached the figure of 1,564,369, of which 813,386 were male and 750,983 were female.³ The increase in population from 1954-1964 was 475,480, or 44 percent, which was a growth rate of 3.6 percent per year. The total population reached 1.9 million in 1969. (More detail will be added later concerning population.)

Nature of the Libyan Economy

In order to better discuss the Libyan economy, it will be divided into two periods: from 1911 through 1959, and from 1960 to the present.

During the first period (1911-1959), the prospects for Libyan economic and social development were discouraging for both Libyans and foreigners. At that time, the economy could be described as a good example of a "dual economy." The first sector was agriculture. People lived very simple lives; their needs, as well as their knowledge of twentieth century technology, were limited. The second sector, the "modern sector," was first developed by the Italians when they colonized the country (1911-1943). It was characterized by modern

³Libyan Arab Republic Ministry of Planning, Census, and Statistical Department, 1968.

United Nations, op. cit., p. 3.

agriculture and simple manufacturing, such as textile and olive refineries, oil prospecting, and technical foreign aid.

Except for land, which was plentiful, Libya lacked the factors for economic development: natural resources, capital, skilled labor, and managerial talent; and the Libyan market was quite limited due to its very low per capita income.

There were deficits in the government budget and the balance of trade, and the small plants in Tripoli operated at a loss. These deficits, as stated by Professor Benjamin Higgins, reflected the fact that the whole Libyan economy was operated at a deficit.⁵

This deficit economy was the result of Italian colonial policy which did nothing to prepare the Libyan people for self-government. They neglected education and technical training, and Libyans were excluded from administration. The mission of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, in a report to the Libyan government, stated:

As a result, through no fault of its own, Libya has remained heavily dependent on foreign administrative and technical personnel, and the training of Libyans to replace them is still the most difficult

⁵Benjamin Higgins, Economic Development, Principles, Problems and Policies (rev. ed.; New York: N.W. Norton, 1968), p. 819.

of all the problems associated with economic development.

Therefore, the Libyan economy was characterized by the problems that exist in any underdeveloped country: a low level of domestic production and consumption; a chronic trade deficit, which was offset in part by foreign aid; a low level of literacy and health; and a lack of natural resources and fertile land. 7

The year 1959, the beginning of the second period, was the year of greatest change for Libya. Oil was discovered, and by 1961 oil exportation in commercial quantities had begun. As shown in Table 1, oil revenue has become the principal source of income in the country. In 1970, the Gross National Product (GNP) was estimated at \$3.3 million, and by 1968 per capita GNP had risen to \$1,250.

The situation was well-described by Professor Higgins in 1968 when he stated:

In the first place, the rate of growth of national income since 1960 has been fantastically high (of the order of 15 percent). This rapid growth is due almost entirely to the import of a single "leading"

⁶United Nations, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 27.

⁷U.S., Department of Commerce, "Basic Data on the Economics of Libya," <u>Overseas Business Reports</u> (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1964), p. 5.

⁸U.S., Department of Commerce, Overseas Business Reports (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970). p. 8.

sector." The rate of population growth is also high, possibly above three percent per year; nonetheless the rate of increase in per capita income is several times as high as the largest set in the more ambitious development programs of other countries.

Thus, it can be seen that oil revenue has moved the country from a capital-deficit to a capital-surplus nation. Table 1 shows the growth of the total revenue, oil revenue, and oil revenue as a percentage of the total revenue.

TABLE 1

TOTAL REVENUE, OIL REVENUE, AND OIL REVENUE
AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL REVENUE
1955-56 TO 1966-67
(Money Amounts in Libyan Pounds)

Government Fiscal Year	Total Revenue	0il Revenue	Oil Revenue as Percentage of Total Revenue
1955-56	13,331,000	51,000	.40
1956-57	18,126,000	62,000	.34
1957-58	20,440,000	77,000	•37
1958-59	16,952,000	91,000	.54
1959-60	18,363,000	97,000	•53
1960-61	22,356,000	115,000	•52
1961-62	25,703,000	1,992,000	7.80
1962-63	36,027,000	7,190,000	20.00
1963-64	63,369,000	23,840,000	37.60
1964-65	86,020,000	54,719,000	63.60
1965-66	133,453,000	83,618,000	62.70
1966-67	190,926,000	141,861,000	74.30

Source: The Libyan Economic and Business Review, Vol. 4. No. 1 (Spring 1968), p. 1.

⁹Higgins, op. cit., p. 822.

The income from petroleum for the five-year period 1969-70 to 1973-74 has been estimated in the Five Year Development Plan as follows: 10

<u>Year</u>	Millions of U.S. Dollars
1969-70	988
1970-71	1,305
1971-72	1,428
1972-73	1,568
1973-74	1,462

Since oil revenue is the major source of funds to the government, it has been decided to allocate 70 percent of this revenue for development projects.

The New Trend After the 1969 Revolution

The system prevailing in the country before the 1969 revolution was a capitalistic one-although not a pure one-as the government kept itself as much as possible from entering the economic activities which the private sector could enter. However, after the First September Revolution, the new regime chose socialism as the route for developing the economy. Since that time, the government's role has become dominant, while that of the private sector, although still operating actively, has shrunk. The intention of the revolution's leaders was to put economic activities with the most significant importance in the hands of the public sector, and to tide

The Libyan Economic and Business Review, Vol. 4, No. 1 (Spring 1968), p. 1.

over those projects needing huge investments which the private sector could not -- or would not -- take the risk to undertake.

The following gives a clear view regarding the stand of the Revolution from the roles of both the public and the private sectors:

The revolutionary government's first decree defining its principles in industrial policy and the roles of the private and public sectors was issued on 24 March (1970).

The decree classified industrial projects into major, intermediate, and minor categories and said that foreign investment would be permitted in major and intermediate projects if it would lead to increased production above local requirements, the introduction of modern technology into local industries and cooperation with foreign firms in specializing in the market of surplus products. The decree emphasized that government would control major schemes involving "key natural resources."

Major projects were defined as those dealing with the processing of important natural resources such as minerals, gas and oil to produce the basic materials required by other industries. These projects would be under the supervision of the public sector.

Intermediate projects were those involving the processing of various goods for local consumption, such as agricultural products, building materials and goods produced from imported raw materials. These projects would come under the public sector, but private sector financing and implementation would be permitted.

Public sector financial participation in projects of these two categories should not be less than 51 percent, according to the decree.

The private sector would handle the minor industrial sector projects of manufacturing consumer goods for the domestic market. 11

¹¹ Arab Report and Record, No. 6 (16-31 March 1970), pp. 178-79.

Human Resources in Libya

In general, the total population of a country is the ultimate source of labor. Therefore, in order to understand the situation relative to the labor supply in Libya, one should study the classification of the total population according to sex and age distribution. Classifying the total population according to citizens and aliens is also important, for the alien worker is the most important source of skilled labor in Libya.

Population and Labor Force of Libyan Citizens

The population of Libya increased from 1,089 to

1.564 million between 1954 and 1964 (i.e., by approximately 44 percent), for an annual rate of growth of 3.6

percent. It is expected that the population will more than double by 1975 and nearly triple by 1985. (See Table 2.) The population pyramid is so constituted that more than half the population, approximately 54 percent, is comprised of children and young persons below the age of 20. (See Table 3.) It is expected that this proportion will gradually increase from 53 percent in 1965 to 56 percent in 1985. 13

¹² Maya Prasad, International Labor Organization expert, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project, Population and Labor Force Projections for Libva, Tripoli, Libva (August 1970), p. 1.

^{13&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

TABLE 2
TOTAL POPULATION FOR SELECTED YEARS

	Year	Total	Male	Female
Enumerated	1954	1,088,873	565,275	523,598
Enumerated	1964	1,564,369	813,386	750.983
Estimated	1970	1,880,000	966,000	914,000
Estimated	1975	2,202,000	1,128,000	1,074,000
Estimated	1980	2,602,000	1,329,000	1,273,000
Estimated	1985	3,088,000	1,573,000	1,515,000

Sources:

The first three rows are taken from: Questionnaire for obtaining views for the formation of economic and social development plans for Libya, Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Tripoli, Libya, January, 1971, p. 2.

Rows four, five, and six are taken from Maya Prasad, International Labor Organization expert, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project, Population and Labor Force Projections for Libya, Tripoli, Libya (August 1970), Appendix III.

TABLE 3
ESTIMATED POPULATION BY SELECTED AGE GROUPS, 1970

	Years	In Thousands	Percent of Total Population
Infancy and			
preschool age	(0-5)	399	21.0
Primary school age	(6-11)	309	16.4
Preparatory	4	• .	
school age	(12-14)	127	6.8
Secondary school age	(15-19) (12-59)	184	9.8
Working age	(12~59)	1,074	57.2 5.2
Retirement age	(60 and over)	88	5.2

Source: Questionnaire for obtaining views for the formation of economic and social development plans for Libya, Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Tripoli, Libya, January, 1971, Appendix A.

In other words, it seems that more than half the population will be in the educational age group. This will be a point of interest for planners of educational and technical training facilities and vocational guidance and occupational counseling activities in Libya.

Another significant fact derived from the demographic studies is that the proportion of older persons-55 years and above--is gradually decreasing. Older persons constituted about 12 percent of the population in 1954, 14 and around 10 percent in 1964. 15 It is expected that this proportion will further decline to approximately 7 percent by 1985. 16

Table 4 shows the country's total population by sex and age groups for the years 1965, 1970, and 1975.

Labor Force Participation Rates for Males and Females

Under the conditions presently prevailing in Libya, it has been assumed that the labor force will be comprised of those persons above 12 years of age. Although it is quite natural that all persons in each age group above 12 years will not necessarily be in the labor

¹⁴Libya, Ministry of Planning and Development, Census and Statistical Department, <u>Statistical Abstract</u> (Tripoli, Libya: 1954), p. 8.

¹⁵Libya, Ministry of Planning and Development, Census and Statistical Department, <u>Statistical Abstract</u> (Tripoli, Libya: 1964), p. 7.

¹⁶Prasad, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 1.

TABLE 4

TOTAL POPULATION BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS
(in thousands)

	19	65	19	70	19	75
Age Group	Male		Male	Female		Female
0-4 5-9 10-14 15-19 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-59 60-64 65-69 70 and Over	148 115 982 732 546 332 226 216 130	143 111 92 75 65 57 50 43 28 28 14 10	172 140 112 93 80 71 60 52 44 36 324 19 13	167 135 110 91 74 64 56 41 34 27 22 16 12	203 164 138 111 91 79 70 59 50 43 21 16 21	195 159 134 108 90 72 55 40 326 20 14 18
Total	839	15 778	966	914	1,128	1,074

Source: Maya Prasad, International Labor Organization expert, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project, Population and Labor Force Projections for Libya, Tripoli, Libya (August 1970).

force, especially since primary education in Libya is compulsory, we will accept the prevailing viewpoint and will consider the working age to be 12 years.

Male Participation in the Labor Force. As shown in Table 5, it is expected that labor force participation rates of the male population in the age groups 12-14 and 15-19 will decline from 12.4 percent in 1965 to 5.0 percent in 1980. This decline is foreseen as the result of the anticipated increase of young persons participating in educational and industrial and vocational training programs.

Labor force participation rates for males in the 25-54 age group presumably improved between 1954 and 1970. In 1954 and 1964, they were 92.9 and 93.3 percent, respectively, 17 and it was estimated at 96.4 percent in 1970. The participation rates should become stabilized hereafter. Table 5 shows the changes expected to take place in the labor force participation rates of males by age group during the period 1965 to 1980.

Female Participation in the Labor Force. Concerning women, it appears from an analysis of the 1954 and 1964 censuses that their participation rate in the economic life of Libya has remained relatively low in the past. The number of females considered to be active

¹⁷ Calculated on the basis of data from 1954 and 1964 censuses.

TABLE 5

MALE PARTICIPATION RATES IN THE LABOR FORCE BY AGE GROUP

		Perce	ntage	
Age Group	1965	1970	1975	1980
12-14	12.4	11.0	7.5	5.0
15-19	38.5	35.0	33.0	32.0
20-24	79.8	82.0	82.0	82.0
25-29	92.9	96.0	97.0	97.0
30-34	95.5	97.3	97.5	97.5
35-39	95.8	96.7	97.5	97.5
40-44	95.5	96.7	96.0	97.5
45-49	94.7	95.5	96.0	96.0
50-54	92.4	93.0	93.0	93.0
55-59	89.7	89.7	89.7	89.7
60 and Over	61.0	61.0	61.0	61.0

Source: M. Charkiewicz, International Labor Organization expert, Labor Force Projections by Sex and Age for Libya (Tripoli, Libya: April, 1971).

(i.e., able to work, but not necessarily in the labor force) in the 1954 census was 38,150 out of a total of 366,083, which represented the total active population in all age categories. ¹⁸ In 1964, the number of females active (over 12 years of age) in the labor force was 20,251. ¹⁹

Yet, a perceptible social change is gradually affecting the outlook of women in Libya. This change is a function of the increase in the number of girls attending school, the use of mass media education in the form of national radio and television broadcasts and newspapers, and a compelling desire on the part of the general population for better living standards. It is anticipated that this change might be reflected in a progressive increase in the participation rates of women in the age groups 20-24, 25-29, and 30-34. In fact, it is expected that there will be an increase in the first group of 3.9 percent; of 3.6 percent in the age group 25-29; and of 2.6 percent in the 30-34 age group. These changes in the participation rates for females up to the age group 40-44 are expected to occur between the years 1965-1980, as shown in Table 6.

¹⁸ International Labor Organization, <u>Labor Survey</u> of North Africa (Geneva: 1960), p. 31.

¹⁹ Questionnaire for obtaining views for the formation of economic and social development plans for Libya, Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Tripoli, Libya, January, 1971.

TABLE 6
FEMALE PARTICIPATION RATES IN THE LABOR FORCE BY AGE GROUP

	Percentage						
Age Group	1965	1970	1975	1980			
12-14	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8			
15-19	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5			
20-24	5.1	6.0	8.0	9.0			
25-29	4.4	5.2	7.0	8.0			
30-34	4.6	5.0	6.5	7.0			
35-39	4.7	4.9	5.4	5.8			
40-44	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.8			
45-49	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6			
50-54	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8			
55-60	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9			
60 and Over	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9			

Source: Maya Prasad, International Labor Organization expert, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project, Population and Labor Force Projections for Libya, Tripoli, Libya (August 1970).

Projections for 1985

Table 7 shows the population and labor force projections for Libya between 1965 and 1985. It appears from these data that during this period the population of the country is likely to increase by 91 percent and the labor force by 77 percent.

The female population is expected to increase by 94 percent between 1965 and 1985, and, significantly enough, the female labor force in 1985 will be more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times its strength in 1965. Yet, the absolute number of women who will participate in employment will remain very low and account for only 7 percent of the country's total labor force at that time. This is due not only to the large percentage of women who drop out of the educational stream, but also to the effect of the old traditions of society, which are slow to change.

The male population is expected to increase by 88 percent during this twenty-year period, and the male labor force by 73 percent for the same period. In general, the overall growth of the labor force in Libya is not expected to be as rapid as that of the population because of (see the ratio of b/a in Table 7):

the concentration of more than 50 percent of the population in educational age groups (see Table 3);

TABLE 7

POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE PROJECTIONS FOR LIBYA BETWEEN 1965 AND 1985

(in thousands)

		Males			Females			Total	
Year	Popula-	Labor	% of	Popula-	Labor	% of	Popula-	Labor	% of
	tion	Force	b to a	tion	Force	b to a	tion	Force	b to a
	(a)	(b)	(b/a)	(a)	(b)	(b/a)	(a)	(b)	(b/a)
1965	839	390	46.5	778	21	2.7	1617	411	25.4
1970	966	440	45.5	714	26	2.8	1880	466	24.8
1975	1128	501	44.4	1074	35	3.3	2202	536	24.3
1980	1329	578	43.5	1273	43	3.4	2602	621	23.9
1985	1573	673	42.8	1515	54	3.6	3088	727	23.5

Source: Maya Prasad, International Labor Organization expert, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project, Population and Labor Force Projections for Libya, Tripoli, Libya (August, 1970), p. 4.

- 2) the expansion of educational and training facilities; and
- 3) the increase of family income.

Aliens as a Source of Labor Supply

The supply of skilled Libyans is not sufficient to meet growing demands, and both government and private industry must rely heavily on foreign personnel, particularly for professional, technical, and skilled jobs. 20 This shortage encouraged Libya to conclude two separate agreements with Morocco for the employment of manpower on September 17, 1965, and with Sudan on October 28, 1965. 21 In addition to these agreements, in August, 1965, a spokesman from the Ministry of Planning and Development announced that employment contracts had been concluded with more than 200 engineers and technicians from several countries. 22

Table 8 shows the total number of aliens in the population and their participation in the labor force.

Several conclusions can be reached from a study of this table. Some of these are that the:

²⁰For the procedures for employing aliens, see the portion of this thesis concerning <u>Government Regula-and Employment</u>.

²¹ Bank of Libya, Economic Research Division, Economic Bulletin (September-October 1969), p. 186.

²²U.S., Department of Labor, "Labor, Law, and Practice in Libya," <u>BLS Report</u>, No. 297 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, January, 1960), p. 18.

TABLE 8

PARTICIPATION OF ALIENS IN TOTAL POPULATION
AND LABOR FORCE
(in thousands)

			Incr 1968	Annual Compound Rate of	
	1968	1973		Percent	Growth
Population: Total Citizens Aliens	1870.0 1773.0 97.0	2242.0 2094.0 148.0	372.0 321.0 51.0	19.8 18.1 52.6	3.7 3.4 8.9
Labor Force: (12 years and above) Total Citizens Aliens	465.7 419.9 45.8	577.1 491.1 86.0	111.4 71.2 40.2	23.9 16.9 87.8	4.4 3.2 13.4

Source: Manpower Development for the Second Five Year Plan of Libya (Tripoli, Libya: July, 1969), p. 6.

- 1) number of total aliens increased by about 53
 percent from 1968 to 1973--almost three times
 the percentage increase of the general population;
- 2) number of aliens in the labor force was estimated at 86,000 in 1973, an increase of 88 percent over the 1968 number; and
- 3) annual increase in the number of aliens who may participate in the labor force is far ahead of the population's annual growth rate, in fact, more than four times this number (aliens 13.4 percent, citizens 3.2 percent).

These results are a function of the.

- 1) increased demand for skilled labor which cannot be satisfied by Libyan nationals; and
- 2) economy's growth needs, for the growth of labor is disproportionately large as compared with the growth of the Libyan labor force.

More detailed information about the employment of foreigners can be found in the Thirteenth Annual Report of the Board of Directors. Bank of Libya, for the financial year 1968/1969. This information is presented in Table 9. (The data were obtained from questionnaires distributed to a number of selected establishments.) The importance of aliens as a source of labor can be seen from this table, for the average number of foreign

TABLE 9
IMPORTANCE OF ALIENS AS A SOURCE OF LABOR

	June 1968
Number of establishments	734
Total number of employees	43,140
Average number of employees per unit	59
Average number of foreign employees	
per unit	19
Percentage of foreign employees to	
total employees	32.6

Source: Bank of Libya, Thirteenth Annual Report of the Board of Directors, Financial Year 1968/1969, p. 42.

employees per establishment constitutes 33 percent of the total employees.

Entrepreneurship and Government Regulation

Entrepreneurship and Management

Libyan enterprises can be classified into three main groups, namely:

- small-scale enterprises selling goods to a narrow local market and confined generally to labor intensive techniques;
- 2) medium-scale enterprises selling goods to a larger local market, applying improved labor intensive methods as well as capital intensive techniques; and
- 3) large-scale enterprises, or those plants requiring a large investment and at least partly automated.²³

At present, most firms in Libya are under the first and second classifications. However, the third group is represented in the industries owned by the government and oil companies. Relatively few problems exist within the small firms as far as management is concerned because the management function is not distinguished from other

²³The term "large-scale" does not mean the same here as it does when applied to large firms such as those that exist in the developed countries such as the United States, Japan, and Europe. The large-scale enterprises in Libya are those enterprises which employ twenty or more persons.

functions. However, within the other two groups there are numerous problem areas.

The problems facing Libyan enterprise are low productivity, underutilization of capacity and fragmented production, and management.

Low Productivity

While data on labor productivity is very scarce in Libya, there is a general dissatisfaction with the present level of labor productivity. Many manufacturers have expressed their interest in adapting capital intensive techniques instead of labor intensive methods. Some of the many examples of new projects of this nature are fully-automatec macaroni factories, a garbage conversion unit with very few workers, and so forth. The maintenance of machines and equipment is the key problem in such factories, where the necessary skilled workers are few.

Table 10 shows the labor input and output figures for the years 1966-1968 in some large manufacturing establishments.

²⁴ Velimir Vardian, U.N. industrial economist, The Present State of Libyan Industries and Their Problems, Report of the Ministry of Planning and Development (Tripoli, Libya: Government Printing Office, April, 1968), p. 4.

TABLE 10

LABOR INPUT AND OUTPUT IN SOME LARGE MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1966-1968
(value in thousands of Libyan pounds)

Manufacturing		alue o ss Out		Val	ue Ad	dod	Pare	sons En	gngad
Activity		1967		1966			1966		1968
Food Manufacturing	5139	5769	7690	1433	1199	2416	1877	1489	1580
Beverage Manufacturing	2396	2558	3625	1281	1048	1719	686	536	551
Manufacturing of Textiles	1007	1249	1543	326	401	577	501	547	515
Manufacturing of Chemicals and Chemical Products	1945	4203	4773	1014	1430	1662	721	620	615
Manufacturing of Non-Metallic Mineral Products	1086	1396	1579	573	666	795	809	718	777
Manufacturing of Metal Products	1404	1138	1728	881	500	1383	508	512	645

Source: International Labor Organization, Integrated Manpower Planning and Organization Project (Tripoli, Libya: Government Printing Office, April, 1971), pp. 3-4.

Underutilization of Capacity and Fragmented Production

There are several examples of the underutilization of capacity among Libyan industries (e.g., milling industry, furniture industry). The problem of fragmented production is a many-sided one due to the special character of the Libyan market (large as regards the surface and small as regards the demands)²⁵ and to the existing trend of agglomeration of establishments in Tripoli and Benghazi. The total number of manufacturing establishments is very large at present, but their industrial potential is--with a few exceptions--quite small. The growth of Libyan industries, therefore, will certainly be accompanied by a decreasing number of establishments due to concentration and specialization.

At present, approximately 80 percent of the Libyan manufacturing potential is concentrated in the Tripoli region, with 14 percent in the Benghazi region. Accordingly, all other regions are represented by only 6 percent. 26

Management

Surprisingly enough, entrepreneurship no longer seems to be a serious bottleneck in Libya. The oil industry and a few other large-scale enterprises were

^{25&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

²⁶Ibid., p. 6,

essentially foreign undertakings. Italian (before 1969), Yugoslavian, Egyptian, and Tunisian entrepreneurs also appeared in small and middle-sized establishments. Most impressive, however, has been the upsurge of purely Libyan enterprises.²⁷

Many managerial functions are not widely used in Libya. This does not pose a big problem for small enterprises, but it represents a serious obstacle for their future growth. Some managerial personnel are men of very limited formal education. The most important source for management personnel is the limited number of university graduates. It was expected that during the Second Five-Year Plan, 1969-1974, about 2,800 students would graduate from the University of Libya; 540 from the Islamic University; and 430 from among those working on higher degrees abroad. All of these are considered to be good potential sources for managerial employees.

In general, those within the high professional occupational category are considered to be a source for top management. This category was expected to number around 12,000 by 1974. 28

The technical, supervisory, and clerical categories are considered to be sources to satisfy the

²⁷Higgins, op. cit., p. 824.

²⁸ Manpower Development for the Second Five-Year Plan of Libva (Tripoli, Libya: July, 1969), p. 6.

first-line management and middle management requirements. The overall total number in these categories by 1974 was expected to reach 77,000 employees.

On the other hand, working aliens, whose number was about 45.8 thousand and was estimated to reach 86.0 thousand by 1973, are an important source for the man-power needed for management positions.

Government Regulation and Employment

A new labor law, which became effective on May 1, 1970, established parameters for labor and management relationships. Among its provisions, for example, were prohibitions against double employment, limitation of working hours, and protection against unjustified dismissal. The new law, while carrying these requirements forward, added sections dealing with vocational training, clarified provisions relating to dismissals, and generally sought to give more comprehensive coverage of the labor field.

The Ministry of Labor is responsible for implementing the law, which provides for the appointment of labor inspectors, conciliation officers and boards, and arbitration commissions. In addition, an employment office is maintained in each of the twelve provincial capitals. These offices maintain registers of the unemployed and their qualifications, as well as lists of employment opportunities.

The main things that these offices do, which are very relative to this study, can be obtained from sections seven through ten in Chapter Eleven of the Labor Law.

Section 7

It is unlawful to engage a worker in any manner other than through a placement office or unless he has obtained a registration certificate from any such office; exception to this rule may be made by order of the Minister of Labor and Social Affairs.

Section 8

The employer shall notify the placement office concerned within seven days from the date on which a vacant or newlycreated position has been filled

Section 9

It is unlawful for an employer or employer's representative to engage any worker through a contractor or subcontractor. A contract whereby one party undertakes only to recruit workers for employment by the other party or his representative in return for a feed paid by the employer to the supplier who pays the worker's wages shall be null and void.

Section 10

In the cases referred to in the preceding section the employer shall be deemed to have concluded the contract directly with the workers and shall be obliged to pay them the same wages as paid to those who are already doing similar work for him, and in all other respects to treat such workers on equal footing with all his other workers.²⁹

²⁹International Labor Office, Legislative Series, Labor Code, Act No. 58-2970, as cited in the <u>Al-Jarida al-Rasmiya</u> (the official newspaper of Libya).

Employment of Aliens

All aliens have to obtain permission from the Department of Immigration and the Ministry of Labor to work in Libya. Once this permission has been obtained for a specific position, the alien may not change employment while in Libya.

Employment of aliens is so important in Libya because they satisfy the acute shortage of skilled workers among the Libyan firms. The normal procedure in employing an alien is for the employer to apply to the Minister of Labor for certification that the position offered cannot be filled by a Libyan or a permanent resident. Sections 13 and 15 in Libya's Labor Law state:

Section 13

No alien shall be permitted to engage in an employment activity without a permit from the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. The work activity shall be deemed to include any industrial, commercial, agricultural, financial, or other work or occupation, including domestic services.

Section 15

An order of the Council of Ministers shall prescribe the minimum proportion of Libyan workers to be employed in particular industries or establishments and/or a minimum percentage of total wages to be paid to them. 30

In general, it is difficult to secure approval for the employment of aliens in any but the most highly specialized positions.

³⁰ Ibid.

Labor Organizations and Relations With Management

Section 115 of Libya's Labor Law states:

Workers engaged in the same occupation, trade, or craft, or in occupations or trades that are similar, related, or associated in a single branch of production, may form a trade union to defend their interests, protect their rights and work for the improvement of their material and social circumstances.

Trade unions duly constituted in accordance with the provisions of this Code shall have legal personality.31

As a prior condition to the foundation of a trade union, its rules shall be drawn up in writing (see Section 117 of the Labor Law, issued May 1970). Total trade union membership was estimated to be 37,000 in 1968.³²

concerning discipline, discharge, and severance pay, employment may not be terminated by either employee or employer except after notice amounting to one pay period, or for certain causes specified by the law.

These include misrepresentation, crime, or physical attack on either side, and employee failings such as causing serious material loss, habitual absence, or revealing business secrets. Upon discharge for any reason other than these, the employee is due severance

³¹ Ibid.

³²U.S., Department of Commerce, "Establishing a Business in Libya," <u>Overseas Business Reports</u> (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, July, 1968), p. 70.

pay amounting to fourteen days' pay for each year of service. 33

The Labor Law provides for the establishment of trade unions, and therefore distinguishes between individual and collective disputes.

Except for persons in managerial or supervisory positions, those in private and confidential positions, or in special cases and emergencies approved by the Ministry of Labor, male adults do not work more than eight hours per day and forty-eight hours per week. They may be requested to perform three hours overtime per day up to a total of twelve hours per week. Women may not perform overtime work in addition to the eight hours per day or forty-eight hours per week. Juveniles over 15 years (males and females) may not work more than six hours per day.

Summary

As this research effort addresses itself to the study of the need for achievement among Libyan managers, this chapter has provided a short introduction to the country.

Beginning with a brief historical background, followed by a short presentation of Libya's location, population, and nature of economy, it was divided into

^{33&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

two main periods--from 1911 to 1959, a discouraging period for any development, and from 1959 to the present, a period of prosperity.

After the economic review, the human resources of Libya were discussed from both a population and a labor force view.

The final part of this chapter dealt with entrepreneurship and government regulations in Libya.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A question of considerable interest is whether managers have higher n Achievement not only in highly industrialized countries such as the United States, but in less highly developed countries -- or even in Communist countries that do not rely on the free enterprise system. One could easily assert that in underdeveloped countries, the odds against business success are so great that an entrepreneur must be a Schumpeterian hero to advance. Cultural relativists might argue that the motivation required for business success is different in every country, depending on the structure of the business enterprise. For example, would not a different set of motives be required to succeed in a typical French or Italian family firm than that required in a large U.S. corporation? Even more probable, why should a Communist plant manager have higher n Achievement if, as many have argued, initiative is stifled by state capitalism because the manager cannot own the plant and, therefore, cannot

receive additional financial returns for expanding his business?

Research on Cross-Cultural Differences in n Achievement

David C. McClelland stated in The Achieving

Society that no problem has interested sociological and popular students of social organization more than how an enterprise is affected by public vs. private control.

In the United States, public control is frequently associated with bureaucracy, which is often defined as being directly opposed to the entrepreneurial spirit.

Dimock reported in his interviews that many criticisms of bureaucracy centered on its tendency to create security-mindedness and decrease risk-taking. One of the conclusions resulting from his interviews was that critics of bureaucracy felt it lowered n Achievement or drove out people who had it. Traditional skepticism regarding the efficiency and drive in governmental activities has encountered two relevant facts, namely:

1) many underdeveloped countries must make extensive use of public enterprise to accelerate economic development; and

David C. McClelland, The Achieving Society (Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961), p. 261.

²Marshall E. Dimock, <u>Administrative Vitality</u> (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956), pp. 102, 125-28.

2) Communist countries, such as Russia, have developed with extraordinary speed in the past entirely by means of public enterprise.

For evidence regarding the effect of public vs. private control on the n Achievement of managers, one should read the research studies by McClelland and his associates. Few studies have been made in this area which do not have the name McClelland directly or indirectly attached to them. He and his associates have reported:

cerned "bureaucrats" have less "drive" than private executives as expected in Italy and in Turkey, particularly in comparison with more successful private managers. According to all our findings on n Achievement, then, government managers in these countries should be less enterprising than private ones."

Their findings in the United States provided a somewhat surprising result, as no significant difference in n Achievement between the two groups of government and private managers could be found. They did find that Polish managers from the public sector scored significantly higher than Turks and Italians from the private sector.

A possible reason for the contradiction in the above findings can be attributed to the fact that

³McClelland, op. cit., pp. 292-93.

⁴<u>Ibid</u>., p. 295.

American and Polish bureaucratic managers are closer to Weber's ideal type in the sense that they are less concerned with people and, therefore, presumably more guided by impersonal universalistic rules and regulations.⁵

On the other hand, Turkish and Italian bureaucratic managers seem to be more concerned with people, with personal alliances, and with particularistic interpersonal relationships.

Regarding the relationship between the n Achievement and the ownership of the organization, McClelland and his associates reported:

- ... Our finding fits in well with Granick's thesis that the Soviet executive is in fact under many of the same pressures to produce as his American counterpart. Apparently, ownership of the means of production is not crucial to people with high n Achievement, as we suggested by our data on preliterate tribes in Chapter 3, and also by French's findings cited in Chapter 6 that it made no difference in the performance of such people whether they were working for themselves or the group.
- . . . The psychological situation of the manager working for a very large company like General Electric which he cannot be said to own in any real sense though he may own a few shares in it, would not appear to be very different from that of a Polish manager who is working for the state. Both are responsible to some higher board (one private, the other public) representing the ownership, neither has "pride of possession," both have "knowledge of results," of how well they are doing by increased production,

⁵Dimock, op. cit., pp. 77-80.

more pay, or promotion, and both must take risks to succeed. It is, therefore, not surprising after all to find that Polish industry like General Electric is able to recruit and keep men with higher n Achievement for its managerial posts.

the 26 owner-managers of smaller companies was 5.4 as contrasted with 5.8 for the executives from the large organizations, a difference of no statistical significance. Once again, there is no evidence that ownership is of importance to the man with high n Achievement though it may be to the man of high n Power. Owning and operating smaller businesses is not the special refuge of the man with high n Achievement even in a capitalistic society where he is free to make such a choice.

The question of whether it is more efficient to rely on the public or private sector to promote economic development depends to a great extent on the motives of the people employed in the two sectors.

There have been many other research studies done on the n Achievement theory in addition to that of McClelland and his associates. One such effort was by John D.W. Andrews who started with the conclusion reached by McClelland that individuals with strong n Achievement work hard and effectively at tasks which provide the opportunity for attaining a personal standard of excellence. McClelland had demonstrated a positive relationship between strong national achievement concerns, as coded from children's readers and other cultural

⁶McClelland, op. cit., pp. 264-65.

products, and rapid economic development. He had also shown that this connection is mediated by socialization practices and adult occupational choice; that is, parents in achievement-oriented societies are more apt to value achievement and to use child-raising practices which are known to produce a strong need for achievement. High n Achievement members of such societies, as they mature, tend to choose business occupations as the most satisfying to their liking for moderate risk, ample feedback about results, and personal responsibility for decisions. 7

Andrews conducted a study in which he tried to clarify the link between individual n Achievement and broader social processes through an investigation of how executives with various motive patterns advance in various types of firms. He concluded:

importance of n Achievement for business activity, make it necessary to qualify the proposition that business is always achievement-oriented and always attractive to high n Achievement individuals. Clearly, this is much less true in Firm P than in Firm A. It seems likely that achievement-oriented businesses like Firm A will be more prevalent in high n Achievement nations, with the result that individual n Achievement is effectively channeled into economic productivity.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸John D.W. Andrews, "The Achievement Motive and Advancement in Two Types of Organization," <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u>, Vol. 6 (1967, pp. 163-68.

Based on previously demonstrated effects of the need for achievement on factors that have been shown to be related to job performance. Richard M. Steers investigated the potential effects of n Achievement on the relationship between employee performance and two job attitudes. (He cited Atkinson and Reitman, 1956: French, 1958; Steers, 1975; Steers and Porter, 1974. 1975). He continued and built on these and other findings to argue that high n Achievement subjects will tend to place a higher value on the attainment of their performance objectives than will low n Achievement subjects-assuming such objectives serve to cue achievementoriented behavior. Thus, when the tasks are of a challenging nature, we would hypothesize that high n Achievement subjects will manifest a high expectation of task accomplishment (Atkinson, 1958) and will exhibit a high level of effort and concomitant involvement in their work.9

Steers evolved several conclusions from his research. First, he found that the strength of an employee's need for achievement appeared to present an important moderator of the job performance-job attitude relationship. Second, insofar as job satisfaction is concerned, his findings are consistent with data

⁹Richard M. Steers, "Effects of Need for Achievement on the Job Performance-Job Attitude Relationship," <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u>, Vol. 6, No. 6 (1975), pp. 678-82.

presented by Hackman and Lawler (1971) indicating that individuals with strong higher-order needs demonstrate higher performance-satisfaction associations than individuals with weaker higher-order needs.

The findings concerning need for achievement are consistent with the argument advanced earlier that high n Achievement subjects would exhibit a relatively strong association between performance and satisfaction because superior performance in itself often represents a form of intrinsic reward for such persons and often leads to the receipt of positively valent extrinsic rewards from the organization. . . . Low n Achievement subjects, on the other hand, apparently do not view good performance as being instrumental to need satisfaction; perhaps their satisfaction levels are related to other forms of behavior (meeting new friends, for example, for subjects high in need for affiliation). 10

Narayan Prasad Singh tested Atkinson's hypothesis of n Achievement—that individuals with high n Achievement are more susceptible to changes in economic opportunities than their counterparts with low n Achievement—using a sample of 80 farmers and 80 business entrepreneurs. He used the n Achievement scores for both agricultural and business entrepreneurs as a whole, and analyzed them by using the one-tail test. Singh found that the means and SD's for agricultural and business entrepreneurs were 11.04, 8.68, and 14.39, 7.79,

¹⁰Ibid., p. 681.

¹¹ J.W. Atkinson, "Motivational Determinants of Risk Taking Behavior," <u>Psychology Review</u>, Vol. 64 (1957), pp. 359-72.

respectively--T(GR=2.58.p .01). This is evidence of the fact that the mean n Achievement score for business entrepreneurs is higher than that for agricultural entrepreneurs. The superiority in n Achievement scores of business entrepreneurs over their agricultural counterparts may be ascribed to two possible reasons, namely:

- business entrepreneurs are exposed to relatively more economic opportunities than
 agricultural entrepreneurs; and
- 2) most business entrepreneurs, as the more motivated individuals for progress, have migrated from rural to urban areas.

Singh concluded that the results of his study are largely in conformity with the n Achievement theory of Atkinson. 12

After reviewing a vast amount of literature that demonstrated the positive relationship between achievement motivation and business activity, Douglas Durand and Dennis Shea hypothesized;

Black businessmen with high achievement motive will engage in more business-

¹² Narayan Prasad Singh, "n/ACH Among Agricultural and Business Entrepreneurs in Delhi," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, Vol. 81 (1970), pp. 145-49.

related activity than those whose achievement motivation is low. 13

They concluded that the test of the above hypothesis supported previous research in that individuals with high achievement motivation tended to translate their thoughts into actions, i.e., they engaged in more business-related activity than those with a low need to achieve.

In 1975, Durand stated:

For over two decades, considerable research has focused upon the achievement motive (n Achievement) and its positive correlates with entrepreneurial behavior (e.g., McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Winter, 1969). These research efforts, as representative of a large body of literature, have documented a significant link between high achievement needs and "motivated" behavior among businessmen.14

He found that the positive relationship between n Achievement and performance, as measured by the Business Activity Interview, was confirmed by the data. High n Achievement subjects engaged in significantly more entrepreneurial activities than subjects with low n Achievement. Subjects who combined high n Achievement and low need for power were significantly more active than those of low n Achievement and high need for power.

¹³Douglas Durand and Dennis Shea, "Entrepreneurial Activity as a Function of Achievement Control," <u>Journal of Psychology</u>, Vol. 88 (1974), pp. 57-63.

Douglas E. Durand, "Relation of Achievement and Power Motives to Performance Among Black Businessmen,"

Psychological Reports, Vol. 37 (1975), pp. 11-14.

Need for Achievement as a Key Factor in Economic Growth

The need to achieve should be viewed as one variable among many, or as an index reflecting various habits such as thoughts and actions which are important for economic development. The n Achievement content of popular literature has been shown to have increased on several occasions prior to rapid economic growth in a country and to have declined prior to a slackening in the growth rate.

Laboratory studies of individuals with high n
Achievement show that, in general, they behave like successful, rationalizing, business entrepreneurs. 15 That is, they set moderately difficult goals for themselves, neither too easy nor too hard, so as to minimize the likelihood of achievement satisfaction. They are more than normally interested in concrete feedback; they like assuming personal responsibility for solving problems because in that way they can get a sense of achievement. Also, those with high n Achievement generally show more initiative and exploratory behavior, continually researching the environment to find tasks that they can solve to their satisfaction. The similarities in these types of behavior to the actions characteristic of a successful entrepreneur were striking. Thus, it is predicted that

¹⁵David C. McClelland and David G. Winter, Motivating Economic Achievement (New York: The Free Press, 1966), pp. 11-12.

entrepreneurial business executives should universally score higher in n Achievement than professionals with similar social and educational backgrounds.

More and more studies are accumulating which attempt to show what factor(s) are important for economic development. As previously indicated, McClelland's <u>The Achieving Society</u>—in which he summarized an interlocking series of empirical studies suggesting that a particular human motive, the need for achievement, promotes entrepreneurship, which in turn is a key to economic development—is only one of these.

There are many scholars who believed that the key to economic growth is the human resource in the form of educated, trained, developed, and motivated workers. Therefore, their values and attitudes must be changed in order to speed up the growth process. These authors and spokesmen argue for the importance of education, the mass media, and ideology and charismatic leadership in producing modern economic and material development. They suggest that people must somehow be persuaded to think and act in the modern ways before they will build modern economic and social institutions. A peasant or a small businessman would not save or reinvest money unless he believed in the future and in the possibility of controlling it -- as well as benefiting from it. A trader cannot become a successful industrialist until he has come to value longer-term investments or until he has been

trained in modern management techniques. Certainly, the evidence that the n Achievement is an important ingredient in successful entrepreneurship supports this view. For how else can a Syrian businessman or a slum-dweller in America respond rationally to economic investment and opportunities if his n Achievement is low? 16

It has been approved through history that there has been a positive relationship between economic prosperity and need for achievement. Ross A. Webber, in his book <u>Culture and Management</u>, cited David McClelland in this respect:

When we plotted the number of achievement ideas per hundred lines sampled in a given time period against economic indexes for the same time period, we got two curves that showed a very interesting relationship to each other. Normally, we found a high level of concern for achievement is followed some 50 years or so later by a rapid rate of economic growth and prosperity. Such was certainly the case in ancient Greece and Spain in the late middle ages. Furthermore, in both cases a decline in achievement concern was followed very soon after by a decline in economic welfare . . . /during/ the 300-year time span from Tudor times to the Industrial Revolution in England. 17

A careful study by LeVine illustrated the importance of n Achievement to economic opportunities. He observed, as many others have, that the Ibo in Eastern

¹⁶ McClelland and Winter, op. cit., p.

¹⁷ Ross A. Webber, <u>Culture and Management</u> (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969), pp. 1-3.

Nigeria are much more upwardly mobile and economically successful than the Hausa in Northern Nigeria. He predicted and found that n Achievement in fantasy would be much higher among Ibo than among Hausa students. Once again, he established in a totally different concept the close association between n Achievement and entrepreneurial spirit. He attributed the difference in n Achievement levels in the two subcultures to differences in their traditional status mobility systems rather than in their child-rearing practices or religious ideologies. He also pointed out that the Ibo could have responded to their acute land shortage the same way the Hausa did, for:

There were, then, at least three possible courses of action open to the Ibo in response to their acute land shortage: to accept impoverishment at home, to extend traditional trading patterns while remaining as un-Westernized as possible. and to pursue Western-type economic activity with the changes in ways of life that were required for it. Other peoples have adopted the first two alternatives in response to economic adversity; although some Ibo undoubtedly did too, many chose the third course. The difference is not one of rationality, but of energy and effort. In simplest terms, the successful pursuit of a naval occupation involving a high degree of enterprise or education is not for a lazy man; no matter how hard pressed he is financially. 18

¹⁸ R. Dreams LeVine, <u>Achievement Motivation in Nigeria</u> (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966), p. 84.

To put it another way, energetic striving to improve one's lot may seem rational enough to a person with high n Achievement, but not to one with low n Achievement. Some people are sensitive to changes in economic opportunities and incentives; many more are not. 19

Improving n Achievement

It has been argued that the need to achieve seems to be a relatively stable personality characteristic developed from experiences in middle childhood. This means that to improve the n Achievement, one must endeavor to change the method of child-rearing to one which is best known to result in higher n Achievement among children after they reach maturity. If this is true, it means that the problem of accelerating economic growth is more complicated and delayed than previously believed.²⁰

Although the above statement is not a completely negative approach toward improving the n Achievement, it also does not serve the immediate need of stimulating economic growth. Fortunately, it has been shown that there may be another best way, or in Weiner's words:

... by a frontal attack upon values or by a frontal attack upon institutions

¹⁹ McClelland and Winter, op. cit., p. 9.

^{20 &}lt;u>Ibid</u>., p. 2.

and structures that reduce incentives and opportunities and by supporting those institutions and structures which increase them. 21

Improving n Achievement Among Children

Learning theory argues that our basic personality structures are indeed formed in early childhood because associations formed at that time are likely to be stronger and more enduring. Of the several reasons cited for this conclusion, the most important are:

- those associations are more apt to be unconscious, that is, less represented by verbal symbol systems and therefore less accessible to change later on;
- 2) they are more likely to be extraordinarily emotional because they are less modulated by adult time, place, and person schemas that limit the impact of a particular event in late maturity; and
- 3) they occur first and therefore are more likely to shape later learning.²²

Psychoanalysis has taught us that the inner concerns of fantasy life have their roots in early parent-child relations. On the empirical side, meaningful

²¹ Myron Weiner, Modernization: The Dynamics of Growth (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1966), p. 12.

²² McClelland and Winter, op. cit., p. 40.

individual differences in n Achievement level have been detected as early as the age of five. Furthermore, Winterbottom has shown that such differences may be traced to the attitudes of their mothers—at least at a somewhat later age (8-10).²³

Other findings by Winterbottom could be cited as valid evidence to show the close relationship between child-rearing and n Achievement, and provide a possible method for improving that need. The brief summary of his findings is that mothers of sons with high n Achievement tended to expect "self-reliant mastery" at earlier ages than mothers of sons with low n Achievement. also placed fewer restrictions on their sons than did mothers of the "lows," but the restrictions they did insist on were to be observed at an earlier age. so, the self-reliance training was expected even earlier by these mothers, even preceding the age at which the restrictions were imposed. The boys were encouraged to master something, and once they had done so, were held to it by restrictions against "regressive" behavior. The mothers of the "lows," on the other hand, made more

²³Marian R. Winterbottom, "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery," in Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society, ed. by J.W. Atkinson (Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1958), pp. 1, 453-78.

restrictions altogether and did not expect their sons to show independence and mastery so early.²⁴

Improving n Achievement Among Adults

It is no longer accepted that there is only one time in life that the n Achievement motive can be implemented within the individual, namely, the childhood period. There was a vociferous minority among psychologists who challenged the consensus that early childhood was so important. They retained a faith in the infinite plasticity of human behavior in which one response is just like any other, and any such response can be shaped up or strengthened by reward--presumably even an achievement response as produced by a subject in a fantasy test.

If one thinks of motive as an associative network, it is easier to imagine how to change it, for the problem becomes one of moving its position up in the hierarchy by increasing its salience compared to other clusters. It should be possible to accomplish this end by such techniques as:

 setting up the network, or discovering what associations exist in the achievement area, and then extending, strengthening, or otherwise improving the net that they form;

Winterbottom, op. cit., as cited in McClelland, The Achieving Society, op. cit., p. 340.

- 2) conceptualizing the network, or forming a clear and conscious verbal construct that labels the network;
- 3) tying the network to as many cues as possible in everyday life, especially those preceding and following actions, to insure that the network will be regular once formed; and
- 4) working out the relationship of the network to subordinate associative clusters, such as the self-concept, so that these dominant schemata do not block the achievement thoughts.²⁵

McClelland and Winter said that such formulation at least takes the mystery out of the concept of "deep, underlying, unconscious motives" and helps to define concrete goals for the techniques of change, for:

further limitations on how the change efforts can be carried out. If any systematic information is to be gathered on relative effectiveness, the influence attempts could not very well be on a one-to-one basis over long periods of time, as in the model of traditional psychotherapy. They had to be more in the nature of brief courses for groups of individuals. Furthermore, they had to be voluntary, if we were to avoid getting into ethical difficulties. Fortunately, these design requirements matched fairly well with a practice common in the business world, in which managers go off for several weeks to attend a seminar. Thus it has proved practicable to present and give our achievement motivation development

²⁵McClelland and Winter, op. cit., p. 43.

courses as variants of standard management--training seminars. 26

Summary

It has become very important to understand the forces other than natural resources that produce rapid economic development. It has been discovered that these forces lie largely in people themselves, including their fundamental motives and the way they organize their relationships to other people. One of the most important of those forces has been found to be the n Achievement among us as individuals.

The relationship between the stage of economic development and the n Achievement has been proved, for the n Achievement among managers in advanced nations, such as the United States, has been found to be higher than among similar groups in less developed countries, such as Turkey. Also, the relationship between the type of organization and the n Achievement has been investigated, with the findings indicating that in the developed countries the n Achievement among managers of privately owned organizations is higher than it is among managers of public organizations.

Also, the relationship between the n Achievement and economic growth has been investigated and a positive

²⁶ Ibid., pp. 44-92. For more detail on how to improve the n Achievement among adults, see Chapter 2.

relationship has been found. The last part of this chapter dealt with the subject of improving the n Achievement not only during the childhood period, but also among adults.

It was shown that the n Achievement could be improved. First, it was shown that it could be accomplished only during the child's early lifetime. Also, psychoanalysis has taught us that the inner concerns of fantasy life have their roots in early parent-child relations. Second, it was believed that the n Achievement could be improved even among adults, as shown by the research of McClelland and Winter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

In this chapter, the validity of the hypotheses and assumptions stated earlier in the study will be analyzed and evaluated in light of the data gathered during the survey. A short discussion of the hypotheses and assumptions will be presented first. This will be followed by an explanation of the statistical techniques employed in the analysis of the data, and a presentation of the statistical results. Next, the n Achievement scores of Libyan managers in both private and public organizations will be compared with the scores of managers in both sectors in other countries. Finally, a summary of the analysis of data and the results obtained from the statistical analysis by using the analysis of variance method is presented.

The Hypotheses

As stated earlier, this study is concerned with the relationship between n Achievement and type of organization. Three types of organizations have been mentioned; nonprofit government-owned organizations (NPGOs), profit-oriented government organizations (PGOs), and private

business organizations (PVTs). These have been arranged into groups for analytic purposes and are referred to as G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 , respectively.

The two hypotheses developed in Chapter I can be expanded here in the following three hypotheses.

- H₁: The n Ach of managers will vary according to the type of organization for which they work.
- H₂: The n Ach of managers working for profit-oriented government organizations will be higher than that of managers working for nonprofit government organizations.
- H₃: The n Ach of managers working for private businesses will be higher than that of managers working for profit-oriented government organizations.

These hypotheses can be stated in null hypothesis forms as follows:

Hol: No relationship exists between the type of organization for which managers work and their n Ach score.

$$G_1 = G_2 = G_3$$

Ho2: The n Ach among managers in NPGOs is equal to that of managers in PGOs, as they all work for the government.

$$G_1 = G_2$$

Ho3: The n Ach among PVT and PGO managers is equal, as both work for organizations which are profit-oriented.

$$G_2 = G_3$$

The first null hypothesis is concerned with whether the n Achievement of managers differs according to the difference in the type of organization for which they work. The second and third hypotheses are developed to show who scores highest and who scores lowest.

The effect of age, size of organization, span of control, and income on the n Achievement is tested. In addition, the effect of the interaction of the above mentioned variables and the group (type of organization) is tested.

Statistical Techniques Used

The computer operation has been used to facilitate compilation and analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire survey. The statistical analysis performed in this study has been done by utilizing computer facilities available at Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge. The statistical method used in the analysis of the data, as stated previously, is the analysis of variance.

The analysis of variance is a method for dividing the variation observed in the experimental data into different parts, each part assignable to a known source, cause, or factor. It may assess the relative magnitude of variation where a particular part of variation is greater than expectation under the null hypothesis. The analysis of variance is used to test the significance of

the difference between the means of different popula-

The rationale of the analysis of variance is that the total sum of squares of a set of measurements composed of several groups can be analyzed or broken down into specific parts, each part identifiable with a given source of variation. In the simplest case, the total sum of squares is analyzed into two parts: a sum of squares based upon the variation within the several groups, and a sum of squares based upon the variation between the group means. Then, from these two sums of squares, independent estimates of the population variance are computed. On the assumption that the groups or samples making up a total series of measurements are random samples from a common normal population, the two estimates of the population variance may be expected to differ only within limits of random sampling.

We may test the null hypothesis by dividing the larger variance by the smaller variance to get the variance ratio to get the calculated F value or the observed F value. If the observed value of F equals or exceeds the value of F from the table, the null hypothesis that the samples have been drawn from the same common normal population is considered untenable. If we reject

¹ George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976), pp. 223-25.

the null hypothesis, the populations from which the samples have been drawn may differ in terms of either means or variances, or both. If the variances are approximately the same, it is the means that differ.²

Demographic Data Analysis

The data collected are of two natures. The first part of the questionnaire has been devoted to the collection of certain demographic data about the subjects (see Appendix A). The second part (Appendix B) has been devoted to the accumulation of data that was used to obtain the n Achievement scores. Appendix C shows the n Achievement score for each subject of the three subsamples.

The following procedure has been used to arrive at the total n Achievement score for each manager. As can be seen from Table 11, each story should be analyzed and scored on a thirteen-point scale. The first category is negative--Unrelated Imagery (UI)--and is scored -1; the second is Doubtful Imagery (TI) and is scored 0; and the third--Achievement Imagery (AI)--is scored +1. Each story should only be scored on one of the three. The remaining subcategories are scored only if a story is scored for Achievement Imagery.

Allen L. Edwards, <u>Statistical Methods for the Behavioral Sciences</u> (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 315-16.

TABLE 11

SCORING SYSTEM FOR OBTAINING AN INDIVIDUAL'S N ACH SCORE

Unrelated Imagery (UI)
Doubtful Imagery (TI)
Achievement Imagery (AI)
Need (N)
Instrumental Activity (I) + 1
Positive Anticipatory Goal State (Ga+) +1
Negative Anticipatory Goal State (Ga-) +1
Personal Obstacle (Bp)
Environmental Obstacle (Bp) +1
Positive Affective State (G+) +1
Negative Affective State (G-) +1
Nurturant Press (Nup)
Achievement Thema (Ach Th)+

Source: Adapted from David McClelland, et. al., The Achievement Motive (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953), p. 148.

Each subcategory is scored only once per story and is given a weight of +1. An achievement score for each story is obtained by summing (algebraically) the category scores for that story. The n Ach score for any one individual is the total of the scores obtained on all four stories written about the four lectures.

Age Distribution of the Subjects

The results of the first part of the questionnaire are presented in Tables 12, 13, and 14. The
results of the collected demographic data for managers
in NPGOs are presented in Table 12. The subsample of
NPGO managers has 71 subjects. Their age spread is from
25-54 years; 35.2 percent of this group are 30 years old
or younger, and 42.2 percent are aged 31-40 years. The
remaining 22.6 percent are between the ages 41-54 years.

Compared with the other two groups, the subjects in PGOs totaled 59 managers (see Table 13); 57.6 percent of this group are in the 25-30 year old age category, and 35.6 percent are aged 31-40 years. The remaining 8.8 percent range from 41-42 years of age.

As shown in Table 14, managers in private businesses (PVTs) totaled 50 subjects: 40 percent of this group are between the ages 31-40, and 52 percent are aged 31-40 years. The remaining 8 percent are between the ages 41-44 years; there are only four managers in this category.

Size of Organization

The following breakdown has been obtained with respect to the distribution of subjects according to the size of organization for which they work:

1) 12 percent of the subjects in group one (NPGOs) work for organizations having less

TABLE 12 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS SYSTEM, GROUP 1

<u>Age</u>	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
26789012345678901234714 550789012345678901234714	14357576611133235211211	1 58 30 52 33 44 54 45 55 55 66 66 77 71	1.434 9.452 9.852 9.855	1.408 7.042 11.268 18.310 28.169 35.211 45.070 53.521 63.589 64.789 66.197 74.645 81.690 88.732 91.958 91.958 91.958 91.958 91.958
Size	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1 2 3 4 5 6	9 14 15 2 8 23	9 23 38 40 48 71	12.676 19.718 21.127 2.817 11.268 32.394	12.676 32.394 53.521 56.338 67.606 100.000
Super	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1 2 3 4	28 23 8 12	28 51 59 71	39.437 32.394 11.268 16.901	39.437 71.831 83.099 100.000

TABLE 12--Continued

Income	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1	28	28	39.437	39.437
2	40	68	56.338	95.775
3	2	70	2.817	98.592
4	1	71	1.408	100.000
Ed	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
2	9	9	12.676	12.676
3	14	23	19.718	32.394
4	37	60	52.113	84.507
5	11	71	15.493	100.000

TABLE 13
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS SYSTEM, GROUP 2

Age	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
25 26 27 28 29 31 33 33 36 37 41 42	3748664233411313	3 10 14 28 34 34 40 55 55 55 59	5.085 11.864 6.780 13.559 10.169 10.169 6.780 5.085 5.085 1.695 5.085	5.085 16.949 23.729 37.288 47.458 57.627 64.407 67.797 72.881 77.966 84.746 86.441 88.136 93.220 94.915 100.000
<u>Size</u>	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1 2 3 4 56	11 8 3 4 5 28	11 19 22 26 31 59	18.644 13.559 5.085 6.780 8.475 47.458	18.644 32.203 37.288 44.068 52.542 100.000
Super	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1 2 3 4	24 13 8 14	24 37 45 59	40.678 22.034 13.559 23.729	40.678 62.712 76.271 100.000
Income	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1 2 3 4	7 33 14 5	7 40 54 59	11.864 55.932 23.729 8.475	11.864 67.797 91.525 100.000

TABLE 13--Continued

<u>Ed</u>	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1	1	1	1.695	1.695
2	1	2	1.695	3.390
3	12	14	20.339	23.729
4	43	57	72.881	96.610
5	2	59	3.390	100.000

TABLE 14
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS SYSTEM, GROUP 3

Age	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
256789012345678901244 44444	1135551344225311121	1 25 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	2.000 2.000 6.000 10.000 10.000 2.000 8.000 8.000 4.000 4.000 2.000 2.000 2.000 2.000 2.000 4.000	2.000 4.000 10.000 20.000 30.000 40.000 42.000 48.000 68.000 72.000 88.000 90.000 92.000 94.000 98.000
Size	Frequency	50 <u>Cum Freq</u>	2.000 Percent	100.000 <u>Cum Percent</u>
1 2 3	37 9 4	37 46 50	74.000 18.000 8.000	74.000 92.000
		,,,	0.000	100.000
Super	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
Super 1 2 3 4	Frequency 24 8 10 8	_	_	
	24 8 10	Cum Freq 24 32 42	Percent 48.000 16.000 20.000	Cum Percent 48.000 64.000 84.000

TABLE 14--Continued

<u>Ed</u>	Frequency	Cum Freq	Percent	Cum Percent
1	1	1	2.000	2.000
2	8	9	16.000	18.000
3	11	20	22.000	40.000
4	28	48	56.000	96.000
5	2	50	4.000	100.000

- than 100 employees, 40.8 percent work for organizations employing between 101-300 persons, 14.1 percent work for organizations with between 301-500 employees, and 32.3 percent are employed by organizations with more than 501 persons;
- 2) 18 percent of the subjects in group two
 (PGOs) work for organizations having less
 than 100 employees, 18.6 percent work for
 organizations employing between 101-300
 persons, 15.1 percent work for organizations
 with between 301-500 employees, and 47.6 percent are employed by organizations with more
 than 501 persons; and
- 74 percent of the subject managers in group three (PVTs) work for organizations having less than 100 employees, 18 percent work for organizations employing between 101-200 persons; and the remaining 8 percent are employed by organizations with between 201-300 persons.

Span of Supervision

A breakdown of the span of supervision for managers in the three groups is as follows:

1) 28 managers in the NPGOs, or 39.4 percent, supervise less than five immediate

subordinates; 23 managers, or 32.4 percent, have a span of control of 6-10; 8 managers, or 11.3 percent, supervise between 11-15; and the remaining 12 managers, or 16.9 percent, have the largest span of control--more than 15 subordinates.

- 2) Twenty-four managers in the PGOs, or 40.7 percent, have a span of less than five; 13 subjects, or 22 percent, supervise between 6-10; 8 managers, or 13.6 percent, have 11-15 subordinates working under their immediate supervision; and 14 managers, or 23.7 percent, have a span of control larger than fifteen.
- 3) Fourteen managers in the PVTs, or 23.7 percent have a span of control of less than five; 8 managers, or 16 percent, supervise between 6-10 employees; 8 managers, or 16 percent, have a span of between 11-15; and 8 managers, or 16 percent, supervise more than fifteen subordinates.

Income Level

An analysis of the income distribution for all managers in the three groups resulted in the following breakdown:

1) in the NPGO group, 95.8 percent receive less than 1000 U.S. dollars monthly, only 4.2

- percent receive between \$1,001-\$1,650, and none in this group receive more than \$1,650;
- 2) in the PGO group, 67.8 percent receive less than 1000 U.S. dollars monthly, 32.2 percent receive between \$1,001-\$1,650, and none receive more than \$1,650; and
- 3) in the PVT group, 52 percent receive less than 1000 U.S. dollars monthly, 36 percent receive monthly incomes between \$1,001-\$1,650, and 12 percent receive incomes between \$1,650-\$2,000 monthly.

Education Level

An analysis of the education levels among all the subjects surveyed showed the following results:

- 1) 12.7 percent of the managers in the NPGO group have education levels less than high school, 19.7 percent finished high school and have some college education, 52.1 percent have college degrees, and 15.5 have graduate degrees;
- 2) 3.3 percent of the managers in the PGO group either have no education degree or have less than high school degrees, 20.3 percent have high school degrees and some college education, 72.9 percent have college degrees, and 3.4 percent have graduate degrees; and

3) 18 percent of the managers in the PVT group have less than high school educations or no education at all, 22 percent have high school degrees and some college education, 56 percent have college degrees, and only 4 percent have graduate degrees.

n Achievement Scores

The results of the second part of the questionnaire, which show the n Achievement scores for all managers, are presented in full detail in Appendix C. The following is a short presentation of the overall scores of the subjects.

As can be seen in Table 15, the n Achievement scores for all managers in the three groups range from the lowest of -4, which was received by one manager in the PVT group, to the highest of 20, which was received by one manager in the NPGO group.

The n Achievement scores divided into two groups-those scoring 10 or less and those scoring more than 10-are as follows:

- 1) 18.3 percent of the NPGO managers scored between 11 and 20, and 81.7 percent scored between -3 and 10;
- 2) 23.7 percent of the PGO managers scored between 11 and 18, and 76.3 percent scored between -2 and 10; and

TABLE 15

N ACHIEVEMENT SCORES FOR MANAGERS IN ALL GROUPS

	N ₁	imber of Manage	ors
n Achievement Score	Group 1 (NPGOs)	Group 2 (PGOs)	Group 3 (PVTs)
-4		₩ ==	1
-3 -2 -1	3	 1	1
- <i>L</i> -1	4	14	2
	10	2	2 2 3 1 4 2
i	8 10	7	3
2		8	ĺ
3	9	2	4
4	9 4 1	1	2
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	<u>.</u>	7821644333232323	 lc
7	3	4	42232431424
8	3 3	ġ	2
9		3	3
10	2 3 2	3	2
11	3	2	4
12	~ ~-	3	ر
13 14	2	~ 3	į.
15	2		ż
15 16	2 2 1	1	4
17	1	1 1 2	
18		2	3
19 20	1		
Mean	4.06	6.22	8.28

3) 42 percent of the PVT managers scored between 11 and 18, and 58 percent scored between -4 and 10.

Managers in PVTs have the highest n Achievement mean score-8.28, followed by PGO managers with a mean score of 6.22. Managers in NPGOs have the lowest mean score of 4.06.

Hypotheses Test Results

The following model has been used to test whether the hypotheses previously mentioned could be either accepted or rejected. If the results of the analysis of variance refute the null hypotheses, then the hypotheses mentioned earlier will be true.

Y = M + G + age class + supervision class + education class + G * age class + G * supervision class + G * education class + age class * supervision class + age class * education class + supervision class * education class.

The overall results of the analysis of variance provided by the computer are presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16

OVERALL RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	D.F.	<u>s.s.</u>	F Value	PR F
Group Age class Sup class Ed class Group * ag class Group * sup class Group * ed class	2 1 1 2 2 2	225.27 12.62 0.03 162.37 157.70 11.01 243.71	3.78 0.42 0.00 5.44 2.64 0.18 4.09	0.0249* 0.5162 0.9744 0.0208* 0.0741 0.8317 0.0186*
Ag class * sup class Ag class * ed class	1	136.84 3.50	4.59 0.12	0.0337
Sup class * ed class Error	1 165	0.43 4921.74	0.01	0.9043

Type of Organization and Its Effect

Three null hypotheses have been stated with regard to the relationship between the n Achievement and the type of organization for which the managers work. The first null hypothesis is:

$$G_1 = G_2 = G_3$$

From the data presented in Table 16, it can be seen that this null hypothesis could be rejected at the significant level of 5 percent, with an F value of 3.78 and a degree of freedom of 2 and 165. The analysis of variance also gave the results shown in Table 17 with regard to means and standard deviations.

TABLE 17

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION AND N ACHIEVEMENT

<u>Variable</u>	N	Mean	Standard <u>Deviation</u>
G ₁	71	4.06	5.44
G_2^-	59	6.22	5.42
G ₃	40	8.28	6.06

The conclusion, therefore, for the first hypothesis is that the null hypothesis is refuted and the main hypothesis, which states that n Achievement is different according to the difference in the type of organization for which managers work, is completely supported.

The tests of the other two hypotheses are as follows:

$$F = \frac{Q?}{MSE} = \frac{n[MiYi]}{[M_1^2]} / MSE$$

$$= \frac{279.9}{2} / 29.8 = 4.70$$

$$Ho_3: G_2 = G_3$$

$$F = \frac{Q?}{MSE} = \frac{n[MiYi]}{[M_1^2]} / MSE$$

$$= \frac{127.3}{29.8} = 4.27$$

The F ratio from the F table at degree of freedom of 1 and 165 at 5 percent is 3.84; it is the same for both cases, comparing the computed ratios to the F table value. If the computed ratios are greater than the F table value, then the two null hypotheses are rejected.

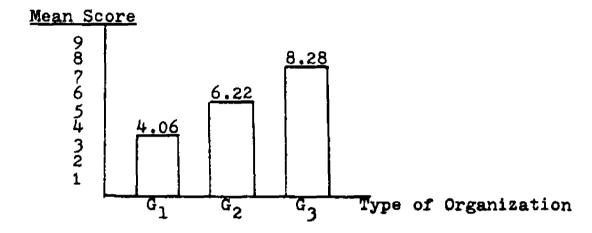
Thus, the results of the tests of the three hypotheses all support the assumption that the n Achievement of managers is different according to the type of organization for which they work.

Also, the results in Table 17 show that the n
Achievement of private business managers ranked first as
compared with the other two groups, with a subsample of
50, a mean score of 8.28, and a standard deviation of
6.0. Profit-oriented government organization managers
rated second in n Achievement scores, with a subsample of
59, a mean score of 6.22, and a standard deviation of
5.42. Nonprofit government organizations rated last in

n Achievement scores, with a subsample of 71, a mean score of 4.06, and a standard deviation of 5.44.

Figure 1 shows the difference between the three groups in graphical form.

FIGURE 1
TYPE OF ORGANIZATION AND N ACHIEVEMENT



It is very clear that the assumptions made earlier are well-supported; that is, a difference in the n Ach exists among the three groups, with private business managers ranking first. Also, among government-owned organizations, those which are profit-oriented have managers with higher n Achievement than do nonprofit government organizations.

Other variables included in the study are age, supervision, and education. Their effects on the n Achievement are presented in the following discussions. The interaction of group * age, group * supervision, group * education, age * supervision, age * education, and supervision * education are also considered.

Age and n Achievement

In order to test the relationship between age and the n Achievement, all managers in the three groups are classified as either younger--35 years old or less--or older, over 35 years. Referring back to Table 16, the analysis of variance showed that there is no significant relationship between age class and n Achievement score, with P .05, degree of freedom of 1 and 165, and F value of 0.42. Also, when age and group are considered together, their interaction effect proves to be insignificant with P .05, at a degree of freedom of 2 and 165 and F value of 2.64. Table 18 shows the mean scores of the n Achievement and the standard deviation for younger and older managers.

TABLE 18

N ACHIEVEMENT SCORE ACCORDING TO AGE CLASSIFICATION

<u>Variable</u>	<u>N</u>	Mean	S.D.
Older	57	5.68	5.31
Younger	123	6.06	6.09

There are 180 subjects in the three groups; 57 are older than 35 years and 123 are between 25 and 35 years of age. As shown in Table 18, the mean scores of the two age groups are almost the same--5.68 for the older managers and 6.06 for the younger.

The effect of the interaction of group and age on the n Achievement is shown in Table 19.

TABLE 19
GROUP AGE INTERACTION AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

Age	ge Older Managers				Younger Manager			
Group	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.		
1	36	3.62	3.93	45	4.31	6.17		
2 3	13 18	8.23 6.83	5.40 6.10	46 32	5.65 9.09	5.36 5.99		

As Table 19 suggests, the effect of the interaction of group and age on the n Achievement score is not significant. There is a very small difference among managers in group one in favor of the younger managers. Among private business managers, there is a big difference of 2.26 in favor of the younger managers. The difference shifts in favor of the older managers in profit-oriented government organizations. These results support the insignificant effect of group and age on the n Achievement score.

Another interaction involving age is the interaction between age class and supervision class. The analysis of variance showed that the effect of this interaction on the n Achievement is significant at a 5 percent level, with a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and and F value of 4.59. The results of the mean scores and standard deviations are shown in Table 20.

TABLE 20

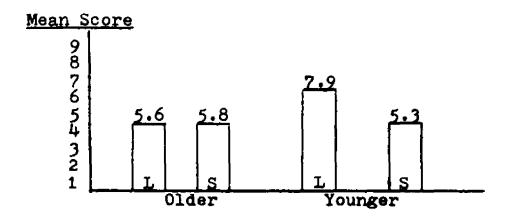
AGE AND SUPERVISION INTERACTION
AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

Sup Class		Large			Small	
* Ag Class	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	s.n.
Older Younger	24 36	5.58 7.86	4.97 5.84	33 87	5.76 5.31	5.62 6.06

As can be seen in Table 20, there is little difference between the n Achievement mean scores of older managers, regardless of their span of control. On the other hand, there is a large difference among younger managers. Younger managers with a large span of supervision have a mean score of 7.86. The following figure presents this relationship in graphic form.

FIGURE 2

AGE AND SUPERVISION INTERACTION
AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE



The age-education interaction effect on the n Achievement has also been tested and found to be insignificant at 5 percent, with a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and an F value of 0.12. The means and standard deviations are shown in Table 21.

TABLE 21

AGE-EDUCATION INTERACTION
AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

Age	College Degree			H	01	
Age Education	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	s.D.
Older	30	6.6	6.07	27	4.66	4.20
Younger	93	6.3	6.00	30	5.07	6.36

Span of Supervision and n Achievement

The effect of the span of supervision on the n Achievement score was ineffective when tested alone, as well as when tested with its interaction with the group. The single effect of the span of supervision on the n Achievement was insignificant at 5 percent, with a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and an F value of 0.00, as shown in Table 16. The group interaction effect was also insignificant at a 5 percent level, with a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and an F value of 0.18. Table 22 shows the results of the group interaction effect on the n Achievement means and standard deviations.

TABLE 22

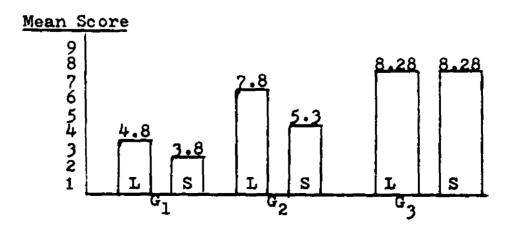
GROUP-SUPERVISION INTERACTION
AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

-	Large					
Group	N	Mean	s.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
G ₁	20	4.80	5.15	51	3.8	5.57
G_2	22	7.81	4.82	37	5•3	5.60
G ₃	18	8.23	6.44	32	8.3	5.95

As can be seen from the above table, the only significant difference in the n Achievement when group and supervision interaction is considered is the difference between large and small spans of supervision among managers in group two. In the other groups, there is no significant difference in the N Achievement between managers having large or small spans. These relationships are shown in graphical form in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3

GROUP-SUPERVISION INTERACTION AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE



The supervision-education interaction effect proved to be insignificant at the 5 percent level, with a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and an F value of 0.01, while the supervision-age interaction effect proved to be significant.

Education and n Achievement

The effect of education on n Achievement scores proved to be very significant when tested alone or when tested with group interaction. Without considering any other aspect, the effect of education on the n Achievement scores of all managers resulted in a very significant P .05 (P=0.02), at a degree of freedom of 1 and 165 and an F value of 5.44. The results of the n Achievement mean scores according to education level are shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23
EDUCATION LEVEL AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

Education	<u>N</u>	Mean	S.D.
College	123	6.40	5.99
High School	57	4.88	5.40

The group education interaction effect on n

Achievement scores proved to be very significant at

P=0.0186, with a degree of freedom of 2 and 165 and an

F value of 4.09. Thus, the effect is highly significant

at a level of less than 5 percent. The mean and standard deviation results are shown in Table 24.

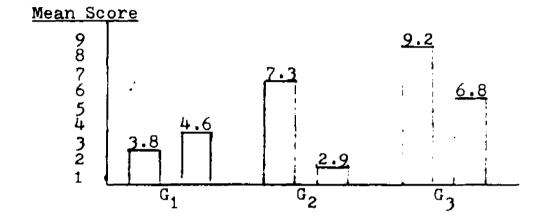
TABLE 24
GROUP EDUCATION AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE

		College	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Н	igh Scho	ol
Education	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
G ₁	48	3.81	5.50	23	4.56	5.23
$\overline{G_2}$	55	7.33	5.47	14	2.64	3.39
³ 3	30	9.27	5.85	20	6.80	6.22

The mean scores for managers with college degrees in private businesses and profit-oriented government organizations are higher than those for managers with high school educations or less. Private business managers with at least a college degree scored a mean of 9.27--the highest of all. Managers in this same group with high school educations scored 6.8--the highest among all managers at the same education level in the three organizational types. Managers in profit-oriented government organizations with high school educations scored 2.64--the lowest of all. The need for Achievement scores for managers in nonprofit government organizations is somewhat different, as managers in this group with high school educations showed a higher n Achievement than their counterparts with college degrees.

These results are shown in graphic form in the following figure:

FIGURE 4
GROUP EDUCATION INTERACTION
AND N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORE



The overall conclusion of the analysis of data provided by the analysis of variance procedures is that the group effect, that is, the effect of the type of organization on the n Achievement score, is very significant at the 5 percent confidence level (P=0.025, F=3.78, and degree of freedom 1 and 165).

The effect of education is also a positive one at a 5 percent level of confidence. That is, there is a significant effect of education on the n Achievement score (P=0.020, F=5.44, and degree of freedom 1 and 165).

Age and education, when considered separately, have no significant effects. The result for age is P=52, F=0.42, and degree of freedom 1 and 165. The

supervision result is P=.97, F=0.00, and degree of freedom 1 and 165.

The interaction effect showed two interactions significant at a 5 percent confidence level, and four insignificant.

Group and education interaction proved to have a significant effect on the n Achievement with a result of P=0.018, F=4.09, and degree of freedom 2 and 165. A second interaction having a significant effect on n Achievement is that of age and supervision, with a result of P=0.034, F=4.59, and a degree of freedom 2 and 165.

n Achievement of Libyan Managers as Compared With Managers in Other Countries

It has been proven that the n Achievement mean score of Libyan private business managers is higher than that of managers in public organizations, whether profit-oriented or not. This result supports the assumption made at the beginning of this study which predicted that the n Achievement in private sectors will be higher than that in public sectors. Other studies have indicated that in a developing country, the n Achievement of managers in private organizations is higher than that among managers in public organizations. The situation in advancing societies is not the same where public managers enjoy a higher n Achievement score.

Table 25 presents the n Achievement scores for managers in private and public organizations in the United States, Italy, Turkey, Libya, and Poland.

TABLE 25

N ACHIEVEMENT MEAN SCORES FOR MANAGERS
IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Country	<u>N</u>	<u>Mean</u>	S.D.
United States A - Private B - Public Difference (A-B)	67 66	8.90 9.23 33	5.22 5.40
Italy A - Private B - Public Difference (A-B)	68 50	4.18 2.56 1.62	4.13 3.17
Turkey A - Private B - Public Difference (A-B)	23 25	3.78 .68 3.18	3.98 2.55
Libya A - Private B - Public Difference (A-B)	50 71	8.28 4.08 4.22	5.44 8.28
Poland Public	31	6.58	5.22

As previously stated, managers in the public sector of developing countries scored less in n Achievement. Italian, Turkish, and Libyan managers in the public sector scored less, that is, at a significant level less than 5 percent. The difference between private and public managers in Italy is 1.62; in Turkey, .68; and in Libya, 4.22.

Private business managers in Libya, when compared with those in Italy and Turkey, scored higher. The Libyan managers scored a mean of 8.28; the Italian, a mean of 4.18; and the Turkish, a mean of 3.87. Also, Libyan managers in the public sector have a higher mean of n Achievement than managers in both Italy and Turkey. Libyan managers scored 4.06, Italian managers scored 2.56, and the Turks scored very low--0.68.

Private business managers in the United States scored 8.9, as compared with Libyan managers in the same group who scored 8.28. There is a big difference in the scores of public organization managers. Those in the United States scored 9.23—higher even than the score of private managers in the country—and those in Libya scored 4.05. Public organization managers in Poland scored 6.58, which is high when compared with scores for managers in Libya, Italy, and Turkey.

Thus, the situation of the Libyan managers is better than that of managers in developing countries such as Italy or Turkey. The position of the Libyan manager in the private sector is as good as that of managers in an advancing society, such as the United States. However, the Libyan public organization managers, although scoring better than private managers in the developing countries, still fall behind when compared to public managers in the United States and Poland.

Summary

The following is a summary of the analysis of data and the results obtained from the statistical analysis by using the analysis of variance method.

Regarding the test of the first null hypothesis, that is, the n Achievement is equal in all types of organizations, the results support the rejection of the null hypothesis and the conclusion is that the n Achievement is different according to the type of organization.

$$Ho_1: G_1 = G_2 = G_3$$

Results concerning the second and third null hypotheses also support the rejection of these two hypotheses.

$$Ho_2: G_1 = G_2$$

$$G_2 = G_3$$

The n Achievement for managers in NPGOs is less than that for managers in PGOs, and PGO managers scored less in n Achievement than did private managers.

Other variables investigated with regard to their effects on the n Achievement were age, education, and span of supervision. Of these, only education proved to have a significant effect on the n Achievement.

The interactions of group and age, group and supervision, group and education, age and supervision, age and education were

tested to determine if they had any significant effect on the n Achievement. Only two of these (group-education and age-supervision) did so.

Comparisons of the n Achievement of Libyan managers with managers of other countries support the assumption that there is a difference between public and private managers in favor of the private managers in the case of Italy and Turkey. The findings also show that Libyan managers scored higher than Italians and Turks, but lower than American and Polish managers.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The major purposes of this chapter are to present a brief summary and to draw an overall conclusion. As stated earlier, this study is an investigation of one of the most important motivational factors affecting the performance of managers in both developing and developed economies, namely, the need for achievement. The n Achievement has been accepted as one of the more important factors leading to economic development, as well as being a factor related to the successful performance of business organizations, especially in developing countries where most of the business activities have been undertaken by the government.

This study has been undertaken in order to test the assumptions which have been made concerning the level of the n Achievement among managers in both public and private sectors in Libya. In order to do this, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H₁: Managers in profit-oriented organizations are predicted to have higher n Achievement than those in nonprofit-

oriented organizations in the public sector.

H₂: As far as n Achievement is concerned, it is predicted that there is no difference among managers working in profit-oriented organizations, regardless of whether they are owned by the government or by the private sector.

The study has been divided into five chapters.

In Chapter I, the primary concepts used have been defined and the techniques of data collection have been indicated. The general population and sample size have been discussed, as well as the scoring of the n Achievement tests. And, finally, the research methodology has been stated.

Chapter II provides a fairly detailed presentation of Libyan geography, location, and historical background. Also, the country's population and labor force have been discussed. The final portion of the chapter covers the situation in Libya relative to economic development up to the present time and the governmental stand on economic issues.

Chapter III has been devoted to a review of the literature concerning the findings in the area of the n Achievement and its relation to types of organizations. The chapter also includes a discussion of the relationship between the n Achievement and economic development. The last part of the chapter presents a discussion of how to develop the n Achievement. It has been shown that this can be accomplished in two stages: during the childhood period, and during the adult lifetime.

Chapter IV has been devoted to an analysis of the data used to test the hypotheses regarding the n Achievement in three types of organizations and a comparison of the findings. The following results have been obtained.

The first hypothesis, that is, the n Achievement among private business managers is higher than that among public sector managers, can be stated in null hypothesis form, that is, the n Achievement is equal among all managers regardless of the type of organization for which they work.

$$Ho_1: G_1 = G_2 = G_3$$

The results obtained from an analysis of the data supported the rejection of the above null hypothesis and the conclusion is that the n Achievement is different according to the type of organization.

The null hypothesis that the n Achievement among managers of public organizations is equal, regardless of whether the organization is profit-oriented or nonprofit-oriented has been refuted. It has been proved that the n Achievement among public managers working for profit-oriented organizations is higher than the n Achievement among public managers working for nonprofit government organizations, i.e., $G_1 \neq G_2$.

It has also been proven that the n Achievement among managers of private business organizations is the highest of the three. That is, the n Achievement among

managers working for profit-oriented organizations owned by the private sector have higher n Achievement than those managers working for government organizations which are profit-oriented.

The following n Achievement scores have been obtained. Managers of profit-oriented private organizations have a n Achievement score of 8.28; managers of profit-oriented, government-owned organizations have a score of 6.22; and managers of nonprofit-oriented government organizations have a score of 4.06.

Other variables have been tested to determine their effect, if any, on the n Achievement of managers. These variables are age, education, and span of supervision. Only education proved to have a significant effect on n Achievement. It was found that subjects with college educations or higher degrees have a mean score of 6.4, and subjects with high school educations or less have a mean n Achievement score of 4.88.

The interaction effect of group and age, group and supervision span, group and education, age and supervision, age and education and education has also been tested to determine if these interactions have any significant effect on the n Achievement. The findings showed that only two of these interactions have a significant effect—group and education, and age and supervision.

The last part of Chapter IV presented a comparative analysis of n Achievement scores of Libyan managers and managers in other countries, i.e., the United States, Poland, Italy, and Turkey. The conclusion of this analysis showed that private business managers in developing countries such as Turkey, Italy, and Libya have a mean n Achievement score higher than public sector managers in these countries. Also, the findings showed that Libyan managers in both public and private organizations scored higher than managers in these two sectors in Italy and Turkey. In Turkey, public managers scored 1.68; in Italy, 1.62; and in Libya, 4.22. In the private sector, Libyan managers scored a mean n Achievement score of 8.28; in Italy, 4.18; and in Turkey, 3.87.

When Libyan managers were compared with managers in the United States and Poland, the n Achievement mean score of American managers was found to be little higher than that of Libyan managers (8.9 and 8.28, respectively). On the other hand, managers of public organizations in Libya scored lower than American managers in this sector (American managers scored 9.23 and Libyan managers scored 4.05). Public organization managers in Poland scored higher than Libyan public organization managers—6.58 and 4.05, respectively.

Conclusions

It was assumed at the beginning of this study that the n Achievement of managers in public organizations in developing countries such as Libya is lower than it is among managers in the private sectors of such countries. Some of the reasons for this phenomenon are discussed below.

Jobs of businessmen and entrepreneurs provide them with more opportunities for using their talents than do government jobs, especially those in nonprofit-oriented government organizations.

Managers in business organizations, particularly in the private sector, prefer situations where they have the personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. Otherwise, these managers would receive little personal achievement satisfaction.

Another characteristic of managers with strong achievement motivation is the tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to take calculated risks. This could be done in private business organizations and, to some degree, in government-owned organizations.

Managers with a high n Achievement desire concrete feedback as to how well they are performing. Otherwise, little satisfaction results. Business is almost unique in the amount of feedback provided in the form of sales, cost, production, and profit figures. Furthermore, there is a concreteness in the knowledge of results.

There is another reason for the low n Achievement among public sector managers in developing countries which does not occur in developed countries such as the United States and Poland. That is, American and Polish bureaucratic managers are closer to Weber's ideal type in the sense that they are less concerned with people and, therefore, presumably more guided by impersonal universalistic rules and regulations. On the other hand, bureaucratic managers in developing countries appear to be more concerned with people, with personal alliances, and particularistic interpersonal relationships.

The above discussion also justifies the difference between the n Achievement among private business managers and the n Achievement among managers in government-owned business organizations. The first group showed a higher n Achievement score, although the difference is not as large as it is between private business managers and managers in nonprofit government organizations.

The Libyan government employs the majority of the population, especially in civil work (nonprofit government organizations), and is taking most of the economic activities from the private sector. In addition, the government is launching huge development programs. In view of the above, two considerations should be taken into account.

First, what accounts for the rise in civilization is not the external resources (i.e., markets, minerals,

trade routes, or factories), but the entrepreneurial spirit which exploits these resources—a spirit found most often among businessmen. The ultimate responsibility for the pace of economic growth in developing countries does not rest alone with economic planners or politicians, but also with the executives whose drive (or lack of it) determines whether the goals of the planners will be fulfilled. The government should recognize that the n Achievement is one variable, among others, which is important for economic development.

Second, the n Achievement in the business atmosphere is higher than the n Achievement in non-business organizations. This leads to the argument that economic activities should be left to business organizations or, if possible, government organizations and government activities should be designed in such a way that they provide the same atmosphere or have the same characteristics as business organizations, i.e., challenge, feedback, responsibility, and so forth. To accomplish this, a lot of work and research need to be done.

Concerning the n Achievement among private business managers in Libya, the findings prove that the situation is not bad and is, in fact, much better than that found in the public sector, especially in the non-profit-oriented government organizations. This situation supports the foregoing discussion that the government

should not underestimate the role of the private business in the course of economic development and should reconsider its decision to take over the role of the private enterprise.

The situation in Libya requires that a concentrated effort be made to raise the n Achievement among managers, especially those working for nonprofitoriented government organizations. As stated earlier, this could be accomplished in two ways: during the childhood of future managers, and during the adult period for the existing pool of managers.

This study is unique in the sense that no previous research has been done in this area in Libya. As mentioned earlier, there were limitations which made the study somewhat difficult; however, they do not reduce the importance of the findings. Future efforts should be made to overcome these limitations and to expand the research, especially in the areas of improving the n Achievement among Libyan managers and of overcoming the problems of the public organization that limit n Achievement motivation among managers.

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

ı.	Type of enterprise for which you work: (check one)
	government ministry government-owned corporation privately-owned enterprise
2.	What is your present age? years
3.	Place of birth:
4.	Please complete a short employment history on yourself for all full-time positions you have had (including your present position).
	Type of <u>Position Job Title(s)</u>
	1 to
	2 to
	3 to
	4 to
5.	Approximately how many employees work for your present enterprise? (check one)
	Less than 100 100-200 200-300 300-400 400-500 Over 500

6.	How many persons do you directly supervione)	se? (check
	5 persons or less 6-10 persons 11-15 persons 16-20 persons 21-30 persons Over 31 persons	
7.	What is your annual income from your pre (salaries, fringe benefits, etc.)?	esent job
	Less than LD 2000 LD 2000-3000 LD 3000-4000 LD 4000-5000 LD 5000-6000 LD 6000-7000 LD 7000-8000 Over LD 8000	
8.	How much formal education do you have?	(check one)
	No formal education Less than high school Some high school High school graduate Some college College graduate Graduate school	
9.	From what college did you graduate?	
	College	Degree
10.	Where did you pursue graduate study?	
	College Country	Degree

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 المناسب) .

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- ... من ٦ الى ١٠ السخاص
- ــ من ۱۱ الي ۱۵ شـخص
- ـــ اكثير مين ١٥ شيخص

۷ سس ما هو اجمالي ما التقاضاه من عملك الحالي (نسبع علامة / السام
 الكان المناسب) .

- ــ اقسل من ۲۰۰ دبنسار
- ــ من ۲۰۱ الی ۳۰۰ دینار
- ــ من ۲۰۱ الى ٠٠) دينار
- سد من ٤٠١ الى ٥٠٠ دينار
- ــ من ٥٠١ الى ٦٠٠ دينار
 - ــ اکشـر من ۲۰۱ دینسار

٨ ــ ما هو مستواك التمليمي المعالى .

- حد لا احمل شهادة تعليمية
- -- أقل من الشبهادة الثانوية
 - بعض التعليم الجامعي
- ــ الشهانة الجامعية الاولى

دراسيات طيسيا

- ــ ماجستير -
- ـــ دکتــوراة
- ــ شهادات اخری

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البلد التي بها الجامعة:
نوع الشهادة:
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اسم الجامعة :
البلتد:
الدرجة الجامعية:

APPENDIX B

THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST

Instructions

On the following pages, you are to write some brief stories that you will make up. To help you, there are a series of pictures for you to look at and build your stories around. After reading these instructions, look at each picture and write a story suggested by it. To help you cover all the elements of each story in the time allowed, there are four questions following each picture.

As the time allowed for each picture is five minutes, plan to spend only about a minute on each set of questions. Remember, the questions are only guides and do not need to be answered specifically. The story should be continuous, not a set of answers to questions.

There are no right or wrong kinds of stories to write. Here, you have a chance to show how you think on your own, how quickly you can imagine a situation and write a story regarding it. The pictures are vague and suggestive of many things on purpose. Don't try to figure out exactly what is going on in the pictures.

After reading these instructions carefully, look at each picture briefly and write the story suggested to you by the picture. Try to make your stories interesting and dramatic. Show that you have an understanding of human nature and can make up interesting stories about people and human relationships.

تمليمات صامة

فيما يلى مجموعة من الصور والمطلوب أن تكتب قصة عما يدور في كل صورة بشيء من الاختصار .

ولمساعدتك في كتابة كل قصة تجد أربعة أسئلة بعد كل صورة والمقصود من الاسئلة هو استخدامها كوسيلة مساعدة وليس التقيد بها .

وليس المطلوب استنباط ما يحدث بالضبط في الصورة الا أن المسورة تمثل موقف عام يمكنك أن تستنتج منه أكثر من قصة ولذلك ليس مناك أي قصة معينة أو قصة صحيحة أو قصة خاطئة ، وأنما المسورة تتيح لك حربة التفكير واستخدام تخيلك الخاص ، ولذلك عليك أن تكتب ما تراه أنت أو تعتقد أنه يجرى في هذه الصورة .

اذا انتهيت من القصة في الزمن المحدد أو اذا أنتهى الوقت المحدد لها ، يرجى أن تنتقل الى القصة في الصورة التي تلبها حتى ولو لم تنتهى من القصة التي أمامك ويمكنك التكلملة بعد الانتهاء من جميع القصص في كل الصور .

ليس المطلوب استنباط ما يحدث بالضبط في الصورة اذ أن المسودة اذا لم يكف الفراغ الموجود بعد كل مسورة يمكنك استخدام ورقب خارجية مع اعطاء رقم السبؤال أو العسورة .



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2. What has led to this situation? That is, what has happened in the past?

3. What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom?

4. What will happen? What will be done?

When you have finished your story or your time is up, turn to the next picture. If you haven't quite finished, go on anyway. You may return at the end to complete this story.

الوقت المحدد لكل قصة عن كل صورة هو خمس دقائق فقط .

(1) ماذا يجرى في هذا الوقف أو هذه الصورة 1 وما هي صفة الأشخاص الذين في الصبورة 1

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Work	rapidly.	Don't	spend	over	5	minutes	on	this	story.
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2. What has led to this situation? That is, what has happened in the past?

3. What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom?

4. What will happen? What will be done?

When you have finished your story or your time is up, turn to the next picture. If you haven't quite finished, go on anyway. You may return at the end to complete this story.

الوقت المعد لكل قصة عن كل صورة هو خمس دقائق فقط ،

(1) ماذا يجرى في هذا الموقف أو هذه الصورة 1 وما هي صفة الاشتخاص الذين في الصنورة 1

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2. What has led to this situation? That is, what has happened in the past?

3. What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom?

4. What will happen? What will be done?

When you have finished your story or your time is up, turn to the next picture. If you haven't quite finished, go on anyway. You may return at the end to complete this story.

الوقت المعدد لكل قصة عن كل صورة هو خمس دقائق فقط. •

ـ أو هذه الصورة } وما هي صفة الاشخاص	ر) الدين في المستورة 1 الذين في المستورة 1
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2. What has led to this situation? That is, what has happened in the past?

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(١) ما هي الاسبياب التي ادت إلى هما الموقف؟ أي ماذا حدث قبيل الوقف؟

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(١) ماذا بجرئ في علم الوغف أو علمه الصورة ؟ وما هي صفة الاشخاص اللين في الصسورة ؟
الوقت المعدد لكل فصة عن كل صورة هو خصى دفائق فعد .

(٣) ما هي الأفكار الرئيسية في هذا الموقف؟ ما هو المطلوب ومن هو طالب؟
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(}) ماذا تمتقد سيحدث 1 وما هي الأجراءات التي ستتخذ 1
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APPENDIX C
N ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

(Among Managers in Nonprofit Government Organizations)

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Subj.	Story)	}	ì		+]) .		ĺ				Th	n Ach
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43	1			•													2
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Ĺ	3		<u> </u>														0
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Total			0	8		1]	3						1		8
44	1		<u> </u>														-1
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45	1			<u> </u>		Ì	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>					<u> </u>			0
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Total		-2	0	1	<u> </u>			<u> </u>									-1
46	1		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u></u>		<u> </u>	ļ				2
ì	2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>							0
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·	4		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> • </u>		<u> </u>						<u> </u>				3
Total		-1	0	2	1	1_	ļ		1	ļ			ļ	ļ			4
47	1	<u> </u>				<u> </u>	<u> </u>	i		<u> </u>							0
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48	1								•		•				•		6
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50	1	<u> </u>	 	•	<u> </u>			1									1
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51	1			1.	•			I^{-}								*	4
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52	1						1										-1
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58	11																-1
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Total		-1	0	<u> </u>	·		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>								-1
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60	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		 		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>					-1
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Subj.	Story	0_			"		+		55.	52		-		~	_ "	Th	n Ach
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64	1_																1
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67	1		 •	↓ _	}	<u> </u>	L	 	ļ <u> </u>								0
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(Among Managers in Profit-Oriented Publicly-Owned Organizations)

Subj.	Story	UI	TI	AI	N		1		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach	- 4-1
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Total		-2		2	1							<u> </u>					1
21	1			•													1
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Total		-2	0	1													-1
22	1)														3
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Total		-1		3			2	1	1								6
23	i										<u> </u>						1
ŗ	2		1			•			•	1							3
Ī	3				1			1		-		1 .					2
Ţ	4	•	†		 							1					-1
Total	· ·	-1	1	3	┪	1	1	1	1		1	1	 	1	-	 -	- 5
24	1		 	 	 	<u> </u>		1	 			 	·	 	 		3
<u>}</u>	2		 	 	١.	 .	 	 	 	 	 	 		 	 	 	5
<u> </u>	3		 	 	 	 	 	 	 		 -	 	-	t	 -		5
<u> </u>	4		 	+:-	۱ ۰	۲Ť	1-	├	 	-	 -	 .	 		 -		4
Total		 	+	4	2	2	\vdash	┼	2	2	 	1	3	1		 	17

		UI	TI	AI	N		1		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach	
Subj.	Story	,			'	1	+				!			•		Th	n Ach
No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?	-	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Score
25	ı							T				<u> </u>					2
	2			•	1	•		†					-				3
Ť	3						 -	 	 			-					0
Ĭ	4					<u> </u>		 					 				-1
Total		-1	0	2		2		 		1			 				4
26	1			•			•		1				 			-	3
Ī	2]	٠,		•					-	<u> </u>				· · · · · ·	5
Ī	3	•		1									<u> </u>				-1
Ì	4		1	•		•					ļ						2
Total		-1		3	2	2	1		1		1					·	9
27	1				1					•							2
	2		•		T								<u> </u>				0
	3											•			•		4
	4				•	•									•		4
Total			0	3	1	2				1		1			2		10
28	1		T	•.							•						5
[2		ł														1
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Total			Ì	4	2	1				1] 1	1					11
29	1	I		•			Ι	I		I							3
	2																-1
	3		I														2
[4				<u>. </u>	I	I	I									-1
Total		-2		2	<u> </u>	1	Ι		1		1			1			3
30	1			_ -	·												3
	2	1		<u> </u>													1
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Total				4	2	1			I		1				1		10

		וט	TI	AI	N		1		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach	
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No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?	_	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Score
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Ī	_ 3			•	,					1	 			•			2
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Total		-2		2				L						1			1
32	1			}													2
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Total			0	2	$\overline{1}$	1			2					1			7
33	1					•					[5
[2			<u>. </u>		•											4
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Total				4	3	3			3	1		1			3		18
34	11		L	•													4
ĺ	2			<u> </u>		•			•								4
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35	l	<u> </u>						L_				<u> </u>					2
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ļ	3	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>			<u>l </u>				<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			3
	4	<u> </u>		•	<u> </u>	·			•		<u> </u>	1				•	6
Total				4	3	1			3			<u>l</u>					13
36	1			•	<u> </u>												2
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Total				4							1		1				5

		UI	TI	IA	N		1		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach	_
Subj.	Story	ļ	1	1		1	+					ļ	1	-		Th	n Ach
No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?		+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Score
37	1		<u> </u>								•						4
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Ĺ	3			•			Γ					-				_	3
[4	<u> </u>			•												3
Total			Ī	4	1	2			3	1	1		1		1		14
38	1					•			•				•				4
	2								•		Ĺ						3
	3								•				•				3
[4								•						•		4
Total				4		3			4				2		1		14
39	1										•						3
[2			•		•											4
	3				\prod												3
[4]	•											2
Total				4		3			3		1		1				12
40	1	•															-1
	2							T_					1	1			0
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[4			\mathbf{L}_{-}													-1
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41	1				\Box											•	4
[2			•		•									•	•	4
[3			•	Ι		•										3
[4				•				•								3
Total				4	2	1	1	I	2	1				1	1	2	14
42	1	•	1	1	T	-			<u> </u>		<u> </u>						-1
	2				T								T -				0
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	4	I		1.	T	1			1		1			<u> </u>	T		1
Total		-2	0	1	 	,	1	T			1	 	1	1	1		-1

		UI	TI	AI	N	<u> </u>	1		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach	
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No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?	_	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	_+1	Score
43	1																0
	2															•	4
	3			•						•							5
	4	•															-1
Total		-1	0	2		1	1			1					2	2	8
44	1			•		•					•		•			٠	6
	2			•	•							-					3
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[4	·						T									-1
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45	1	•						1	-								-1
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Total		-1		3	1	1						<u> </u>	T :-		1	1	5
46	1	•		1	1	1		1			 	 			_		-1
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47	1							1									1
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Total		1	ō	3	1	t	t	†	1		 	 		 	 	1	6

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Subj.	Story]]] ;		+		İ				1			Th	n Ach
No.	No.	1	0_	+1	+1	+	?	-	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Score
49	1			T.		•		}		•				•			6
Γ	2						•										4
	3														•		3
	4				•												3
Total				4	2	1	1		2	2				2	1	1	16
50	1				•								<u> </u>			•	4
Γ	2					•					•						3
	3			•													3
	4			T -		•											2
Total				4	1	2					1		1	1	1	1	12
51	i			·	T .			1									2
Ţ	2			1					1								0
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	4	•		1				1									-1
Total		-1	0	2	1		_	T									2
52	1	•															-1
Γ	2		· ·					1									0
[3	•						1									-1
	4			•	1	•		1	1								3
Total		-2	0	1	1	1											1
53	1			•													4
[2	[T			\Box									4
	3														•	•	3
[4			•													2
Total			T	4	2	1	T	1	2			T			1	2	13
54	<u> </u>	•		T				1	<u> </u>			1		1			-1
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ſ	3				•				1			1		<u> </u>			2
	4		<u> </u>		1		Ι	1-	†	1	1		T	1	1		1
Total		-1	0	2	1		1	1	1			 	1	 	1	<u> </u>	2

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Subj.	Story	1	1	}			+		1		}	!	-	•		Th	n Ach
No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?	-	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	_+1	Score
55	1							Ι								•	4
[2		[_				2
	3			•													2
	4	•		<u> </u>													-1
Total 56		-1		3	1	1		<u> </u>							1	2	7
56	1	•	<u> </u>	<u> </u>				<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>		[<u> </u>			-1
	2		<u> </u>	<u> </u>				<u> </u>									0
ĺ	3		<u> </u>	<u> </u>				<u> </u>	<u>i </u>								0
ļ	4			·	ļ				<u> </u>								1
Total		-1	0	1	<u> </u>			<u> </u>	<u> </u>								0
57	1	<u></u>			<u> • • • • • • • • • •</u>			<u> </u>		<u> </u>							4
	2		<u> </u>	-				<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>		<u> </u>		•	3
	3		<u> </u>	<u> </u>		•			<u> </u>								2
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Total		<u> </u>	ļ	4	1	1		<u> </u>	1	1					1	2	11
58	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	ļ					<u> </u>	<u> </u>						<u>-1</u>
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Total		-1	0	2	1	1		ــــــ	<u> </u>						1	1	5
59	1			<u> </u>	ļ		<u> </u>	↓	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		ļ				2
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Total			0	3	1	2		<u> </u>	<u> </u>		.		ļ]			6
60	1		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>		↓		<u> </u>	•		·			4
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(Among Managers in Private Business Organizations)

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Total				4		3	-		4		2		2		1		16
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Total				4	2	2_	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	3			<u> </u>	1	1		L	13
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Total		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4		2	<u>l . "</u>		2		1		2				11

Subj.	Story	וט	TI	AI	N		1 + ?	_	Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach Th	n Ach
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Total		-1	0	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>	1		<u> </u>			<u> </u>		1
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Subj.	Story	UI	TI	AI	N		1 +		Ga+	Ga-	G+	G-	Nup	Вр	Bw	Ach Th	n Ach
No.	No.	-1	0	+1	+1	+	?	_	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Score
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  <u>Arab Report and Record, Africa Confidential</u>, and
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#### VITA

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On August 21, 1970, Saddeg M. Busniena married the former Najmia Imhemad Abubeida of Benghazi, Libya.

Their first child, Nahla, was born on September 18, 1971, and their second, Nadia, was born on November 14, 1974.

Upon completion of the Ph.D. requirements and after graduation from Louisiana State University at the Spring Commencement, Mr. Busniena will resume his teaching career as a full-time staff member in the College of Economics and Commerce at the University of Benghazi.