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New insights and trends in undergraduate research: evidence from Jordan

This special issue of Middle East Journal of Business aims to increase the visibility of an often-denied area of research, specifically the production of knowledge that comes from bachelor theses. Most of the times, these contributions are carried out under time constraints and with limited access to large databases and budgets, thus rarely such research represents a completely autonomous contribution, as for the standards of the international community.

However, this condition is simultaneously the weakness and the strength of this kind of research that possesses “seeds” to become a fully-flag contribution:

i) The scientific focus of such research is often very specific, in relation to the time constraints condition;
ii) Due to the limited access to secondary data from database, the source of the data analyzed is primarily collected “on field” and thus specifically for the research design;
iii) The research problem is addressed in local settings due to a limited budget employable for the data collection. However, such condition is particularly interesting since it can integrate mainstream framework and literature with “singularities” of specific contexts thus expanding the knowledge of the phenomenon in a global perspective.

Indeed, this is the case of this special issue. Specifically, the authors of the papers are new graduated students of a private University, Princess Sumaya University for Technology (PSUT) that operates in the capital Amman of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. The university, although the small dimensions in terms of student numbers but with a stable positive trend over the years, has reached a considerable position in national and international ranking. For example, considered as a whole: it scored among the top three for teaching quality in the national public assessment of 2015, first in Engineering and Computer Science and third in Business, it has been awarded with the most prestigious international certifications e.g. ABET accreditation, it participated and won many European projects within the FP7 and the Tempus/ASPIRE programs. Quite recently, only six years ago, the university trustee board decided to open the King Talal Business School titled after his late Majesty. The School despite its young age has grown exponentially and has been accepted in the process for the accreditation with the AACSB, first of its kind across Jordan.

This special issue is the result of a two-year work (academic years 2013/2014 and 2014/2015) with undergraduate students in such Business School. Many initiatives, directly managed by these editors aimed to stimulate and to boost the quality of the theses and improving the experience of the students. Beyond the regular weekly appointments, an integrative non-mandatory course has been provided for all the undergraduate students, addressing different problems of the test, such as the general approach to researching, different methodologies for literature review, qualitative and quantitative methods and formal lessons for academic writing. Thus, in this light, this special issue has been created. All the contributions are originally based on undergraduate theses of the Business School selected among the best and most original. The authors re-elaborated and integrated their original contributions before the review process and then submitted them to the special issue. After the final selection, only five contributions met the international standards of a scientific publication and so they have been accepted in this special issue. As premised, the whole set of contributions is very focused, based on primary data and give evidence of the national context of the Kingdom of Jordan, enriching the debate in the Middle East and MENA centered studies as well as the general audience.

Talking about the single contributions, the first one (Ozgul, Sahouri, Rantissi and Bishouti) is focused on understanding how characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs in two incubators may affect their decision-making processes. Based on a consistent sample of surveyed entrepreneurs, the authors show the validity (non-validity) of several hypotheses including some about differences occurring on a gender-base. The second contribution (Tuguz, Samra and Almallah) still inquires the process of the decision-making but particularly addressing the problem of the style of conflict adopted. The authors linked the three dimensions of cultural intelligence (CQ) to the possible conflict style adopted, thanks to a multiple regression method. The evidence, that confirms the role of the CQ in the preference regarding adopting a particular style of conflict, open up for further debate about cultural issues in Jordan and in the Middle East especially for a better business interaction. The third contribution (Khala, Nakhalah and Sara) addresses a consistent social problem of Jordan that is the female workforce. The work using a qualitative approach and re-eliciting from in-depth interviews with female workers, gives a clear account of internal and external motivations to work or not work. The results clearly indicate that the external factors, tied to the cultural, political, legal and economic environment, play a significant role in rearing women from being fully engaged in and stably part of the workforce. The fourth contribution (Kilani, Al Junidi and Al Riziq) tackles upon another very sensitive problem: the effect of the Wasta, translated as nepotism or in a more general sense favoritism, on relations within the private sector and organizations. According to the results of the study, the Wasta phenomenon is indeed widespread in the organizations surveyed and in the whole “Arab world.” This practice is so embedded in the culture and in the business reality that apart from a formal personal blaming, most of managers and CEOs do not take strong corrective actions against it. Nevertheless, this phenomenon contributed most of the time to an uprising of conflicts and problems within the organization at different levels. Finally, the last contribution (Nimri, Bdair, Al Bitar) inquires the public sector employees and their motivations to work. The Public Sector in Jordan is one pillar of the whole economy and it has recently been reformed toward a more meritocratic system. Applying the Expectancy theory on a sample of more than two hundred employees, the study shows that the intrinsic motivation, thus motivations not tied to the merit, still play a major role in determining the behaviors of the public employees.

We considered this special issue a “fresh” and punctual picture of the actual situation in different aspects of the business world in Jordan. In addition, as premised, we hope to encourage similar initiatives to increase the awareness of the research performed but young scholars that in the future may fully join the Academic community. With such a wish and with the congratulations to the authors for their hard work to achieve this publication, we conclude our brief introduction to this issue.

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Entrepreneurial Characteristics and Decision Making: Evidence from Jordan

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Afram Ibrahim Ozgul

Abstract

The aim of this research is to investigate the effect of several factors such as cognitive biases, anchoring, demographic factors, personality traits, environmental factors and self assessment on the quality of entrepreneurial decision making and to raise awareness about the entrepreneurial aspects in the people’s mind. This study was based on owners of Jordan entrepreneurial companies incubated in Oasis500 and IPark.

Introduction

The Jordanian markets are limited because of the small size of the different types of businesses in the Public and Private sectors and because the financial resources are very limited, in addition to the strong competition between the many suppliers or providers of similar products and services. All the above make it very difficult for new ideas to be part of the economy in Jordan. The economy in Jordan is being affected by all the political issues surrounded by it such as conflicts in Syria and occupation in Palestine and so on.

Jordan faces some difficulties in exporting products to the regional markets and has a very high rate of taxes. The economy is a major issue when it comes to entrepreneurs starting their own business. “Now according to Adam Smith - the Scottish economist and philosopher considered to be the father of political economy - the free economy is based on the system of natural freedom in which people act according to their own rules (Ramona, 2011).”

Entrepreneurs mostly work towards gaining their income rates or for becoming rich, but each entrepreneur has a different perspective and different goals (Markova, 2010). Each one is willing to satisfy his/her needs and desires and mostly for a very good reason. They are also doing a favor to their society by using new ideas if a product or service serves a necessity and solves a problem, people will use it and it will have a positive effect on the community.”If people are allowed to use their own resources they will work in order to get rich and therefore the society will get rich as well, this is because the natural desire of the individual is to improve their life standards, consequently to the development of the society (Ramona, 2011).”

If entrepreneurs are not willing to take risks, they might never succeed. Risk takers are the ones who find new opportunities, the economy is based on opportunities and on taking risks “Throughout time the economy has known many phases, the present one being the ‘new economy’. The main objective of the ‘new economy’ is not the individual as quantity but the individual as quality. In the ‘new economy’ people work with
their brain instead of their hands (Zarofshani, 2011).” “When we talk about the 'new economy' we are talking about a revolution it is considered to be the third major economic revolution this is according to Alexandrova he considered the first economic revolution which he titled with the name industrial revolution, whose core was the mechanization of labor, it was characterized by replacing the work of people with the work of certain machines. The second economic revolution was focused on the Automation of the production process, but with new technologies, had resulted in scientific development and have offered solutions for a better organization of the production process. “The reason why entrepreneurs fit so perfectly in the ‘new economy’ is because entrepreneurs have characteristics which makes them adaptable to the ‘new economy’ and these characteristics are that they are risk takers, they adapt immediately to changes that take place in the economy and this is by being creative and innovative’(Ramona, 2011).

Each citizen who lives in Jordan has a chance of becoming an entrepreneur that depends on a variety of factors. If the entrepreneur doesn't have very good financial resources they might fail or at least they won't widen their business and they won't stay for a very long period in the market. “Businesses with weak sales or poor prospects are more likely to cut back rather than expand their business, thereby reducing demand for credit (Geho, 2013). When the start-up companies begin growing in Jordan they face some obstacles in gaining their economic growth. This is because Jordan is somehow in the recession phase so it might be difficult to reach maximum economic growth.

It is commonly known that "Start-ups are important for economic growth. However, start-up rates differ significantly between countries and within regions of the same countries (Naude, 2009).” "Entrepreneurs work and initiate their new ideas in many different countries, in different regions and under different situations. "Entrepreneurship is linked to the levels of economic development as well as the cultural structures. The way entrepreneurs behave is directly connected to the cultural behavior, accepted practices in one country maybe not acceptable by other cultures in different counties. In business success is generally indicates to a firm's financial performance. It can also be defined from tangible (objective) points of view such as revenue or firm's growth, personal wealth creation, profitability, turnover (Chowdhury, 2013).”

**Literature review**

Entrepreneurship has been defined as managerial behavior which consistently exploits opportunities to deliver results beyond one's own capabilities (Thompson, 1999). It needs enterprising people, who are agents of change but maybe not entrepreneurs in a strict sense. An entrepreneur is someone with a vision who spots a new opportunity and is minded to act on it and start something.

An entrepreneur is a person who can detect new business opportunities, and create a new business with new creative ideas (Baltar, 2014). He will do his best to get enough resources to start a new firm. He has the ability and ambition to improve his new idea or invention to make it a successful innovation. He should also be able to manage and organize his business venture. He is ready to challenge and face all the risks and failures, in order to be successful and generate profit. You can find entrepreneurs in many fields of life; entrepreneurship is more than just a small business manager or owner. Entrepreneurs are individuals who make a difference, they are people with a clear vision, ready to make a difference and create something new (Lahti, 2011). They know exactly how to deal with new opportunities, risks and uncertainties to ‘creatively create’ new services, products and organizations. They can also find new methods for doing business or ensure the customer's satisfaction.

Entrepreneurs usually use their instinct to analyze and understand the market and its needs and try their best to satisfy them (Barnes, 1984). They do their work with enthusiasm and passion to achieve their goals. So, they usually come up with new creative inventions and solutions that will solve many problems or create new opportunities, and they do their best to convince the investors and the people around them to adopt and use their ideas or inventions, so that they can create demand for their products, which will on the long run create new opportunities and open new doors which will enhance the economy and create new job opportunities.

Decision-making processes describe the common human tendency when making decisions. Entrepreneurs also should get all the needed information to make a certain judgment. This helps the entrepreneurs to have a clearer and sufficient view of the market and its needs and with that they can build their plan. Of course, as humans, they might fall in a decision making trap or judgmental bias (Hammond, 1998).

Most entrepreneurs make their judgment from decisional shortcuts and use it to come up with good solutions most of the time (Lorenge, 2008). For example, when they interview an applicant, they base their decision upon the first impression disregarding the impressive resume given by the applicant. This explains how entrepreneurs go for decisional shortcuts to find efficient solutions in order to spare time and effort.

1. **Entrepreneurial opportunity**

An entrepreneurial opportunity exists whenever there is a need, want, problem or challenge that can be addressed, solved and or satisfied in an innovative way.

(http://www.cedsvg.com/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=WV%2FoEgx2JNQ%3D&tabid=75&mid=565)

**Entrepreneurial idea**

It is a specific, new way to satisfy a need or want, overcome a problem or meet a challenge.

(http://www.cedsvg.com/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=WV%2FoEgx2JNQ%3D&tabid=75&mid=565)
The diagram above (Thompson, 1999) shows the Entrepreneurship process. It is based on three main factors that complement each other: opportunity, resources and team. All the three factors should be present and reliable to have a successful entrepreneurship. When the entrepreneur finds the opportunity, he should use his communication skills to get the resources, and when he gets the opportunity and the resources he should use his leadership skills and creativity to build and manage his team. Constrained by resource limitations, especially finance, entrepreneurs use creativity, social networking and bargaining to obtain favors, deals and action (Thompson, 1999). But this process is affected by many external factors: ambiguity, uncertainty, exogenous forces and capital market context. The entrepreneur should be aware of each factor and know how to deal with it to become a successful entrepreneur (Schumpeter, 2000). This process should be implemented using a well-designed business plan to manage and fill all the gaps between all the three main factors. It’s recommended that the business plan should be implemented, monitored and controlled by a specialized manager, not the entrepreneur himself.

**Anchoring**

“Anchoring and bias are interrelated and depend on each other; therefore, entrepreneurs must take them into consideration while putting their study plan. “A bias can be defined as the human tendency to make systematic errors in certain circumstances based on cognitive factors rather than evidence (Caputo, 2013).” A biased managerial decision-making process can affect a wide range of decisions and environments, such as groups (Caputo, 2014). For example, it could distort beliefs affect estimates or valuations and increase the reliability on subjective approach (Ramadani, 2009).”

By that we come to the conclusion that the entrepreneurs must focus on cognitive bias and a biased managerial decision making process as it allows them to have a more balanced view and helps them also in their researches to take into consideration some major factors such as: size of the market, people’s needs and interests and the estimated life period of the project.

**Education**

Education is dynamically changing with time therefore new theories appear, so entrepreneurs are using the chronologically based approach education. “That is, business entry has become one of the most broadly addressed entrepreneurial subjects in current curricula (Elmuti, 2011).”

People who want to be entrepreneurs and have the ability to start up their own business are important. Those people may be the new leaders, innovators, problem solvers needed to improve the Jordan community. Starting from schools to universities, entrepreneurial lectures should be given in order to develop the way they think, and burnish their ideas, potential, abilities and talents in order to be the chosen ones to make

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**Figure 1: Entrepreneurship process**

![Entrepreneurship process diagram](image-url)
a brighter future for their own benefit and the benefit of their community. Entrepreneurship education on the other hand, refers to a collection of formalized teachings that inform, train and educate learners who are interested in setting up a business. “Entrepreneurship education assigned as skills that the person can learn and the characteristics that can be assured to authorize the person to develop and create plans” (Ramayah, 2012), and to start up a new business.

Education for entrepreneurship means improving formal knowledge and skills, such as the willingness to take risk, self confidence, creativity, the ability to see the possible outcomes of a decision, and the willingness to come up with modern solutions that can totally develop entrepreneurial conduct and attitude (taken from “Forging New Technology Entrepreneurs in the MENA Region through Education, By: Laith Kassis”). These acquired skills and qualities will be useful when running a company and will have a positive effect on the environment as a whole. Entrepreneurial culture is crucial for encouraging entrepreneurs in commencing high growth businesses. The cultural belief of failure has to be ironed out, a person must learn from his own mistakes, it is necessary to fail at least twice in order to have a better understanding the third time. An entrepreneur has to know how to deal with failure and how to proceed in order to not make the same mistake twice. The general consensus is that entrepreneurship education has a substantial contribution to the culture of a nation. Entrepreneurship education should explain topics such as venture capital, innovation, business plan writing, marketing, financing, and so on. It is of paramount importance to develop the competency and the entrepreneurial zeal of the students, as well as to teach them soft skills in order to help them identify opportunities. Students should also be prepared in order to know how to deal with uncertainty in developing a business, obtaining financing and having social responsibilities (Hansen, 2011). The use of guest speakers or competitions in which they have to complete business plans are recommended. The aim of these activities is to narrow the gap between theory and practice, in order to create a fun and rewarding learning experience. Those activities can be stimulated by the beneficial method of ‘think, tell, and sell’ in order to make participants think how to act in imperfect information cases and high risk scenarios. Simulations and interviews with entrepreneurs can be helpful in order to make participants consider entrepreneurship as a career choice. This kind of learning should include different scenarios, cases, written role plays and video and live formats. There are a lot of people who don’t learn in school proper practices like soft skills, team work, implementing decisions in real work situations, collaboration and cooperation (Kolabi, 2012). That’s why when students graduate, they need to go again through a learning process provided by the companies, in order to successfully work there. This learning process may be too short or insufficient for the employee.

Theoretical Framework

We based our research on this Theoretical Framework, which summarizes research study aspects.

There are many factors that define an entrepreneur, such as personality characteristics, self confidence, risk taking, desire to work, work orientation, creativity and innovation, biases and judgmental biases in decision making like anchoring. There are also economic factors that contribute to the success of a start-up, such as economic strength, level of economic certainty, the opportunity of making good wealth. The education factors are the level of education in general, entrepreneurship in education centers, lectures and training about entrepreneurs for
scholars and employees, working in teams, the teacher’s role, the tools used, motivation theories that can perfectly be helpful for both entrepreneurs and the employees that can work with start-up companies. There are also external factors like government regulations, incubators, business angels, cultural believes in Jordan. Identifying how these factors affect the decisions the entrepreneurs take is the reasoning for our research.

**Methodology**

In this paper we are aiming to investigate the effect of several factors such as cognitive biases, anchoring, demographic factors, personality traits, environmental factors and self-assessment on the quality of the entrepreneurial decision making.

We briefly state our hypothesis, which have been derived from the literature review.

We interviewed two organizations, which are Oasisi500 and IPark. Oasisi500 is a leading and seeding investing company that has a population of 60 incubated entrepreneurs and IPark which is an incubation organization that has a population of 28 incubated start-up companies. The participants of both organizations were informed that they will be interviewed to fill in surveys. From Oasisi500 a sample of 20 surveys were filled by entrepreneurs by interviewing them, and from IPark a sample of 10 entrepreneurs were interviewed to fill the survey.

A total of 90 surveys were distributed, we had two surveys: the main survey was about the entrepreneurs it was a total of 30 surveys and interviews that aimed to investigate the demographic factors, personality traits, environmental factors, self-assessment and anchoring on the quality of entrepreneurial decision making. A total of 60 surveys were distributed to scholars in Jordanian universities in order to investigate the awareness of entrepreneurship and if they are acknowledge in becoming a future entrepreneurs.

There are a total of 97 questions in both surveys, 77 in the entrepreneurial survey and they were categorized like this: demographic questions, personality questions, environmental

<table>
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<th>Table 1: Hypothesis</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Null Hypothesis</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>H1 Male entrepreneurs have higher self assessment than female entrepreneurs.</td>
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<td>H2 Males get affected by anchoring more than females.</td>
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<td>H3 Entrepreneurs who have bachelor degrees have higher self assessment than the entrepreneurs who have a master degree.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H4 Entrepreneurs that have a Bachelor degree get affected by anchoring more than master degree holders.</td>
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<td>H5 The entrepreneurs less than 30 years old have higher self-assessment than the entrepreneurs more than 30 years old.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H6 The entrepreneurs less than 30 years old get affected by anchoring more than the entrepreneurs more than 30 years old.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H7 The economy helps entrepreneurs to succeed.</td>
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<td>H8 Financial capital helps entrepreneurs to succeed.</td>
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<td>H9 Bureaucracy, Regulations, Politics, and National security help the entrepreneurs to succeed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H10 Market uncertainty helps entrepreneurs to succeed.</td>
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<td>H11 Funding and financial resources help entrepreneurs to succeed.</td>
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factors and challenges, what influenced me to become an entrepreneur, decision making, entrepreneurial self assessment, and anchoring. The 20 questions in the student's survey indicated the awareness of the understanding of entrepreneurship.

In our research we used several techniques when collecting and analyzing data.

We used surveys and interviews. We used two surveys: the basic one for the entrepreneurs which measures their characteristic, their decision making and the internal and external factors that affect their start-ups. The second survey was distributed for university students, which measures the students' awareness toward the entrepreneurial concept and their willingness to be involved in the entrepreneurial field to see if there is a relationship between students' awareness and entrepreneurial challenges. After collecting the data we need, we analyzed those data using Microsoft Office Excel, SPSS and Google docs.

We used Microsoft Office Excel for representing results as graphs for descriptive analysis. From entrepreneurial survey were as follow, demographic questions, influences for becoming an entrepreneur, decision making and challenges.

We used SPSS statistical program for measuring entrepreneurial self assessment and anchoring. The results for anchoring ranged between 0 and 1, when 0 was perfect anchoring and 1 stands for no anchoring.

We used Google Docs for descriptive data and for building and filling the survey, either by interviews or online.

Results

The analysis of this research includes owners of Jordanian entrepreneurial companies. The sample was selected from two of the Jordanian leading incubation, investing and seeding companies: IPark and Oasis500. All of the entrepreneurs available in these companies were selected in the sample: 80% of the surveys were filled by interviewing the entrepreneurs face to face.

A total of 30 surveys were distributed to owner managers of the entrepreneurial companies, because they have enough knowledge about the overall situation, performance, processes and goals of their entrepreneurial companies.

Figures 3 to 9 show the main demographic characteristics of the survey sample.

Figure 3: Age group

In terms of age, entrepreneurs were categorized into 3 age groups (20-30, 31-40, above 40). As the data in the pie chart shows, most of the entrepreneurs were in the age group 31-40, after that 20-30, and a low number of people were above 40.
In terms of gender, as the data in the pie chart above (Figure 4) shows, most of the entrepreneurs we interviewed were male (63%) and (37%) females.

Regarding marital status, as the data in the pie chart above (Figure 5) shows, most of the entrepreneurs were single (70%) and only (30%) married.
In terms of Education, as the data in the pie chart (Figure 6) shows, most of the entrepreneurs have bachelor degree (87%), (13%) have master degree and none of them (0%) have PHD.

As the data in the pie chart (Figure 7) shows, 73% of the entrepreneurs speak 2 languages (Arabic and English) and 27% speak 3 languages (Arabic English and French). None of them 0% speak only one language.

In terms of working experience, entrepreneurs were categorized according to the years of working experience into 3 groups (1-9 years, 10-20 years, over 20 years).

As the data in the pie chart (Figure 8) shows, most of the entrepreneurs (50%) have less than 10 years of working experience (1-9), after that 40% have 10-20 years of working experience, and only 10% have more than 20 years of working experience.
When the entrepreneurs were asked if they currently have another job, 13% answered yes, but the majority 87% answered no, as shown in the pie chart (Figure 9).

When the entrepreneurs were asked when they reached the break-even point and a positive cash flow, the majority 76% said that they didn't reach break-even point or positive cash flow yet. 14% said that they reached the break-even point and received positive cash flow in the first 10 months and only 10% said that they reached break-even point and received positive cash flow in 11-21 months after starting their business, as shown in the pie chart (Figure 10).

In this section we asked about financial capital, as figure 11 shows. 28% answered strongly agree, 28% answered agree, 28% answered neutral, 14% disagree and only 3% strongly disagree.
In this section we asked about unstable economy, as Figure 12 shows. 10% answered strongly agree, 41% answered agree, 7% answered neutral, 14% disagree and 28% strongly disagree.

In this section we asked about bureaucracy, as Figure 13 shows. 10% answered strongly agree, 21% answered agree, 45% answered neutral, 21% disagree and 3% strongly disagree.

In this section we asked about politics, as Figure 14 shows. 7% answered strongly agree, 14% answered agree, 45% answered neutral, 7% disagree and 28% strongly disagree.
In this section we asked about bureaucracy, as Figure 15 shows. 21% answered strongly agree, 21% answered agree, 38% answered neutral, 17% disagree and 3% strongly disagree.

In this section we asked about national security, as Figure 16 shows. 10% answered strongly agree, 7% answered agree, 41% answered neutral, 21% disagree and 21% strongly disagree.

In this section we asked about funding resources, as Figure 17 shows. 34% answered strongly agree, 28% answered agree, 18% answered neutral, 10% disagree and 10% strongly disagree.
In this question we asked about financial resources, as Figure 18 shows. 31% answered strongly agree, 24% answered agree, 28% answered neutral, 10% disagree and 7% strongly disagree.

In this question we asked about market uncertainty, as Figure 19 shows. 10% answered strongly agree, 34% answered agree, 32% answered neutral, 17% disagree and 7% strongly disagree.

In terms of self-employed, as it is shown in Figure 20, the majority of 40% of the entrepreneurs we interviewed strongly agree on self-employment, while the minority of 7% strongly disagreed to the question and 27% agreed, neutral were only 17% and 10% disagreed.
In terms of public recognition, as shown in Figure 21 the majority of entrepreneurs agreed, with a percent of 31%, while 21% disagreed and 21% strongly disagreed, and the rest of the percentages were as follows: 14% neutral and 14% strongly agreed.

Figure 22 shows what the entrepreneurs think about financial rewards. The majority agrees with a percent of 43%, 33% strongly agreed and 17% were neutral. Only 3% disagreed and 3% strongly disagreed.

As displayed in Figure 23, we find that the majority of the entrepreneurs with a percent of 41% disagreed and the minority of 7% strongly agreed, and the rest were as follows: 14% strongly agreed, 21% neutral and 12% strongly disagreed.
In terms of needs for achievement, as shown in Figure 24, the majority of 70% strongly agreed, 3% disagreed and 3% were neutral. The rest were 23% who agreed and none who strongly disagreed.

In terms of support for more advanced projects, as shown in Figure 25, from the entrepreneurs who were interviewed the majority of 34% were neutral and 3% disagreed. The rest of 31% agreed, 21% strongly agreed and 10% strongly disagreed.

As shown in Figure 26, regarding personal fulfillment, of entrepreneurs who were interviewed, the majority of them strongly agreed with 53% and 37% agreed. In the minority were those who were neutral 3%, 7% disagreed and none of them strongly disagreed.
In terms of freedom, as shown in Figure 27, from the results we got from the entrepreneurs who were interviewed, the majority of 37% strongly agreed and only 3% disagreed. The rest were as follows: 30% agreed, 10% strongly disagreed and 17% neutral.

The analysis of this research includes university students. The samples were selected from 2 main Jordanian universities (Princess Sumaya University for Technology and Petra University) and a small random sample from other universities. A total of 60 surveys were distributed to the students since they reflect the Jordanian culture that they are part of.

Figure 28: The pie chart clearly states that 70% of the students know what an entrepreneur means and the other 30% never heard about this term.
When we asked if the students see themselves as team players, the responses were like this, 62% of them agreed and strongly agreed, 28% of them were neutral, and only 10% of them disagreed or strongly disagreed, as the data in Figure 29 shows.

**Figure 30: Risk taker**

We mentioned in the literature review that the entrepreneurs should be risk takers and based on that fact we asked the students on the scale of 1 to 5 to rate their attitude toward risk. We found that 33% strongly agreed that they are risk takers, 27% agreed, 30% were neutral toward risk, 7% disagreed and 3% strongly disagreed, as the data in Figure 30 shows.

**Figure 31: Failing once is failing for life**

As it is shown in Figure 31, 23% of the students agreed about failing once is failing for life, while the other 77% of our sample did not agree with this statement.
As shown in Figure 32, when students were asked if they think that their university should provide them with training as part of their studies, 88% answered yes and the rest of 12% answered no.

When the students were asked whether they know if there are companies that can help them to become entrepreneurs, only 37% knew about the companies Oasis500 and Ipark and 63% they didn't know about those companies, as the data in the pie chart above shows.
In terms of how content the students feel with the education provided by their university, as the data in the pie chart shows, most of the students feel content with the education system provided by their universities (66%) and 34% don’t feel content with the education system provided by their universities, as the data in the pie chart above shows.

When students were asked whether they prefer working in big companies rather than start-ups, 76% answered yes and the rest of 24% answered no, as the data in the pie chart above shows.
Figure 36: Is Jordanian culture helpful to become an entrepreneur

When students were asked if the Jordanian culture supports them to become entrepreneurs, 20% answered yes but the majority 80% answered no, as shown in the pie chart above.

Figure 37: Privileges that students look for

In terms of the privileges that the students are seeking, we found out that 28% look for work atmosphere, 23% look for job security issues, 24% are financially related, 19% look for insurance and 6% are looking for other privileges, as the data in Figure 37 shows.

Figure 38: Start-up companies provide the same privileges as big companies

When students were asked if they considered that start-up companies offered the same privileges as big companies, 81% responded yes and 19% responded no, as shown in the pie chart above.
The results in the following table were taken from the entrepreneurial survey in which we related self-assessment and anchoring with different demographic factors.

Table 2: Results table for self-assessment and anchoring

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<tr>
<th>1. Self assessment</th>
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<td>Males</td>
<td>81.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>81.26</td>
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<th>2. Anchoring</th>
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<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>0.396980208</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>0.404602235</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>3. Self assessment</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>81.448</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>81.882</td>
<td></td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Anchoring</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>0.396980208</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>0.423250957</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Self assessment</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age under 30</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age over 30</td>
<td>80.842</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<th>6. Anchoring</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age under 30</td>
<td>0.379526627</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age over 30</td>
<td>0.406166303</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we took gender to be a factor of self-assessment, we found that males get higher grades in self-assessment than females, with a score of 81.6 for males and 81.26 for females. When it comes to anchoring, males were less affected by anchoring than females.

When we took the level of education to be a factor of self-assessment, we found that there is a very small difference, but the holders of bachelor degrees have a lower assessment capacity compared with the master degrees holders. Regarding anchoring, the holders of bachelor degrees were more affected from it than the master degree holders. This supports the idea that the higher the education, the lower the anchoring effect and the better the decision taken.

When we took age to be a factor of self-assessment, we can found that entrepreneurs under 30 years have lower self assessment than the entrepreneurs that are over 30 years old. When it comes to anchoring, we found that entrepreneurs under 30 years are more affected by anchoring than entrepreneurs over 30 years old. This supports the argument that the older you become, the wiser your decisions are.

With the unstable economy as a factor, only 28% of the entrepreneurs disagreed that the unstable economy affects them and a total of 41% of the entrepreneurs agreed. 28% of the entrepreneurs agree that one of the main challenges that they are facing is capital and this confirms the literature review. 21% of the entrepreneurs agree that bureaucracy can be a challenge for them, which agrees with the literature review.

Regarding market uncertainty, we found that 44% of the entrepreneurs strongly agreed that it affects them and only 17% disagreed. The financial resources turned out to be a major factor for the entrepreneurs, from the results we got from the survey 55% strongly agreed that financial resources are important and only 10% disagreed.
Table 3: Hypothesis analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Alternative Hypothesis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H1</strong> Male entrepreneurs have higher self-assessment than female entrepreneurs. True.</td>
<td>Male entrepreneurs have lower self-assessment than female entrepreneurs. False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H2</strong> Males get affected by anchoring more than females. True.</td>
<td>Males do not get affected by anchoring more than females. False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H3</strong> Entrepreneurs that got bachelor degrees have higher self-assessment than the entrepreneurs that have master degrees. False.</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs that got bachelor degrees have lower self-assessment than the entrepreneurs that have master degrees. True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H4</strong> Entrepreneurs that have a Bachelor degree get affected by anchoring more than master degree holders. True.</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs that have a Bachelor degree get affected by anchoring less than master degree holders. False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H5</strong> The entrepreneurs younger than 30 years have higher self-assessment than the entrepreneurs older than 30 years. False.</td>
<td>The entrepreneurs younger than 30 years have lower self-assessment than the entrepreneurs older than 30 years. True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H6</strong> The entrepreneurs younger than 30 years get affected by anchoring more than the entrepreneurs older than 30 years. True.</td>
<td>The entrepreneurs younger than 30 years get affected by anchoring less than the entrepreneurs older than 30 years. False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H7</strong> The unstable economy helps entrepreneurs to succeed. False.</td>
<td>The unstable economy does not help entrepreneurs to succeed. 42% of the sample agreed on its negative impact. True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H8</strong> Financial capital helps entrepreneurs to succeed. 56% agreed about its positive effect. True.</td>
<td>Financial capital does not help entrepreneurs to succeed. False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H9</strong> Bureaucracy, Regulations, Politics, National security help the entrepreneurs to succeed. False.</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, Regulations, Politics, National security do not help the entrepreneurs to succeed. 70% of the sample were neutral or disagreed. True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H10</strong> Market uncertainty helps entrepreneurs to succeed. False.</td>
<td>Market uncertainty does not help entrepreneurs to succeed. 44% of the sample agrees. True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H11</strong> Funding resources help entrepreneurs to succeed. 57% of the sample agrees. True.</td>
<td>Funding resources do not help entrepreneurs to succeed. False.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

Based on the findings obtained from the surveys we found out that gender has a small effect on self-assessment and on anchoring, while education and age has also a small effect on self-assessment and on anchoring. A major motivational factor for people in Jordan is the need for achievement by contributing to the community. People in Jordan have little interest in public recognition. Moreover, the common personality trait that is shared among entrepreneurs in Jordan, is that they are open to new experiences and being extraverted and enthusiastic. The thing they consider to be the least important is being conventional and uncreative. We also found out that entrepreneurs follow an organized plan to reach their goals and they anticipate important decisions.

We came up with the conclusion that there is a lack of awareness about the entrepreneurs, who are they, what do they do and if there are any companies that support them. We recommend that workshops and awareness campaigns about the entrepreneurial subject be implemented. These campaigns should be held in schools and universities. In this way the student’s awareness will increase towards entrepreneurial agencies like Oasis500 and iPark. They will also be better informed on how to become an entrepreneur. Students survey indicate that the majority do not know about entrepreneurial agencies in Jordan, so if they want to become entrepreneurs, they have no idea where to go or where to get help in adopting, implementing and funding their ideas in order to benefit their community.

We recommend to the universities to include in their study plan training, in order to help the scholars to have a good and clear vision about what is it like to be an entrepreneur. Jordan highly depends of human capital, so it is essential to invest in people, to help them achieve their potential and stimulate their creativity. Their ideas will help benefit their society. Any kind of challenges, like cultural obstacles, can be opportunities if the entrepreneur interprets them in another way, in a positive way that can help reach the entrepreneurial goal. All kind of successful entrepreneurs failed at one time or another, but the determination helped them reach their goals. Our recommendation is for people to believe in themselves and proceed on their path to a career that can benefit the society.

References

An Exploratory Study of the Impact of Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Styles: Evidence from Jordan

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine the impact of Cultural Intelligence on conflict management styles in Jordan. To address this topic, previous literature was reviewed on Cultural Intelligence and conflict-management styles to find a possible link. Using this information, a survey was constructed and distributed among individuals of the Jordanian society. Data obtained from the survey was then analyzed using the SPSS software. Results helped in determining which Cultural Intelligence components possess the greatest influence on conflict-management styles among Jordanians. The study concludes with a clearer picture of the relationship between Cultural Intelligence and conflict management. This research contributes to the existing literature studying both culture and conflict by emphasizing the impact of understanding culture on the effectiveness of cross-cultural interactions.

Key words: Cultural Intelligence, Conflict, Conflict Management, Conflict-Management Styles, Jordan.

1. Introduction

Since the beginning of globalization, the world has experienced disruptive changes. People from different cultures are now more interconnected due to the advancements in telecommunication and technology. Globalization has expanded cultural borders and connected the world in terms of time, space, economies, organizations, and industries (Earley et al., 2006). As a result, there is an increasing need for developing a better cross-cultural understanding of different groups and for continually improving intercultural-communication skills to adapt to the requirements of today’s world (Earley et al., 2004).

Globalization is one of the main reasons that prompt organizations to ask their employees to work in multinational environments and to travel from country to country to accomplish organizational goals (Earley & Peterson, 2004), thereby making the workforce in most countries more diverse and heterogeneous. To obtain a clearer idea of how globalization has affected cross-culture interactions and increased conflict issues, the most suitable definition of globalization for this paper is as follows: globalization is “a large scale interactive social process in which people increasingly interrelates, communicates, and works in an increasingly culturally diverse workplace both within and outside the organization” (Earley et al., 2006, p. 1). According to research by previous scholars, this ease of communication and its increased availability, which is a result of globalization, can generate more tension between people from diverse cultures, producing uncertainty and confusion among co-workers (Akbulut, 2014; Kumar & Rajasekar, 2014).

Due to the different attitudes and beliefs adopted by diverse cultures, conflicts and disagreements are definite results. Conflict is here defined as the process in which people disagree over significant issues, thereby creating friction between parties (Rahim, 1997), and this friction is often due to differences that exist among individuals. Managing conflict effectively among different individuals with diverse cultural backgrounds is one of the main challenges faced by people, organizations, and society. Consequently, managing conflict...
is an imperative for ensuring a healthy workplace that enhances personal and organizational growth (Forté, 1996).

It became crucial for organizations and individuals to understand how different cultures can influence and affect the negotiations carried out in conflict situations. While negotiating conflict situations effectively across different cultures has become a critical skill for individuals, it has also become an essential aspect of many inter-organizational relationships in the following areas: strategic alliances, joint ventures, mergers and acquisitions, licensing and distribution agreements, and sales of products and services (Adler, 2002). As a result, people who understand how culture influences conflict situations will have a competitive advantage in today’s global marketplace (Gelfand & Christakopoulou, 1999).

According to Imai in 2007, the culture and conflict literature reveals little about the characteristics that are needed by the negotiators to achieve optimal agreements in intercultural situations. To remedy this deficit, this research investigates the topic of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which is defined as the individual’s capability to adapt effectively to situations of cultural diversity (Earley and Ang, 2003) and also examines its effect on the conflict-management styles used in Jordan while handling conflict situations.

The reason for focusing on Cultural Intelligence rather than other forms of intelligence such as Social Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence is because Cultural Intelligence deals with individual’s skills levels in the face of cultural barriers. This research seeks to examine the impact of Cultural Intelligence on conflict-management styles and to ascertain whether it is a useful predictor for choosing a particular conflict-management style.

This research is designed to assess quantitatively the Cultural Intelligence variables and link them to the conflict-management styles using Jordan as a context for analysis. Hence, the data is based on 133 participants’ responses to basic demographic questions (age, nationality, and level of education) and on the results of a five-point Likert scale instruments for CQ and conflict-management styles.

**Literature Review**

This section addresses the previous literature about cultural intelligence and conflict management, then the next section will present a theoretical framework developed by bridging the two body of literatures.

**Cultural Intelligence (CQ)**

Since globalization took over the modern business world, organizations began focusing on the cultural side of their environments. To ensure worldwide competency, the workplace turned from having a predominantly local or domestic culture into one with a high diversity of cultures in one place. Thomas Larsson (2001) defined globalization as “the process of world shrinkage, of distance getting shorter, things moving closer. It pertains to increasing ease with which somebody on one side of the world can interact, to mutual benefit, with somebody on the other side of the world” (p. 8).

The effects of globalization have spread through communities and cultures. This context highlights the variety of modern viewpoints in which conflict may occur (Al-Rodhan & Stoudmann, 2006). Consequently, globalization significantly impacts culture; for example, Japanese culture is well known for being strict with respect to time, whereas Arabic culture commonly regards timeliness as fairly flexible. It will not be acceptable to a Japanese manager if an Arabic employee arrives 10 minutes late, but this is perfectly acceptable in the Arabic culture. Globalization seeks to identify these differences in various cultures to increase familiarity between cultures. These issues have resulted in a new concept of generalizing one commonly known culture between employees in the same organization-a phenomenon called Organizational Culture. This culture gives the organization its identity as cross-cultural organization.

According to research on cross-cultural competency, the construct of cultural intelligence has been described by Gelfand, Imai, and Fehr (2008) as the “new kid on the scientific block” (p. 376). The term Cultural Intelligence was defined for the first time in 2003 as a multidimensional construct that encompasses an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in cultural diverse settings (Earley & Ang, 2003). This is consistent with Schmidt’s and Hunter’s (2000) definition of general intelligence (IQ) as “the ability to grasp and reason correctly with abstractions (concepts) and solve problems,” (p. 3) which has yielded several types of intelligence that focus on specific content domains, such as Social Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and Practical Intelligence (NG, Van Dyne, and Ang, 2012).

After 2003, Earley revised his prior definition of general intelligence to the following: an outsider’s seemingly natural ability to interpret someone’s unfamiliar and ambiguous gestures the way that person’s compatriots would (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Also in 2004, Thomas and Inkson defined CQ as “the multifaceted competency consisting of cultural knowledge, the practice of mindfulness, and the repertoire of behavioral skills” (pp. 182-183). Peterson (2004), in contrast, focused on the values and attitudes side exposed to others with the following definition of general intelligence: “the ability to engage in a set of behaviors that uses skills (i.e. language or interpersonal skills) and quantities (e.g. tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility) that are tuned appropriately to the culture-based values and attitudes of the people with whom one interacts” (p. 106). On the other hand, Thomas (2006) defined general intelligence as the capability that allows individuals to understand and act appropriately across a wide range of cultures.

According to Earley and Ang (2003), the level of interpersonal skills that employees possess within a culture is independent from the level of interpersonal skills that those employees possess across cultures. That is, even though concepts such as Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Ability may assist individuals in understanding certain types of information, this does not mean that this information will help them in social interactions, especially in other cultures. In the end, just because...
an individual has a high level of interpersonal skills in his or her own culture, he or she will not necessarily adapt to people in the same way and with ease if he or she were exposed to a new culture. At the same time, an individual with a low level of interpersonal skills may have no problem adjusting easily and quickly to new cultural contexts.

In response to this need for understanding individual differences in cultural adaptation, Earley and Ang (2003) conceptualized CQ as a multifaceted characteristic consisting of the following elements: Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, and Behavioral CQ. Metacognitive CQ refers to the conscious awareness which an individual has regarding cultural interactions, as well as the ability to strategize when crossing cultures and to carefully ascertain personal thoughts and the thoughts of others. Cognitive CQ reflects the knowledge of a group’s values, beliefs, and norms; cognitive CQ also addresses the knowledge dimension of CQ, referring to the level of understanding of culture and its role in determining the style of doing business and interacting with others across different cultures. Motivational CQ reflects the capability to direct energy toward learning about cultural differences. It also refers to the level of interest, drive, and energy invested in cross-cultural adaptations. Motivational CQ involves intrinsic motivation, which is the degree to which a person derives enjoyment from culturally diverse situations; extrinsic motivation, which prioritizes the tangible benefits gained from culturally diverse experiences; and self-efficacy, which is the confidence that one will be effective in cross-cultural encounters. Finally, Behavioral CQ reflects the ability to choose appropriate verbal and physical actions when interacting with people of different cultures. In essence, behavioral CQ refers to the ability to act appropriately in the midst of cross-cultural issues, indicating whether a person can accomplish goals effectively in these issues. These concepts were conceived by Earley and Ang (2003) and were further developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008 and Van Dyne, Ang, and Livermore in 2010.

Conflict Management

Conflict is a common facet in the daily lives of people, and it is generally considered inevitable in organizations. Studies indicate that managers spend more than twenty percent of their time dealing with conflict (Pondy, 1992; Pulhamus, 1991; Thomas & Schmidt, 1976). Conflict can be the result of strong divergent needs between two or more parties (individuals, groups, organizations, etc.), or it may occur from misunderstandings and misperceptions.

Conflict arises in various situations either when both parties are working toward achieving the same goal, or when working toward different outcomes. Conflict is often dynamic, escalating and de-escalating according to the situation.

The current literature does not include a single or absolute definition of conflict. According to general consensus, conflict may be defined as an “interactive process manifested in compatibility, disagreement or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individuals, group, organization, etc.) which create organizational change” (Rahim, 2002, p. 207). Conflict may also be defined as “sharp disagreement or opposition, as of interests, ideas, etc.,” and it may include the “perceived divergence of interest or a belief that the parties’ current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously” (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986, p. 4).

Researchers generally categorize and contextualize the broad concept of conflict by classifying it in four different levels. This is considered a commonly accepted categorization and was introduced by Lewicki, Saunders, Barry, and Minton in 2003. The levels of conflict classification are as follows: intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup.

Intrapersonal conflict occurs within an individual, taking place in his or her mind. This is more a form of psychological conflict, as the main source of conflict is emotions, thoughts, values, perceptions, and drives that are in disagreement with each other. An example of such conflict is when a person is experiencing anxiety or pressure from choosing between two alternatives.

The second type of conflict is interpersonal, which can be defined as “a form of intense interpersonal dissonance (that is, tension or antagonism) between two or more interdependent parties based on their incompatible goals, needs, desires, values, beliefs, and/or attitudes” (Ting-Toomey, 1985, p. 72). According to this definition, this particular form of conflict involves two or more parties.

Intragroup conflict is the third type of conflict, arising between members of the same group. An example of intragroup conflict is one which occurs between family members. This type of conflict will have an evident effect on the group’s ability to be efficient and effective in decision making, productivity, resolution, and achieving group goals.

The fourth and final classification is intergroup conflict, occurring between different groups. An example of this form of conflict is a feud between organizations. This type of conflict is often complicated, as there are a large number of people involved and countless ways of interacting with each other.

Multiple scholars suggest that conflict, and specifically organizational conflict, has both functional and dysfunctional outcomes (Jehn, 1995; Mirtoff, 1998; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin 1999). In the past, scholars and individuals believed that conflict is a negative and destructive force that should be avoided at all costs (Nicotera, 1993). Deutsch and others (1973) elaborated that this negative image of the conflict situation is based on many elements; for example, conflicts are usually emotionally charged, and this can overwhelm clear thinking. In addition, misperception and biases are often formed because people view a situation according to their own perspectives, interpreting the situation in stereotypical and biased ways. Furthermore, individuals can become competitive and only perceive situations as “win-lose” scenarios. When individuals become more committed to their own position, they are often less interested in productive communication, which can make issues more blurred and less defined. All of these will cause an escalation of conflict, since differences are magnified and similarities are neglected (Deutsch, 1973).
However, conflict cannot only be perceived as dysfunctional, but it should also be perceived as an opportunity for growth that possesses many productive aspects (Coser, 1956; Deutsch, 1973). Consequently, conflict itself is not simply productive or destructive; it is actually both. Once conflict was no longer perceived as dysfunctional, but instead as a healthy process that needs to be contained and managed properly through negotiations, structural adaptation, and other forms of intervention (Kolb & Putnam, 1992), the concept of conflict management emerged.

Conflict management involves “designing effective macro level strategies to minimize the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict in order to enhance learning and effectiveness in an organization” (Rahim, 2002, p. 208). This definition illustrates that the main objective of conflict management is not to eliminate conflict, but to find different ways to manage it properly through controlling the dysfunctional elements of the conflict while facilitating its productive aspects (Rahim, 2002). Conflict management also refers to the styles used by either or both parties to cope with a conflict (Keenan et al., 1998). As a result, an individual’s response to a conflict situation with different styles and strategies may limit or enable the success of dealing with the situation (Rahim, 2011).

A number of frameworks for handling conflict have been suggested and constructed by previous scholars to measure the tendency of using these approaches by each party (Filley, 1975; Hall, 1969; Rahim, 1992; Thomas, 1992; Thomas & Kilmann 1974). In this paper, the framework used to discuss conflict-management styles is one proposed by Dean Pruitt, Jeffery Rubin, and S.H. Kim (1994), based on research by Rahim and Bonoma (1979). This framework differentiates the styles of handling conflict into two distinct dimensions: concern for self and concern for others.

The concept of concern for self explains the degree to which a person tries to fulfill and satisfy his or her goals. The stronger the individual’s concern for self, the more likely he or she will be to pursue strategies that focus on personal concern for outcomes; the weaker a person’s concern for self, the more likely he or she will be to pursue strategies that will overlook personal interest (Rahim, 2002). Concern for others explains the degree to which individuals try to satisfy the goals and needs of the other party. Therefore, the stronger a person’s concern for others, the more likely he or she is to engage in encouraging and helping the other party to achieve his or her outcome; the weaker the concern for others, the more likely an individual is to overlook consequences related to the other party (Rahim, 2002).

Combining these two dimensions is represented in the five different styles of handling conflict: contending, yielding, inaction, problem solving, and compromising. The first style, contending, is also called dominating or competing. This perspective involves high concern for self and low concern for others. This style follows a win-lose approach where high levels of competition are found. There is no cooperation between parties, and the main aim is to win at any cost to satisfy personal concern, regardless of the concerns of others (Rahim, 2002). Contending may also include standing up for one’s rights and/or defending a position which the party believes to be correct (Rahim, 2011). Individuals who follow this approach try to persuade the other party to yield (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). This strategy is appropriate when there is a need for a speedy decision and can be helpful in overcoming assertive subordinates. It is also beneficial when an issue is generally trivial and only important to the party, or when subordinates lack the expertise needed to make appropriate technical decisions (Rahim, 2011). Situations in which contending is inappropriate occur when the issue is complex and not important to the individual, when both parties are equally powerful, when speedy decisions are not needed, or when subordinates possess a high degree of competence (Rahim, 2011).

The second style of handling conflict is yielding, which is also known as accommodating or obliging. This style occurs when there is low concern for self and high concern for others (Rahim, 2002). In some cases conflict resolution may be at the individual’s own expense in the hope of obtaining future benefits from the other party (that is, self-sacrifice to gain something in the future). This style mainly attempts to play down the differences and emphasize the commonalities between the parties to satisfy their concerns (Rahim, 2011). This is considered an advantage in situations where the individual believes he or she may be wrong, when an issue is more important to the other party, when the individual is acting from a position of weakness, or when the individual thinks that preserving the relationship is more important (Rahim, 2011). However, yielding is inappropriate in cases where the issue is highly important to the individual, when the individual thinks he or she is right, or when the other party acting unethically or wrongly (Rahim, 2011).

The third style of handling conflict is “inaction,” also called avoiding. This style involves low concern for self and low concern for others (Rahim, 2002). Avoiding generally occurs when the individual shows little interest in attaining both personal concerns and concerns for others, and subsequently decides to withdraw from the situation either by being silent or by doing nothing (Rahim, 2011). This style is appropriate when an issue is trivial, when a “cooling off” period is needed, or when potentially negative consequences of confronting the other party outweighs the advantages of resolution (Rahim, 2011).

The fourth style of handling conflict situations is problem solving, also known as collaborating or integrating. Individuals who pursue this style show high concern for self and high concern for others. As a result, cooperation and collaboration is needed to reach acceptable solutions that will satisfy both parties (otherwise known as a “win-win” approach) (Rahim, 2002). Openness and sharing of information are needed to ensure an effective result. Problem solving is useful in complex situations, when there is adequate time for problem solving, or when one party cannot solve the problem alone. To ensure successful implementation, commitment is needed from both parties (Rahim, 2011). Problem solving is considered inappropriate when the problem is simple, when immediate decisions...
are required, when other parties are unconcerned about the outcome, or when parties do not possess problem solving skills.

Compromising is the fifth conflict-management style and is the intersection between the two dimensions. It represents a moderate effort in pursuing one’s personal interests and a moderate effort in helping the other party achieve his or her outcomes (Rahim, 2002). That is, both parties give up something in order to obtain an acceptable decision. Compromising is needed when the goals of both parties are mutually exclusive, when both parties are powerful, when agreements cannot be reached, when dominating or integrating styles are not successful, or when a temporary solution is needed for a complex problem (Rahim, 2011). However, compromising is inappropriate when one party is more powerful than the other, or when the problem is so complex that it needs a problem solving approach (Rahim, 2011).

Some behavioral researchers suggest that the problem-solving style is the most appropriate for managing conflict (e.g. Blake & Mouton, 1964; Burke, 1970; Likert & Likert, 1976). However, other researchers maintain that for conflict to be managed properly and functionally, one style may be more appropriate than another, depending on the situation (Hart, 1991; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979; Thomas, 1977). Consequently, understanding these different styles of conflict-managing behavior will enable the individual to select the most appropriate style when facing conflict by giving the individual the opportunity to enhance the communication process between the different parties involved (Rahim, 2002).

**Theoretical framework**

Research by Rahim suggests that Emotional Intelligence is closely related to conflict-management strategies (2002), suggesting that the five dimensions of EQ (Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation, Motivation, Empathy, and Social Skills) are positively correlated. These dimensions also involve personal motivation, dividing the conflict-management strategies into two dimensions: problem-solving strategy and bargaining strategy. Finally, research also suggests that motivation is positively related to a problem-solving strategy (integrating-avoiding) and is negatively associated with a bargaining strategy (dominating-obliging), according to Rahim (2002). Consequently, motivation serves as the main dimension of EQ used to measure the relationship. Motivation functions as an EQ dimension, and it is therefore also a component of EQ. When motivation is compared in terms of CQ and as a dimension of EQ, they are demonstrably similar. Although CQ is more specific in terms of defining the goal, a link exists between Cultural Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence in which CQ continues where EQ concludes (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004).

Several studies have related culture to conflict-style preference (Kim-Jo et al., 2010). A first stream of research examines how individuals exposed to more than one culture (e.g., bilingual persons) handle interpersonal conflict. Other studies investigate one culture and probe its conflict-management style preference. Also common in these studies is the a priori categorization of cultures as individualist or collectivist based on Hofstede’s study in 1980. For example, individuals from the U.S. and Australia represent individualist cultures, while cultures from China, Taiwan, Korea, Japan, and Hong Kong are collectivist. However, these studies examine the conflict-style preference of each culture, but do not address the conflict-style preference of an individual and his or her ability to adapt culturally.

Cultural intelligence is an important predictor of affective as well as performance-related outcomes in culturally diverse situations. In addition, empirical research is an important predictor of affective as well as performance-related outcomes in culturally diverse situations, based on what empirical research shows. For example, research by Ang and colleagues (2007) found that the ability to make accurate cultural judgments and to report greater interactional adjustments describes individuals with higher CQ than those with lower CQ. This aptitude extends beyond cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, personality, and international experience. The same authors found in organizational contexts that international managers who performed better on an intercultural business task, controlling for cognitive ability and international experience, are those with higher CQ.

Furthermore, in a sample of foreign professionals, Ang and colleagues (2007) also found that CQ is a better predictor of higher job performance than international experience, as rated by supervisors. Another study by Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2006) concluded that greater cross-cultural adjustment was experienced by expatriates with higher CQ than those with lower CQ, taking into account the realistic previews of the job and living conditions expatriates received, as well as time spent in the host country and prior international experience. More recent research has found that that CQ is negatively related to burnout among business travelers working in multinational corporations (Tay, Westman, & Chia, 2008) and is positively related to how quickly employees are integrated into multicultural work teams (Flaherty, 2008).

Most recent empirical research studying CQ in the domain of negotiation (Imai & Gelfand, 2010) maintains that individuals with higher CQ have greater cooperative motives as well as higher epistemic motivation than individuals with lower CQ. The researchers stated that dyads consisting of negotiators with higher CQ will engage in more effective sequences of integrative-information behaviors than dyads of negotiators with lower CQ. Being more cooperative and maintaining higher CQ will allow negotiators to adopt more-integrative negotiation strategies. Negotiation is a form of conflict management. However, the literature has not covered the study of CQ robustly in relation to conflict management.

Although CQ has been studied in a wide variety of contexts, a gap still exists in the literature with regards to studying its relation to conflict management, even after the study by Imai and Gelfand (2010). According to Rahim (2011), each conflict-management style has some characteristics implied in each individual’s mindset: if a person has a selfish side, a high concern
for self and a low concern for others, and ignores what others want, then he or she will tend to use the Dominating style over other CM styles. On the other hand, if a person is primarily focused on the needs of others over self, has a mentality of self-sacrificing for common good, and prioritizes maintaining current relationships (knowing that some of these relationships will be lost if the conflict continues), then the person will tend to use the Obliging CM style. When there is a lack of interest in self, others, or even in the whole issue, then the person withdraws from the situation, resulting in the Avoiding CM style. If an individual is willing to help others, to share information with them, and to maintain a high concern for both self and others, he or she is using the Integrating CM style. Finally, the Compromising CM style involves a moderate level of effort to reach outcomes, moderate concern, moderate interest, and a moderate willingness to help others. This style is used in the case where someone is selfless to obtain something else. According to Earley and Mosakowski (2004), there are three main facets of cultural intelligence (Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional/Motivational CQ). Each facet possesses distinctive traits and characteristics that will affect an individual’s level of CQ, which in turn will impact the decisions made in conflict situations.

Based on these concepts, the main purpose of this section is to develop a theoretical framework that traces the relationship between facets of cultural intelligence facets and conflict-management styles. Based on this objective, a set of 15 suggested hypotheses have been developed. These hypotheses are divided into three groups according to each CQ facet (five hypotheses for each CQ facet).

The first CQ facet is Cognitive CQ, which involves having knowledge of other cultures. This requires knowing what culture is, how it varies, and how it affects behavior. Consequently, Cognitive CQ allows an individual to make predictable and more-accurate decisions during an intercultural interaction (Adler, 2002). An individual with high cognitive CQ is more aware of others’ values and norms because he or she is wants to invest time and effort in forming an understanding of the cultural surrounding to adapt effectively in intercultural situations and conflicts (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). Because of this, an individual with a higher Cognitive CQ will have a higher concern for others when dealing with an intercultural conflict situation to maintain social affiliation. With this in mind, five different hypotheses regarding high Cognitive CQ are established:

Hypothesis 1a: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.
Hypothesis 1b: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.
Hypothesis 1c: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing obliging style.
Hypothesis 1d: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.
Hypothesis 1e: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.

Turning next to Physical CQ, an individual with higher Physical CQ tend to control his or her external factors that are perceived by others. These factors—such as body language, facial expressions, and tone—are controlled in a way that reflects a person’s ability to adapt to different intercultural situations. It may therefore be further elaborated that this facet occupies the body category laid out by Earley and Mosakowski (2004). An individual with high Physical CQ must mirror the other party through convincible actions and behavior. This is done by showing others that he or she has adopted their key habits, mannerisms, and cultural gestures. With this in mind, five different hypotheses regarding high Physical CQ are developed:

Hypothesis 2a: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.
Hypothesis 2b: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.
Hypothesis 2c: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing obliging style.
Hypothesis 2d: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.
Hypothesis 2e: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.

Last but not least is the Emotional/Motivational CQ facet. This is a critical component of CQ because it drives an individual’s decisions and behaviors. Because emotions and motives are intrinsic, an individual with high Emotional/Motivational CQ must be confident in his or her own efficacy to understand people from different cultures and to overcome cultural obstacles. Those with high levels of Emotional/Motivational CQ can direct their attention toward intercultural situations based on their intrinsic interest in cultures (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and their confidence in intercultural effectiveness (Bandura, 2002). High Emotional/Motivational CQ can combine a rich understanding of self and others and can allow the individual to adapt to specific conflict-management styles in cross-cultural situations. Individuals who have high Emotional/Motivational CQ can develop positive attitudes and perceptions, which allow them to engage in the constructive exchange of information. They will listen and will try to understand the perspective of others. As a result, motivated negotiators are more likely to uncover possibilities for resolution and to find integrative potential (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1998). Based on this understanding, five different hypotheses regarding high Emotional/Motivational CQ are developed:

Hypothesis 3a: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.
Hypothesis 3b: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.
Hypothesis 3c: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing obliging style.
Hypothesis 3d: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.
Hypothesis 3d: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.

Hypothesis 3e: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.

In the next section of the paper, the methods used will be presented.

Method

Subject Selection and Description

This research includes a total of 133 participants ranging in age from 18 to 64 years old. The sample mainly consists of employees of NGOs and UN Agencies dealing with different cultural backgrounds in Jordan. The sample consisted of 57 (42.9%) males and 76 (57.1%) females. The majority of the participants’ nationalities were Jordanian (83.4%); others were part of nationalities from other Arab countries (13.5%), and a few participants had North American as well as Asian nationalities. Regarding the participants’ levels of education, 94 (70.7%) participants held a Bachelor’s Degree, 21 (15.8%) had finished college, 12 (9%) held a Master’s Degree, and the rest either held a Ph.D. or only had completed a high-school level of education.

Research Design and Instrumentation

This study was designed to assess quantitatively the variables of Cultural Intelligence and to relate them to conflict-management styles in Jordan. Consequently, data collection is based on participants’ responses to basic demographic questions (age, nationality, and level of education) and their results on a 5-point Likert scale for Cultural Intelligence and for conflict-management styles.

Dependent Variables: Conflict-Management Instrument

The conflict-management-styles instrument was developed by Oetzel (1998) in his study “The Effects of Self-Construals and Ethnicity on Self-Reported Conflict Styles,” after it was originated by Rahim’s work in conflict management. The instrument was made up of 28 questions developed by Rahim’s (1983) inventory (ROCI-II) of measuring conflict styles, followed by 10 more questions developed by Ting-Toomey, Yee-Jung, Shapiro, Garcia, Wright, and Oetzel to appraise the ethnic and cultural background effect. Its reliability in the original article for each conflict-management style ranged from 0.69 to 0.91 (Oetzel, 1998) (See Appendix 1). Each statement in this instrument is also measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Each statement corresponds with one style of conflict management, allowing each style to have a specific number of statements that measure it.
To control situational constraints, two scenarios were developed. Participants were asked to envision the scenario and then to evaluate the statements in the instrument accordingly. The scenarios involved a CEO requesting a task from a group of company employees that included the participant; the participant was then voted into a group to accomplish this task, whether his or her department group or an unfamiliar group. The responsibilities and rewards in each scenario were either shared or individual. This was designed to include two different situational features in which the participant would either be in a competitive situation (out-group) or in a cooperative situation (in-group). Each participant randomly received either a competitive or a cooperative scenario.

Independent Variables: Cultural Intelligence Instrument
The Cultural Intelligence instrument was proposed by Earley and Mosakowski (2004) in their study on Cultural Intelligence. This instrument consists of twelve statements, divided into three sets: Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional/Motivational CQ. Each set reflects a different facet of CQ and is measured using a 5-point Likert scale. These facets are calculated by adding the scores of the statements in the set and then dividing the sum by the number of statements in the set, resulting in an average of the participant's CQ in that specific facet. An average less than three indicates the need for improvement, while an average greater than 4.5 reflects CQ strength.

The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the items measuring Cognitive CQ was 0.384. Items measuring Physical CQ had a Cronbach alpha of 0.562, and items measuring Emotional/Motivational CQ had a Cronbach alpha of 0.537. These low values suggest that the instrument is not reliable, which is likely due to the low number of items measuring each variable as well as the low number of participants. A higher number of participants would likely make this study more reliable. Furthermore, participants may have misunderstood the survey questions and provided incorrect answers, as the instrument was originally designed for western cultures.

Data-Collection Procedure
Online surveys were conducted in both Arabic and English language. Data collection occurred over nine days. The surveys were distributed through emails and participation was voluntary. The responses were mainly collected through snowball-sampling technique: that is, participants who received the survey passed it on to other respondents.

Data-Analysis Procedures
SPSS software was used to analyze the collected data. The software package SPSS Statistics was used for statistical analysis. Reliability statistics were conducted for each set of questions to test each variable and to check the reliability of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each variable or construct to test the inter-correlations of items to measure a single variable or construct. When the items measuring the same construct are highly correlated, the questionnaire is considered reliable.

Results
This section discusses the results obtained with data analysis. The collected data was analyzed to understand its implications on the research hypotheses. The descriptive analysis was investigated thoroughly to examine the sample population and its characteristics. Further analysis was performed through regression and Pearson’s correlation to assess the hypothesis and to understand the relationships between variables.

Sample Description and Frequencies
In this section, frequencies of the sample’s demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, nationality, level of education, and organization are explained. As mentioned previously, the number of participants was 133: 76 were females, and 57 were males. The majority of the participants were between 18 and 24 years old. This age range is congruent with modern Jordanian society which is comprised mostly of youth.

Table 1: The Frequencies and Percentages of the Participants Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because the study was conducted in Jordan, most participants were of Jordanian nationality (111 out of 133); the remaining 22 were of different nationalities.

Regarding participants' level of education, most participants (71%) either had a bachelor's degree or were enrolled in bachelor's-degree programs; 16% of the population was enrolled in college. The rest of the participants had either attained higher level of education or were in high-school. These individuals mostly comprise current and future employees. Ergo, their involvement in the study was important.

Multiple Linear Regressions

To confirm the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, five multiple linear-regression analyses were performed. In each regression the conflict-management style served as the dependent variable, and the three facets of cultural intelligence served as the independent variables. The demographic variables were also included as independent variables in each regression to isolate other variables and to obtain the best results while testing the relationship. As a result, in each regression each variable showed a different p-value and correlation to the dependent variable. These relationships are illustrated in detail in the following sub sections and tables.
Integrating Style

Table 5: Integrating Conflict-Management Style Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variability</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.42712</td>
<td>1.843</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5, for the integrating style, R represents the variation in the model, and the R square value indicates that 17.5% of the variation in integrating-style models can be explained by the variability of CQ facets and demographic factors.

Table 6: Coefficients of the Independent Variables in the Integrating Style Model

According to the results showed in Table 6, there is a relationship between the independent variables (focusing only on Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional CQ) and the integrating style. Cognitive CQ has a coefficient of 0.166, which indicates a positive relationship, and a significance value of 0.029, which means that this relationship is significant because it is below 0.05. On the other hand, Physical CQ has a coefficient of 0.136 and significance value of 0.071, which may be considered slightly significant because the sample size was small and the questions were minimal. Emotional CQ has a coefficient of 0.118 and significance value of 0.161 which means that the relationship is not significant.

Compromising Style

Table 7: The Compromising Conflict-Management Style Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variability</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.45062</td>
<td>1.891</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7, for the compromising style, the R-square value indicates that 28.7% of the variation in the compromising-style model can be explained by the variability of CQ facets and demographic variables.

According to Table 8, there is a relationship between the independent variables (focusing only on Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional CQ) and the compromising style. Physical CQ has a coefficient of 0.283, which indicates a positive relationship, and a significance value of 0.000, which means this relationship is very significant (<0.05). On the other hand, Cognitive CQ has a coefficient of 0.085 and Emotional CQ has a coefficient of 0.094, but both have significance values that are greater than 0.05 (0.291 and 0.288, respectively), meaning that their relationships with this style are not significant.
Table 8: Coefficients of the Independent Variables in the Compromising Style Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Un-standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.083</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>4.950</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Cognitive</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>1.061</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Emotion</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>1.068</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>-0.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Physical</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>3.597</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>2.826</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.556</td>
<td>-0.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>-0.116</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>-1.316</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>-0.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>-0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obliging Style

Table 9: Obliging Conflict-Management Style Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.380</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.50696</td>
<td>1.919</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 9, for the obliging style, the R-square value indicates that 14.4% of the variation in the obliging-style model can be explained by the variability of CQ facets and by demographic variables.

Table 10: Coefficients of the Independent Variables in the Obliging Style Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Un-standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.938</td>
<td>0.474</td>
<td>4.094</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Cognitive</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Emotion</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Physical</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>-0.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>-0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>-0.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>-0.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 10, there is a relationship between the independent variables (focusing only on Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional CQ) and the obliging style. Cognitive CQ has a coefficient of 0.166, which indicates a positive relationship, and a significance value of 0.029, which means that this relationship is significant (<0.05). Physical CQ has a coefficient of 0.136 and Emotional CQ has a coefficient of 0.118, but the significance values for both Physical and Emotional CQ are greater than 0.05 (0.495 and 0.179, respectively), indicating that their relationships with the obliging style are not significant.

**Dominating style**

**Table 11: Dominating Conflict-Management Style Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.74935</td>
<td>1.847</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 11, for the dominating style, the R-square value indicates that 12.9% of the variation in dominating-style model can be explained by the variability of CQ facets and by demographic variables.

**Table 12: Coefficients of the Independent Variables in the Dominating Style Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Un-standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.243</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>1.777</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive CQ</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>1.301</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>-0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Emotion</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.701</td>
<td>-0.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQ Physical</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>-0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.065</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>-0.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>-0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>-0.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>-0.084</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td>-0.385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 12, there is a relationship between the independent variables (focusing only on Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional CQ) and the dominating style. Physical CQ has a coefficient of 0.308, which indicates a positive relationship, and a significance value of 0.020, which suggests this relationship is very significant (<0.05). Cognitive CQ has a coefficient of 0.172 and significance value of 0.196, which is not considered significant. Emotional CQ has a coefficient of 0.056 and a significance value of 0.701, which is also considered not significant in the case of the dominating style.

**Avoiding Style**

**Table 13: Avoiding Conflict-Management Style Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>0.66263</td>
<td>2.051</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The purpose of this study is to examine whether a relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles exist or not. To do so the Jordanian context was taken into consideration. This was designed to contribute to society by improving the effectiveness of intercultural interactions in the daily lives of the individuals. This section will compare and elaborate the hypotheses developed in the theoretical framework with the results obtained from the data collection, as shown in following Table. (Table 15, page 38)

**H1a:** Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.

Results indicate a significant positive relationship between Cognitive CQ and choosing integrating conflict-management style, which supports the hypothesis above. Cognitive CQ reflects the desire to learn and absorb the norms, values, and methods of other cultures when approaching intercultural interactions (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). These individuals are willing to know more about the other party and develop some kind of concern towards them, comprehending and decoding the behavior of others and of self (Thomas et al., 2008). This idea relates to the integrating conflict-management style, which involves a high sense of concern for self and for others: the individual is keen on sharing information and knowledge about himself or herself and others (Rahim 2011).

**H1c:** Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing obliging style.

When an individual is willing to understand the other party’s culture and how he or she thinks and behaves, this person is showing concern for others and is not concerned for self. This supports Rahim’s explanation of the obliging style which involves low concern for self and high concern for others.

**H2a:** Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.

**H2b:** Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.

Results show that the significance value of Physical CQ is 0.071, which is slightly higher than 0.05. However, this is likely due to the few questions involved in the study and the low number of participants. Therefore, this hypothesis can be taken into consideration.

Physical CQ represents the individual’s ability to tailor verbal and nonverbal actions when interacting cross-culturally. An individual with high Physical CQ will know exactly when to use needed words, phrases, and actions when facing intercultural conflict (Thomas et al., 2008). Therefore, when an individual modifies his or her actions according to cultural contexts, it may result in different outcomes: for example, an individual

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**Table 14: Coefficients of the Independent Variables in the Avoiding Style Model**

According to Table 14, there is a relationship between the independent variables (focusing only on Cognitive CQ, Physical CQ, and Emotional CQ) and the avoiding style. Cognitive CQ has a coefficient of 0.442, which indicates a positive relationship; its significance value of 0.000 means this relationship is very significant, since it is below 0.05. Physical CQ has a coefficient of 0.270 and significance value of 0.021, which is also considered significant. On the other hand, Emotional CQ has a coefficient of -0.137, which represents a negative relationship, and a significance value of 0.292, which is greater than 0.05 and therefore not significant.

As shown in Table 13, for the avoiding style, the R-square value indicates that 21.4% of the variation in the avoiding-style model can be explained by the variability of CQ facets and by demographic variables.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Results from Data Collection</th>
<th>Hypotheses' Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.</td>
<td>Cognitive CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing an integrating style.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Cognitive CQ and choosing a compromising style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing obliging style.</td>
<td>Cognitive CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing an obliging style.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1d: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Cognitive CQ and choosing a dominating style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1e: Individuals with high Cognitive CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.</td>
<td>Cognitive CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing an avoiding style.</td>
<td>Rejected*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.</td>
<td>The study shows slight significant relationship between having high Physical CQ and choosing an integrating style.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.</td>
<td>Physical CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing a compromising style.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2c: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing obliging style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Physical CQ and choosing an obliging style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2d: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.</td>
<td>Physical CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing a dominating style.</td>
<td>Rejected*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2e: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.</td>
<td>Physical CQ has been proved to have a significant positive relationship with choosing an avoiding style.</td>
<td>Rejected*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing integrating style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Emotional/Motivational CQ and choosing an integrating style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a positive relationship in choosing compromising style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Emotional/Motivational CQ and choosing a compromising style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3c: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing obliging style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Emotional/Motivational CQ and choosing an obliging style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3d: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Emotional/Motivational CQ and choosing a dominating style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3e: Individuals with high Emotional/Motivational CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing avoiding style.</td>
<td>The study shows no significant relationship between having high Emotional/Motivational CQ and choosing an avoiding style.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Hypotheses that were rejected because showed a significant relationship opposite to the hypothesized.
will try to achieve optimal solutions by adapting to the other party’s culture and by showing concern for others, while simultaneously showing concern for self to satisfy both parties. Consequently, high Physical CQ is linked with Rahim’s integrating style of handling conflict (concern for self and others).

H2d: Individuals with high Physical CQ will have a negative relationship in choosing dominating style.

Results suggest there is a significant positive relationship between having high Physical CQ and choosing dominating conflict-management style, which opposes the stated hypothesis. To elaborate this point, Thomas and others (2008) stated in their study entitled “Cultural Intelligence Domain and Assessment” that Physical CQ—also known as behavioral CQ—is the nonverbal and verbal actions that are taken by individuals in cross-cultural interactions. This type of individual will know when to adapt to another culture and when not to do so (Thomas et al., 2008), thereby indicating that an individual with high physical CQ can tailor his or her actions according to certain cultural contexts with varied outcomes. According to the results obtained from the analyzed data, individuals in Jordanian society chose to adapt their actions by preferring the dominant style of handling conflict, which is associated with low concern for others and high concern for self (Rahim, 2011).

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to find the impact of Cultural Intelligence on choosing conflict-management styles by using existing literature as well as by analyzing primary data collected through an online survey. As explained in the discussion, the study found that there is a relationship between Cultural Intelligence and a person’s choice of conflict-management style. Although, there was no relationship found between Emotional/Motivational CQ and conflict management styles. This may prompt further researchers to study peoples’ behavior in cross-cultural interactions. Additionally, this study adds to the existing literature in areas of Cultural Intelligence and conflict management.

Globalization and the increase in cross-cultural interactions has led to the rise of conflict situations. As a result, individuals should understand how to handle these scenarios effectively. Sadly, conflict management is a relatively understudied field in Jordan and other Arab countries. Ergo, further recommendations and greater emphasis on this topic is needed to develop better understandings about conflict and how to handle it in an appropriate manner.

Figure 2: Significant Relationships between Cultural Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

Table 15: Summary of the Hypothesis and Actual Results Obtained
References


Women’s Participation in the Workforce - Challenges and Characteristics in Jordan

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Princess Sumaya University for Technology,  
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Abstract

Women are considered half of any given society, and accordingly, empowering women is considered a tool of development, especially in our Jordanian economy. This research aims to investigate the reasons behind women leaving the workforce and not contributing back. We chose to conduct an IE framework to analyze the factors that affect female employees within and out of their working environment. Jordan is one of the many countries that value its traditions and cultures. This has an influence on how people think and perceive the role of women in our society, and in some cases ascribes women to a specific role, such as in the household. As a result, female employees in our society consider their job secondary to their traditional role as a mother. Accordingly, any practices that may harm their level of effectiveness within their home may lead them to drop out from the workforce and not contribute back in order to fulfill their maternal role.

1. Introduction

In the last 50 years, women have been raised and taught to be mothers for their children, professional cooks for their families and super housekeepers who keep their home neat and clean.

Our society has excluded women from being productive individuals and has restricted women’s ambitions, by not giving them the chance to leave aside the burden of family and traditions.

For some women, this does not stop them. Many leading, ambitious and hard-working women have fought for their dreams and have tried to initiate a remarkable revolution in society to encourage and engage other women to participate in the workforce. But unfortunately the participation of women is still considered very low and being a working woman is uncommon.

Unfortunately, despite the high level of women’s education and open vacancies for women to take in the workforce, the levels of their participation are still not high enough (Al-Badayneh, 2012).

Nowadays, the economic growth of any country needs the dedication and hard work of all their individuals. The high percentage of non-working women has been highlighted as a direct threat to the economy as it is considered an extra cost which causes lower levels of proficiency and productivity, especially in Jordan and the Middle East (Kharouf & Weir, 2008).

Women are recognized as having the potential in society to increase economic growth; many studies have shown that despite the low participation of women in the workforce, a distinctive improvement in health and education conditions has occurred over the past several decades (Peebles, Darwazeh, Ghosheh & Sabbagh, 2007).
In return, organizations and business owners have neglected business ethics, and gender discrimination is prevalent. Organizations have acknowledged that women's rights pose higher costs and classified women as non-productive employees.

**Literature Review**

Female participation in the workforce is determined by the percentage of females engaged in the total working population of a state or country (Pegu, 2015).

Accordingly, women’s rights (Doepke & Tertilt, 2011), parliamentary representation (Stockemer & Byrne, 2011), women entrepreneurship (Hattab, 2012), and women empowerment are concepts that have been spread widely through the press, as well as in studies and activism. In addition, the different types of discrimination that women face in and out the working environment (e.g. the income gap, gender inequality, political factors, and social factors) have been investigated.

The national development of human rights (2004) noted that “Women’s low participation rates in the economy and in the private sector present a high cost to the Jordanian economy.” According to this statement, Jordan is a country that needs to encourage women to participate more in the workforce. As such, the reasons behind women's low participation in the workforce need to be acknowledged, and alternative solutions should be taken into consideration, to ensure growth in the Jordanian economy. Especially, it should be acknowledged that many women in Jordan, particularly the younger generation, are very well educated as they are considered a waste of human resources in Jordan.

There are two types of factors that influence women employees:

**a.** Internal organizational factors

**b.** External organizational factors

**Internal Organizational Factors**

Internal organizational factors are conditions, entities, events and factors within an organization that influence its activities and choices, and the behavior of the employees.

Women face many challenges in their daily life, especially in the workplace. Discrimination toward women has been propagated in organizations. Unequal opportunities occur based on gender bias and inequality along with gender stereotypes. However, this reduces the effectiveness of organizational operations and weakens the bond that should be built between employees, affecting their motivation, and diminishing their productivity (Equality & Education, 2012).

Internal organizational factors affect female employees within the organization structure (Mogyoro, 2011), and may cause instability in the organization environment. Furthermore, they may affect the level of female participation and the effectiveness of the organization’s activities.

These factors are categorized as: gender stereotypes, income gap, unequal opportunities and gender inequality, but they are all related and affect each other, causing discrimination toward women within the workplace environment.

**Gender Stereotype**

The stereotypes that are connected with gender perceptions identify the personality, behavior, roles, skills and physical appearance that are to be expected from men and women (Crowley, 2013).

Women today are perceived as less capable of handling job difficulties, especially if they have other priorities like a family. Many obstacles arise based on their stereotypical role that hinder their personal and professional role, as reflected in the fact that women are underrepresented in high levels of management (Aycan, 2004).

Researchers have discussed how negative stereotype ideas are based on women. It has been noted that gender roles commonly lead to the discouragement of women’s employment outside the home in non-traditional jobs (Heilman, 1997; Schreiber, 1998).

Therefore, these trends and perceptions toward women have left them doubting their own abilities. They are less confident and uncertain of their expertise (Al-Badayneh, 2012), which will contribute to the discouragement of women in participating in the workforce.

As a study has noted, existing sex roles exert real pressures on individuals to behave in a certain prescribed way (Broverman, 1972). Accordingly, the stereotypical role of a woman’s job is perceived as a feminine type of job that matches the traditional role as a caregiver, like teaching, nursing, childcare, and secretarial work. Plus, the stereotypical role for men is one that is masculine, which needs to match their traditional role as a breadwinner like engineering, sales, and insurance agent. This mismatch between stereotypical roles and desirable work roles has a negative effect on workplace evaluation for the employee positioning and promoting process (Heilman & Eagly, 2008).

**Gender Inequality**

After investigating gender inequality further, researchers have found that gender inequality does have a negative impact on female participation in the workforce (Peebles et al., 2007). It may lead them to drop out from the workforce to stop being neglected.

Studies have shown that women get paid less than men (Peebles et al., 2007), based on gender discrimination.

Another example of real gender inequality can be found in banks, where some banks prefer to employ males rather than female employees, as they consider them to be a burden. From the organization point of view, females may take maternity leave and may represent a cost for the company.
Some male employees do not accept to be controlled by their female manager, as the male ego will always interfere in accepting females as bosses. The traditional way of thinking and their traditional role in our society will cause them to behave in a certain way (Saunders, 2013).

Unequal opportunities

Traditions have greatly affected the way people think in our society. With time, more opportunities have appeared and there have been major changes for women and their role in the society. Despite this fact, discrimination still exists based on traditional views of women, which limits the advancement of women in their career. In some cases, it pressures them to drop out, as a result of frustration and disappointment, due to gender bias leading to unequal opportunities in the workplace (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

Organizations are highly affected by cultural values and stereotypical viewpoints, which are, in turn, highly affecting the way organizations operate. Therefore, in some cases, this may lead to discrimination toward female employment (Metle, 2002; Khattab, 1996; Kausar, 1995).

The stereotypical and traditional role of women is affecting their career advancement, as men are perceived more suitable for high level positions than women. The attitude of “think man/think manager” is taking place in our society as the male character is perceived to be more appropriate for the management position (Jamali et al., 2005).

Many studies have proven that training and advancement in many cases is prioritized for men rather than women. This gives men the opportunity to acquire special skills needed for the job requirements, and increase their possibility to grow within the organizational structure, while keeping women in lower levels of management (Weir, 2003).

Furthermore, there are unequal opportunities based on gender-biased attitudes in the employment process. Traditional views observe women as quitters due to marriage and child birth plans, and females face harassment in the interview stage by being asked personal questions that are not usually asked to men.

Income gap

Female participation in the workforce is highly affected by the income gap. Women tend to receive fewer earnings than men, and stay in the same income brackets for a longer period of time. Many researchers considered this fact to reflect the stereotypical role of women in the society as a caregiver. Consequently, they are perceived as needing less raises and promotions in comparison to men. In contrast, men are perceived as breadwinners, who are responsible for their household expenses, including their wife and kids. Therefore, this will lead to unequal opportunities for women to grow, and slower progression in their careers (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

But some studies have proven that the income gap is highly related to specific skills required, and the level of education attained by women (Moghadam, 2013). Others note that it is more a result of gender discrimination.

There have been critics who have explored that women are the reason behind the income gap, because women tend to make different choices about work, marriage, and child birth. These factors need to be taken into consideration in determining the income gap between men and women. But unfortunately, this is considered to be a judgment based on stereotypical attitudes towards women, and mostly reflects an attitude of gender discrimination that lacks an understanding of a woman’s situation and needs (U.S. Dept of Labor, 2009).

The studies on the income gap between women and men revealed that women make 77% of what men make. This number came from the comparison between men and women with a full time job, and it does not take into account the type of job and working hours. For example, the comparison was not made between different teachers or between different doctors. The US Department of Labor took into account the education and career choices as part of the equation. By consideration of these factors, they found that women make nearly the same amount as men, which is 94% (U.S. Dept of Labor, 2009).

Moreover, the choices those women make about education affect how much they earn, as women tend to go for fields like health, education, and social science, while men tend to go for engineering and computer science.

Also, women tend to make different choices about their jobs, as they prefer to work part time jobs rather than full time, due to family responsibilities, and take maternity leave for childbirth. As a result, the income gap between men and women is not based on gender discrimination; it is actually affected by the choices that women and men make.

External Organizational Factors

External organizational factors include conditions, entities, events and factors surrounding an organization that influence its activities and choices, and determine its opportunities and risks.

To determine the external organizational factors, we are going to conduct the PEST analysis, which is defined as the external influences that affect the business’ environmental decisions and performance, and can be classified into political, economic, social, and technological factors (Grant & Jordan, 2012).

Political factors

Jordan has always been known for its concern for human rights, and that concern has been reflected on the Kingdom’s stability for the past 40 years. The Jordanian National Charter has clear regulations related to human rights.

Jordan has protected women in their first National Charter regulation, which is, “All Jordanians are equal by the law and have the right to assume public office and the right to work.”
In 1955, the government had given only educated women the right to vote. Then in 1974, all women were given the right to vote, and the right to participate in the general elections (“Jordan - Human Resources - Human Rights,” n.d.).

In contrast, in 1928, the United Kingdom government gave all women the right to vote on par with men (Ford, Goodwin & Cutts, 2012). In addition, in 1920, the United States of America gave all their citizens the right to vote regardless of their sex (Keyssar, 2009).

In 1996, a national committee was developed to support women among governmental and non-governmental sectors. They formulated general policies that defined priorities and programs such as the “Jordanian women union” to support women in different fields (“Jordan - Human Resources - Human Rights,” n.d.).

Jordanian regulations and laws can impact women’s participation in the workforce both positively and negatively. Some of these regulations that intend to protect women have also affected their economical participation and also caused discrimination against them (Council, 2008).

The table opposite presents labor laws and regulations, listed and discussed, according to their effect on female participation in the workforce (Peebles et al., 2007).

**Economic factors**

Women represent half of any given society. Sadly, a large percentage of them are not contributing to the workforce. To ensure the development of any given society, men and women need to be productive and active to be part of the advancement in our society (Olaimat & Al-Louzi, 2010).

Women in Jordan are still affected by many factors that hinder their economic participation, like legal issues, the availability of childcare services, poverty, and the high costs of living. In addition, the role of women in our society and traditional views about women employees lead to low self-esteem and lack of confidence to contribute in the workforce (Olaimat & Al-Louzi, 2010).

Women work in this field in Jordan” (Majcher-teleon & Slimène, 2009).

Some researchers note that the low participation rate of women in Jordan is considered to be a cost on Jordan’s economy. This is especially the case when a large percentage of these women are highly educated, which means that there is a serious waste of human resources (Peebles et al., 2007). Investing in women’s education and employment will lead to building a more efficient human resource base (Moghadam, 2013).

The Ministry of Labor noted that women are not aware and familiar with their labor rights. Therefore, women need to be more informed about their laws and regulations. Moreover, the ability and strength to enforce the labor laws and regulations is needed by the government (Peebles et al., 2007).

**Social factors**

Jordan is a country that has a distinct culture, which is considered to be a nice blend of old and new. However, the traditions in Jordan have a major effect on how people live, think and act. Many foundations have been founded and supported by the royal family, to protect women, empower them and fight for their rights, for the intention of building opportunities for a high quality of life.

A recent study on women in tourism noted that “25.3% of women working in the tourism sector were harassed by colleagues and customers, since it is not commonly accepted that women work in this field in Jordan” (Majcher-teleon & Slimène, 2009).

Women are also perceived to be less capable of handling job difficulties, so they are usually discouraged to join some fields like the technical fields. This is especially the case when some work aspects require field work and late working hours like with construction engineers, which is considered more appropriate for men, with only 0.5% of women in this field (Ojakaa, Olango, & Jarvis, 2014).

Some Jordanian organizations care about and judge based on the physical appearance, so that they tend to hire women who are dressed more fashionable, and are stylish and elegant, especially in the private sectors. Some people are of the opinion that women will get more chances because they are “more beautiful” however, wearing Hijab is a requirement for certain organizations due to the type of customers that they serve. But studies have shown that in the private sectors women wearing the Hijab have problems getting hired. But it is still not clear if this is due to appearance or religious reasons (Peebles et al., 2007).

Getting married is one of the main priorities for men and women in Jordan. Women sometimes work until they find the right husband, and after that, they start to not taking their job seriously or quit their jobs (Sawalha, 1999).

**Technological Factors**

Information technology has spread widely all over the world. Different life sectors such as education, health, government, and customer services are following the latest technology trends, in order to enhance the quality of service, maximize customer satisfaction, and reduce managerial costs.
Table 1: Laws and regulations that impact women within the workforce

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Laws And Regulations</th>
<th>Impact On Women Within The Workforce</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pregnancy, Maternity and Paternity</strong></td>
<td>These laws have been made based on the intention to protect women and to encourage women within the workplace. But unfortunately some organizations consider these laws as an additional cost based on the fact that the maternity leave is paid for 10 weeks and even their absence in that period is also considered a cost for the need to get a replacement to fill their spot in the workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996 Labor code – Law no (8) forbids the firing of pregnant women after the sixth month of pregnancy, or of working mothers during their maternity leave. Old civil service regulations of 1998 increased maternity leave from 60-90 days (2002). The 1996 Labor code requires the private sector to grant maternity benefits to female employees. Article 70 states those 10 weeks of maternity leave should be taken before or after delivery, provided that the period taken after delivery is not less than 6 weeks, and it is illegal for women to work during that period.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child care</strong></td>
<td>Because of these laws discrimination has resulted, as they have built the assumption that a woman’s job is only taking care of their family based on their traditional role. As such, these regulations and laws sometimes discourage institutions to establish appropriate child care as they consider these laws to pose an additional cost. Some employers may act smart by hiring less than 20 married women at one time to avoid the cost of establishing a child care.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 1996 Labor code provides female employees who have worked in establishments for 10 weeks or more the right to one year’s leave without pay for childcare purposes. Article 71 grants the working mother the right to a total of one hour per day to nurse her children for a period of one year after delivery. Article 72 requires employers with a minimum of 20 married women to provide a nursery and qualified childcare worker to care for children under 4 years old, if there are at least 10 children.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prohibited industries</strong></td>
<td>This law was designed for women’s safety, in order to fit our traditions as some jobs are not considered appropriate for women, such as construction fields.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996 Labor Code (Article 69) states that the Minister of Labor can seek the opinion of competent official authorities and decide on industries and jobs prohibited to women.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Our elaboration.
Telecommunication has made it easier for women who have kids to check up on them during the day, and she can even use web cams to keep her eye on her kids during working hours.

On the other hand, these technological improvements introduce some pressures, especially for employees. Nowadays, employees are required to be notified and responsive to their work notifications, even after working hours and on weekends. Now organizations consider this to be their right and employees are obliged to be responsive as long as they have a Smartphone (Hanson, 2007).

Methodology

Our research is typically concerned with women employees, who are considered essential to our society. There has been a trend of women leaving the workforce. Researchers have heavily investigated in separate studies the different factors that influence women within the workforce and lead to discriminatory practices in and out of their working environment.

An IE framework (internal and external factors) will be conducted to categorize the several factors that are considered to be the main reasons behind women leaving the workforce and not contributing to society.

The internal factors are within the working environment, and will be categorized as: gender stereotype, gender inequality, unequal opportunities, and income gap. These factors are all within the control of the organization, and may affect women’s decisions about working, whether to proceed or drop out, and not to contribute to society.

The external factors are the factors that are beyond the control of the organization, and may also affect women’s decisions and intentions about proceeding with their careers. The PEST analysis model will be conducted to analyze the external factors that may affect women employees.

Therefore, this study will be qualitative in nature rather than quantitative as it will give women employees the ability to express their own thoughts and beliefs that they face inside and outside their working environment. Accordingly, we can determine the factors that are mostly affecting women employees and clarify their thoughts and attitudes toward their careers.

The interviewed group includes five women from different organizations, career paths, and marital statuses. The organization environment can influence women employees, it needs to be healthy and understanding of the women’s role in our society, plus their career paths are taken into consideration, because some careers are considered more appropriate for women and vice versa, in addition to their marital status as single women may think differently than married women and even in prioritizing their jobs. This is going to be demonstrated later in this chapter.

Confidentiality is assured, as the records are only going to be heard and analyzed by the researcher group of this study, and neither the interviewers’ names or the name of the organizations they work for are going to be mentioned in the data analysis chapter.

We have extended our research to include an interview with the Jordanian Women Union which is an institution that supports women in Jordan, and offers opportunities to encourage them to work under the right circumstances. They also fight for women’s rights and increase awareness among Jordanian women about their legal rights.

As the general manager of the JWU noted, there are two main factors that actually affect women’s participation in the workforce: first are the social and the cultural values and beliefs, the second are the political factors. This institution has conducted many studies on female participation within the workforce and the level of participation in Jordan.

The general manager noted, “Women present 52% of our society. Accordingly, almost half of our society is inoperative in the production process, and surprisingly that by the increasing level of women education and the rate of turnout on education still women represent only 14% in the Jordanian workforce. Why is this happening?”

In addition, the union believes that if the right requirements within the workforce environment were available for women, like childcare, equal opportunities and decent wages, women would be encouraged to participate in the workforce.

The general manager of the JWU also noted that “marriage sets some responsibilities on women, so that all the work distribution will be against women. For example, women are responsible for their house chores, plus, for the birth of child, in addition to after birth conditions. Accordingly, the mentality and the way men think as if they helped with the house chores they consider themselves like doing some extra work.”

Therefore, we will take into consideration their marital status because women employees tend to think differently according to their marital status, and even discriminatory practices and social perceptions differ from single to married women (Moghadam, 2013).

To summarize, this research will be qualitative in nature to gain a deep understanding of women’s behaviors and beliefs, as we will conduct open interviews using open-ended questions, with women from different institutions and career paths, or even those who have already left the workforce.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is considered one of the most important practices, which is adopted to study and evaluate collected data into useful information. Such practice will lead to better decision-making and building hypotheses.
This section presents data that was collected during our interviews with a sample of five people. As mentioned earlier in the previous chapters, this study will be qualitative in nature.

On another level, we will be testing the IE framework hypothesis to check if it matches the problems that women actually face in their career paths, whether in or out of their working environment.

According to the IE framework, women in the workforce face many discriminatory practices internally and externally. These factors may have a major influence on the level of contribution.

Table 2: Description of the interviewed personnel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Working field</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Woman 1</td>
<td>Mechanical design</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Woman 2</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Woman 3</td>
<td>IT technical Team Lead</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Woman 4</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Woman 5</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Our elaboration.

According to the table above, each of these interviews will be categorized based on the IE framework and beneath each table the data will be analyzed and discussed.

Table 3: Woman 1 IE Framework Analysis

Source: Our elaboration.

According to woman number 1, her career development was hindered based on gender inequality and gender stereotypes, which lead to the unequal attainment of the opportunities offered.

But still she believes that the working environment can’t suit everybody. As she noted, “you can’t request a working environment that suits every working individual.”

She also noted that, “there can be many reasons for me to change my career path, as if I got married I will seek another career such as teaching, but for now I am not considering leaving the workforce.”
In this case, woman number two has a very traditional way of thinking. Accordingly, the social, cultural traditions and beliefs have a major effect on the way she perceives work. She noted that “women can’t manage between their home and jobs so if the family is stable financially, women should stay at home taking care of their kids.”

Regardless of her traditional way of thinking, still it was obvious that her experience within the workforce was not that pleasant. Also, the lack of understanding of women’s needs is setting some obstacles that discourage women from participating.

Woman 3 is a perfect example for such a case, as she can be considered to be a victim of discriminatory practices within the workplace. Some of the employers from the same organization noted that, “she has been in the same management level for 5 years in consequence every raising opportunity that she was supposed get, where given to men based on gender bias.” They also noted that, “She is very smart and hard working women and definitely more appropriate for advancement in her career.”

This woman is considering leaving her work due to her terrible working environment that does not understand women’s needs. The lack of understanding of women’s roles in our society is discouraging women from proceeding with their careers, along with the discriminatory practices that are delaying their development.

Unfortunately, this has led to frustration even with other female employees in the same organization, as they have also noted, “women in this organization go through many difficulties and delays within their development, as here men always get the priority for raises.”

Despite the consequences of the external factors, organizations need to be more concerned about their employer’s productivity, and motivate them by offering the right working conditions.

This woman has made it clear that organizations can make her life much easier if they gave her the opportunity to leave work earlier and finish her tasks at home. Accordingly, the technological factors can be used in a more effective way by the organization to ease the jobs of working mothers.

Source: Our elaboration.

Table 4: Woman 2 IE Framework Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“It was my own choice to leave work, no one has pressured me to do so, because</td>
<td>“Mostly, our society is not familiar with their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women are the ones who eventually get</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tired, because the working environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does not understand the women’s needs, for example my male boss will never</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand what does it mean for us as</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women to leave our children back home.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I believe if the working conditions were more appropriate for women I could have</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>considered not leaving, as long as there is a child care to keep watch over my children.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I believe that a woman should work if she has a decent salary that will offer her kids extra benefits, to compensate her time outside the house.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“In my opinion, women should not work because in our society men are the ones who are responsible for the house allowances so that, they are considered more needed for job opportunities than women.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Woman 3 IE Framework Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“The working hours are too long for me, as I barely have some time to spend it with my kids.”</td>
<td>“Before having my first child I wasn’t familiar with my rights, but after the birth of my first child I suffered as the maternity leave is too short especially that in the private sectors they provide women employees with only two months and 10 days. Public sectors provide women three months maternity, but even though I was barely recovered from the child birth.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The organization does not understand the women’s roles, as they keep pressuring women employees with late working hours.”</td>
<td>“I can’t leave work right now, because I have to participate in the home allowances but maybe later I will, plus I don’t have the time to spend it with my kids.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Gender bias is everywhere in such field because in our organization late working hours are requested. So every time we look into new employers our organization always gives the priority for men plus men can travel across Gulf countries and women usually can’t. In consequence; I don’t blame the organization to be biased toward women in some cases.”</td>
<td>“Our organization should take into consideration the number of working mothers, as I’ve requested for a child care but they keep setting unreasonable reasons for building a child care. Accordingly, they should at least pay for my child care expenses as I should always find someone to take care of my kids at the time I’m away from home and thanks for my mother who is helping.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Raises and training opportunities are more likely given to men, but that doesn’t mean that women don’t get that opportunity, however the priority in our organization goes to men as they consider them more needed for such thing than women.”</td>
<td>“I think that this organization should remove the place restrictions, as within my field (software development) you only need to have your laptop and do the required tasks back home. I always wondered why do they keep me working for extra time or even not leaving earlier though I can finish my tasks back home.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Our elaboration.
Table 6: Woman 4 IE Framework Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I worked for 16 years and 12 years ago I left the workforce.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;My knowledge of the law and regulations is limited but I consider myself familiar compared to other women.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;During my career path I faced discrimination practices as after getting my master degree the institution that I used to work for has offered me to continue my PhD, but disappointedly I discovered later that they gave the opportunity to another man whose qualifications are less in comparison to mine. They gave me unreasonable explanations such as that I’m younger and I may get more opportunities in my life.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I feel that our laws and regulations support women, for example: the maternity leave is 90 days. I see that it is enough, we need to understand that our economy can’t be compared to the economy of other developed countries as they can’t pay you a one year maternity such as Canada.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I believe that women are more organized as they can be more appropriate for higher levels of management regardless that they are less represented in higher levels of management. But in some cases, men are easier to deal with, but the accuracy in making the decisions goes to women.”</td>
<td>“Another reason for leaving the workforce is that leaving my kids home for long working hours is too hard, especially when my eldest child started going to school. More attention is needed in that phase like teaching, so I felt that I’ve started to get tired from work and my job as mother is primary for me.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The main reason for leaving the workforce is the low level of opportunities offered.”</td>
<td>“Besides my salary wasn’t that high and barely covered the expenses of the nanny and transportation.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“But I still believe that women need to work and they are considered an economical support with the house allowances.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I still do some side work, as I have my own painting studio.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Our elaboration.

This woman has left the workforce mainly for external reasons, as she felt that the salary she got wasn’t worth her time out of the house, and the fact that she couldn’t leave her kids in the time when they need their mother most.

Accordingly, women feel that they are the only ones responsible for their kids and house care, and that view comes from the gender stereotype and our traditional view of women.

But still, internal factors can influence the level of participation, as the lack of motivating factors within the working environment; in addition to the unequal treatment have made women less attached to their job and career development.
Table 7: Woman 5 IE Framework Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“In my field I don’t feel that there are many discrimination practices, as teachers are mostly women especially in the lower teaching levels, but sadly in high school they prefer men rather than women, as they consider them more capable of controlling teenagers.”</td>
<td>“As we all know that teaching is the most appropriate job for women.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Consequently, they get more opportunities for raises as the high school teaching levels get higher salaries.”</td>
<td>“I have six kids and my husband salary can’t cover all the house financial expenses, so the idea of me working wasn’t optional.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Our elaboration.

According to this case, unfortunately women work only for financial security, as we didn’t feel that they were seeking it for personal or career development.

Even in fields that are considered most appropriate, women still face discriminatory practices. The female gender role is perceived negatively based on the fact that it is thought that women are weaker and less capable of handling job difficulties.

According to the data analysis, many findings were determined that have supported our hypothesis, and they will be explained and discussed in the next chapter.

Discussion

In this chapter we will discuss our findings related to our hypothesis. As we mentioned earlier, the aim of this study is to ascertain the reasons behind women leaving the workforce and not contributing to society.

Therefore, we have developed a conceptual framework that we thought would be helpful in such a case. Many factors were suggested and many results have been found, and now we will discuss and prove how these results support our hypothesis according to our analysis technique. The figure (Figure 1 page 52) supports our hypothesis as follows:
Figure 1: The IE framework according to women employees

The Internal Factors Analysis

Figure 2: Internal factors affecting women employees within their working environment.

Source: Our elaboration.
Women’s participation levels are affected by these factors, because such discriminatory behaviors lead to frustration and disappointment within the working environment. Consequently, women will tend to feel less attached to their jobs and the plans to leave the workforce are based on external reasons that we are going to explain later in this chapter.

**The External Factors Analysis**

The figures below show some comments about women. We have analyzed them in accordance to the external factors.

**Interview Analysis for the Political Factor**

**Figure 3: Political factor interviews analysis**

According to our analysis, laws and regulations have been developed to favor women as they intend to protect female employees within their working environment.

Besides, we have found out that there is a lack of knowledge among women employees about their laws and rights, which make these laws and rights seem unnecessary to implement.

Disappointedly, discriminatory practices take place even with these laws and regulations. Affected women employees become less motivated to proceed or participate in the workforce on account of the lack of support.
Interview Analysis of Economic Factors

Figure 4: Economic factors Interviews analysis

In line with the participants’ responses, economic factors have an influence on how women employees perceive work, as they consider their jobs as a way to secure their families.

Interview Analysis Social Factors

According to Figure 5 next page, the social factors are the factors that have the largest amount of comments, which means that women employees are mostly getting affected by social and cultural values and traditions.

Women in our society consider themselves as a mother first, then as an employee, therefore their job as a mother is primary. If a woman felt in any way or another that her job is affecting and harming her motherhood, she will have a tendency to leave the workforce (Peebles et al., 2007).

Social factors are not only affecting women roles; they are even affecting women’s choices and preferences. Moreover, women tend to participate in fields that the society finds more appropriate for women, and if the society perceived the opposite, women will feel less comfortable, and will reconsider to change their careers paths (Hattab, 2012).

Figure 5: Social Factors Interview Analysis
Interview Analysis of Technological Factors

Women employees and organizations are not taking into consideration technological factors. But in the technical fields they have very late working hours and sadly they tend to leave women working overtime even though they can complete their tasks at home. We think that further research needs to be done on technological factors and how they can be used more effectively for employees within the organization (Mamaghani, 2006).
The Balance between Women Primary and Secondary Job

Source: Our elaboration.

The Imbalance Between Women’s Primary And Secondary Jobs

Source: Our elaboration.

Figure 6: Balance between women’s primary and secondary job

This figure shows that women tend to participate as long as there is a balance between home and work, regardless of the fact that their role as a mother is their primary job.

Accordingly, as long as the balance has been made, women will benefit from their job, because that will increase the level of security in their families.

Figure 7: Imbalance between women’s primary and secondary jobs

Accordingly an imbalance between home and work can occur due to an unhealthy working environment that stresses women, leading to frustration and disappointment. This can make them less capable of managing their house and they tend to leave the workforce.

Women need to be understood and motivated under the right conditions within the workplace. They need to be encouraged to proceed within an organization’s working environment that is equal, motivating and understanding toward a woman’s role. This will have positive outcomes for women’s participation in the workforce.
Women now are associated with their traditional role as a mother and they perceive it as their primary job, and being a female employee is considered to be their secondary job (Majcher-teleon & Slimène, 2009).

Accordingly, women need to maintain a balance between their primary and secondary job to proceed with their career path. If there is an imbalance, women tend to leave the workforce, because it harms their level of effectiveness in their primary job, and being a mother always goes first in our society.


Williams, J.E. and Best, D.L. (1990), Sex and psyche: gender and self viewed cross-culturally, Sage, Newbury Park, CA.
The role that Nepotism (Wasta) plays in conflict and conflict management within groups in private organizations in Jordan and MENA region

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Abstract

There has been a shortage of relevant studies concerning Nepotism, specifically Wasta and its role in conflict and conflict management within groups in private organizations in Jordan and the MENA (Middle East North Africa) region. The aim of this study was therefore threefold: (i) To identify the antecedents of conflict within groups in private sector in Jordan, (ii) To identify group conflict in the private sector in Jordan and (iii) To identify the positive and negative effects of the antecedents of conflict such as Nepotism in specific Wasta, and Diversity private sector in Jordan. The effect of conflict and its antecedents on group performance is also examined. Interviews with managers in the private sector in Jordan and MENA were conducted in order to achieve the study objectives. Managers in the private sector in Jordan have concerns regarding Wasta and its effects on the performance of group members. However, there is a modern approach to Wasta and this paper will try to convey the principles behind it.

Key words: Nepotism; Wasta; Guanxi; Jeitimho; networking; and pulling strings.

1. Introduction

Conflict is a phenomenon that affects the everyday processes within group members in organizations and life in general. Studying conflict dimensions and the factors that contribute to conflict is essential in managerial contexts. Subsequently, it has become a topic widely discussed among researchers; some say that conflict may in fact produce a positive effect on the group performance, namely Simons and Peterson (2000), whereas others, such as Jehn (1995) disagree. Pruitt and Rubin (1986), analyze that beliefs and background may play a role in creating conflict, and therefore, any factor related to background and beliefs is worth looking further into, in order to analyze their effects upon conflict. Nepotism is the bigoted practice of hiring relatives and friends by a person in power or an authority figure. It is especially interesting studying Nepotism and analyzing its effect on conflict creation and management. Locally known as Wasta in the MENA region, Nepotism may also involve strangers whom are connected to an authority figure in a way or another. According to Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993), Wasta literally translates to ‘the middle’ and is associated with the verb ‘yatawatsat’, which translates to the act of “steering parties toward a middle point or compromise.” Hence, Wasta refers to both the individual hiring relatives and friends on the basis of prejudice and the person who mediates or intercedes.

Wasta has been an institutional part of Jordanian society since its creation. In fact, according to Cunningham and Sarayrah (1994), its tribal origins have centered on an intermediary role that is associated with prevention of retaliation in inter-personal or inter-group conflict. In accordance with the premise that Wasta is also a factor within Nepotism as a phenomenon (and works upon that concept of giving an advantage of those who are from the same background or family or relation), the analysis between the relation of Nepotism (namely Wasta in this context) and group conflict within private organizations in MENA region and Jordan to the most part, is of the essence, as it has not yet become commonly linked in the managerial context. According to Smith et al.
Mohamed and Hamdy (2008) make further references to the types of Wasta and the results of Wasta on the qualifications of employees. Furthermore, Shirazi (2010) analyzes the cause of Wasta and its relation to the implementation of a proper education system in Jordan, which weakens the economic stance, and that education is the medicine for Wasta. Vodosek (2007) analyzes the culture and conflict management relation, conflict resolution and legal litigation needs of Wasta, and its underlying history.

Wasta has become a norm in the Middle East and Jordan and part of the society, even in the smallest aspects of Arab life according to Shah et al. (1993), in the observation of the extent to which it affects group conflict within organizations. In fact, it is not restricted to the group of “relatives and friends” associated with nepotism, but may involve further dimensions such as hiring someone as a return for a favor. With the recognition that it is a critical, if not an almost indispensable factor in several organizations, and yet has not been studied from a theoretical point of view, this particular study will be beneficial in terms of creating awareness on the role that Wasta plays in conflict and conflict management within organizations, and with the aim of reaching a conclusive analysis that helps identify Wasta and its link to conflict.

With regard to the interrelation between Diversity and Wasta, our hypothesis remains that diversity and Wasta contribute to tribal connections, which are part of the diversity context. From a social context, as citizens living in Jordan, we have indeed also experienced the diversity in relation to tribal backgrounds; the opportunity of finding a job does differ according to the tribal background and includes events in which one may be faced with almost undiplomatic questions (such as the full name, family history, third-degree relatives, etc.) that try to determine a person’s tribal background; this particular instance, for example, translates into what we commonly face the context of Wasta.

Organizational Conflict
There are several definitions of conflict that may result from the strongly divergent needs of the two parties, or due to the lack of mutual understanding. Conflict may for instance occur when both parties are working towards the same goal, and generally aim for a similar outcome, as well as alternatively, when both parties seek highly different outcomes. On a similar note, Pruitt and Rubin (1986) argued that “the perceived divergence of interest, or belief that the parties’ current aspiration cannot be achieved simultaneously.”

After defining conflict, we move to acknowledging its characteristics and levels. There are several levels of conflict, the first level being Intrapersonal or intra-psychic conflict. According to Bazerman, Tenbrunsel and Benzoni (1998), this level of conflict develops within individuals, within their thoughts, emotions, values, beliefs and/or ideas. An example of such instance could be a situation wherein a father goes through the emotional struggle of wanting to punish his son for bad behavior, yet finding the difficulty of acting upon that due to his altruistic emotions towards him. This type of conflict is analyzed and managed by psychologists and psychiatrists.

A second major level of conflict is interpersonal conflict. Such conflict occurs between individuals within organizations, such as co-workers, as well as spouses, siblings, roommates, or neighbors on a daily basis. For instance, a problematic situation may arise if an employee experiences agitation due to the behavior of a coworker of theirs, in which case explicit conflict is reflected through elaboration on words and actions.

The final level of conflict is intragroup conflict; it describes conflict between the members of organizations, ethnic groups, and communities. Conflict within a group will result in difficulties making a decision, since members are not agreeing on the same matters or points of thought. As a result, the productivity of this group will decrease, and objectives will not be achieved due to the variety of opinions and disagreement on goals. The involvement of a large number of people in this kind of conflict makes it much more problematic in terms of both interpretation and management.

In order to attain a deeper and broader understanding of conflict, there are several types of conflict, which mainly constitute of task, relationship, and process. According to Mannix (2003), task conflict is, basically speaking, the disagreement between individuals within groups, due to differing opinions on how tasks should be carried out, such as the allocation of resources, or the implementation of a strategy within organizations. According to Jehn (1997), relationship conflict arises from personal differences among individuals in groups, and is not task related. Instead, such conflict is for the most part focused around social events, gossip, political views and of course, different perspectives. Thirdly, process conflicts consist in disagreements within individuals, in relation to matters such as the way in which a job should be approached, the persons responsible for certain tasks, as well as how things should be delegated and performed. As Mannix (2003) maintains, process conflict is different from task and relationship conflict; each one has a different effect on group performance.

Literature Review
Wasta can have both positive and negative effects, just as is the case with diversity; it can create motivation and enhance the type of competition in working environments, where people start to work harder in order to prove their competencies. Yet on the other hand, it may also create jealousy or hatred among members because of comparisons, such as whose Wasta happens to be stronger or better. Furthermore, diversity as a result of Wasta might play a role in conflict. Janssen et al. (1996) state that conflict, as a result of the role that diversity and Wasta play, can have a positive or a negative effect on group members within an organization. It can create a positive, as well as a competitive atmosphere that can motivate group members, while some of us envisage the competitive environment to become hostile and unstable, or unsuitable for a healthy working environment (Shirazi, 2010).
There has been a debate in organizational research regarding whether or not agreement and disagreement within groups could be advantageous. According to Jehn (1994), conflict can be useful for team performance and can be beneficial for the outcome, as it may also create healthy competition or motivation, and henceforth lead to the enhancement of problem-solving skills amongst individuals. On the other hand, relationship conflict is harmful in that it may lead to a negative relationship between co-workers, team effectiveness, and thereof, creating a hostile environment. Working on non-routine procedures requires task conflict, since creative and deliberate thinking is necessary in order to solve the issues that come up. More precisely, Amason and Schweiger (1997) argue that team members and groups focus on each other—i.e., facing relationship conflict, which as a result creates a hostile environment, functioning as a distraction from focusing on task-related performance issues. Hulin (1990) also adds that the nature of such conflict leads to high turnover of members, such as absenteeism. Decision-making suffers from relationship conflict more significantly, as opposed to task conflict. In their research, De Dreu et al. (2003) conclude that both task and relationship conflict are disruptive, as both sources of conflict fundamentally affect team performance, and hence, leading us to the point that no conflict is worse than the other.

From a managerial perspective, there are three types and levels of conflict within formal organizations. The first type is what is known as the bargaining conflict among parties of an interest-group relationship. On the other hand, the bureaucratic conflict typically occurs between the parties of a superior-subordinate relationship, such as that between an employee and his or her supervisor. Finally, systems conflict arises among parties of an adjacent or working relationship. As Pondy (1967) explains, such conflict may occur between two managers of different departments on the same organizational level.

**Diversity and Nepotism**

As far as we have determined through our review on literature, a matter which has the greatest impact upon conflict within groups in organizations, is the diversity that exists between people’s thoughts, backgrounds, and social statuses. The dissimilarities between culture, thoughts, background, beliefs, and social status of certain individuals play a role in Nepotism and Wasta. Therefore, Wasta is consistently related to diversity.

When there is diversity within groups, this may trigger conflict within the groups concerned. Mannix and Neale (2005) discuss the two perspectives of diversity, including both the positive and negative effects. The argument goes as follows: the more diversity we have, the higher the likelihood for amplified creativity in performance, as well as knowledge leading to better quality in a team or group performance. Youssef (2001) states that diversity creates social divisions. These can create negative performance outcomes for the group.

The most common understanding of diversity, introduced by Williams & O’Reilly (1998), states that it is any characteristic that another individual may use to perceive another person’s dissimilarities. As a result, researchers, including Mannix and Neale (2005), have chosen to utilize the existing information concerning various labeling schemes, based on features such as race or gender, or labeling built upon proportions, such as the size of the minority, so as to further refine the definition of diversity in teams. With regard to the types and categories of diversity, that can be a trigger in conflict within groups, there are three primary theoretical perspectives: the similarity-attraction paradigm, self- and social categorization, and information processing.

The similarity-attraction theory detects similarities in characteristics, such as attitudes, values, and beliefs. The similarity-attraction paradigm was developed to understand the business relationships between two parties. However, it is also worth noting that individuals can express preferences for membership in particular groups, even when they have had no prior social interaction with the members of that group. According to Mannix and Neale (2005), this is primarily a cognitive process of categorization—i.e., individuals are assumed to have a classified structure of self-categorizations at the personal, group, and superordinate levels. Finally, the information-processing theory views diversity as a positive factor, by creating an environment that enhances group performance. In other words, according to this theory, by having different backgrounds and experiences, productivity should improve accordingly. Although, Mannix et al. (2005) note that this might also cause problems deliberating from these differences.

Since we know that Nepotism is a main factor in conflict creation, especially as it is related to diversity and commonly used within organizations in Jordan and the MENA region, it is also important to recognize the several types of Nepotism: Wasta, Guanxi, Jeitimho, networking, and pulling strings, each based on a different culture and region. As Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993) explain, Wasta is that which commonly arises in the Arab world; it is when relationships between people are used to achieve goals through linking middle people who share common benefits, favors, interests, background, and/or characteristics. On the other hand, Jeitimho, a common word and concept used in the Brazilian world, refers to achieving short-term solutions to problems. It can be used to avoid difficulties with superiors in a strong hierarchal context. According to both Barbosa (1995), Jeitimho involves working with a person who may or may not be an acquaintance. Furthermore, Pulling strings is common in the United Kingdom, and is based on gaining favors through networks, which may be either long-term connections (such as family), or short-term connections (such as acquaintances).

Guanxi and Wasta refer to being extra pleasant to the superiors, such as buying them gifts, calling them, or visiting them through holidays. If the establishment of this relationship fails, this will consequently also lead to a loss on the part of the person who wants the benefit.

In Jordan and the MENA region, Wasta—which literally translates to ‘the middle’, is commonly used in a mutual benefit context. It involves a middle person or median gives
a particular benefit for a certain party. This benefit can be mutual or a returned favor. According to Van de Vliert et al. (1993), a favor may be done according to the relation of tribal background and origin. The Wasta or middle person holding a high social and economic status can be asked to give the solution of a problem. However, Wasta has evolved from conflict resolution as a means of survival and intercession. In fact, according to Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993), to maintain one’s place of honor within contemporary Jordan, Wasta is used to achieve what is perceived unattainable. Wasta is not only a conflict creator. The main use of Wasta back in the 1930s was conflict resolution, after which it evolved like any cultural aspect. According to De Dreu et al. (2001), any social intermediation would solve the most complicated conflict back in the 1930s and 1940s and until this day, conflict of homicides and murders are solved using Wasta within huge Jordanian tribes.

According to Abdallah (1996), an Arab individual, concerned with conflict management, sets the other person in the right social place, as people usually identify the tribal and family name before any business interaction. However, the creation of an anchoring relation and bond is essential for any business relation. To move from the Arab world to the west, individuals are more interested in personal value and professional success.

Today, Wasta is perceived in a different light, people are now more aware of its use and acceptance. As a result of globalization, Western working methods and values are adopted; qualified employees are a must, as well as the incorporation of their experience in the field of work. In other words, and as Ali (1992) expresses, risks cannot be taken while hiring people, especially though Wasta.

The use of Wasta is very contradictory; it is a legal act within certain sectors and working environments within the business society, yet may also act as the root for a questionable amount of unethically bigoted and even illegal results. In relation to this contradictory nature, Danet (1989) suggest that if you, for instance, happened to be a CEO of a company, it is acceptable to hire someone using Wasta, but if you hear that someone else in another company did the same, you will immediately consider it immoral. Rugh (2002) also adds that, in the past generation, the use of Wasta was an important tool in life. Today, the younger generations in society are highly educated and aware that they are less likely to use Wasta in the wrong way.

**Methodology**

Our research objective is to identify: i) the different practices or employments of Wasta, ii) the effects of Wasta, iii) the conflict created by the appliance of Wasta within organizations, as well as iv) the potential effects upon the quality of work within private organizations in Jordan due to Wasta. After conducting the interview, we will be able to conclude upon the thoughts and perceptions regarding the particular role that is played by Wasta in conflict and conflict management within organizations, namely in private organizations within Jordan and the MENA region.

Our interview questions where set in accordance with our research model, further portrayed in (Figure 1), as well as the core contexts discussed earlier in the literature review section. To be more precise, the research model was established after the study of several sources regarding conflict, Wasta, and diversity, focusing on the factors that can play a role in conflict in relation to Wasta.

**Interview questions**

- **Part 1:**
  1. What is your position in the company?
  2. How long have you been working with your company?
  3. Which sector is your company’s sector in the Jordanian market?
  4. Is it considered a private or public company?
  5. How many employees are under your direct supervision?
  6. How many employees are in the company?
  7. Does your company operate in other countries? If yes, please state which country. And if you are involved in the other countries management teams, how are you involved?
  8. When has your company been established?
  9. How is your organizational structure constructed? In teams or groups (define the difference between teams and groups)?
  10. How often do you witness conflict in your group members (state types of conflict)?
  11. Can you define what kind of conflict or describe it based on the definitions given before in Q10?
  12. Do you think diversity creates conflict? If yes why do you think so? (define diversity)

**Research Model:**

- Antecedents of Conflict
- Group Conflict
- Effects; Positive and Negative
- Organization’s Performance
- WASTA
- Conflict Management

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Table 1: The respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Years in the company</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Education/Technology/Private</th>
<th>Establishment of company</th>
<th>Countries of operation</th>
<th>Number of employees under supervision</th>
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<td>1955</td>
<td>KSA, Turkey, UK, Japan, Europe</td>
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Data Analysis

For our research, both primary and secondary data will be used to aid and expand our areas of knowledge and discussion. This includes literature review and the gathering of Primary data, namely business books, in addition to different websites, journals, research, and articles, in order to help understand the topic, as well as narrow down the research. Our secondary data was obtained by conducting interviews with managers from private organizations in Jordan, working in companies that also operate in the MENA region and Gulf area.

Discussion

To begin with the analysis of the results obtained, we will be discussing the answers that follow from the interviewees’ perspectives based on the previous questions, to enable a thorough analysis.

Conflict within groups and teams

In accordance with our research model, our main subject of study and discussion is the conflict within groups and teams in private organizations in Jordan and the MENA region.

One of our questions, question 9, was designated to inquire on the ways in which our interviewees or respondents define their organizational structure, as well as how their definitions of teams or groups differ in particular: “How do you define your organizational structure? Do you work in teams or groups?”

According to our analysis, all seven interviewees stated that, in correspondence with their organizational structure, they prefer to work in teams. Some of the interviewees stated that they work both individually and in teams, depending on the nature of the project or task required. Furthermore, interviewee 6 stated, “for every project there is a different team that is founded.” Interviewee 5 added: “We are a team based company—we do not work on projects, but we work on products.” However, to emphasize the argument that most organizations prefer team-based work, according to the tasks that need to be done, it is worth noting an elaboration made by interviewee 1 that, “when working in a startup you cannot define groups and teams—everyone needs to work in whatever is assigned to get things done.”

It appears that employees today are not as concerned if it is a team or group based organizational structure; the main concern here is the outcome and effective fulfillment within a healthy work environment.

Moving on to study the rate of recurrence in relation to conflict, we set off by querying the frequency in which our interviewees or respondents have witnessed conflict in relation to their group members-i.e. question 10:”How often do you witness conflict in your group members?” According to just four interviewees, it seems that conflict rarely takes place in their organization. As for the rest of our interviewees, it has been clearly stated that conflict happens very often within the organizations they are involved in.

This led us to question 12: “Do you think conflict has a positive or a negative effect on group performance?” Most of the interviewees agreed that conflict may have both a negative and/or a positive impact on group performance. In the following example interviewee 1 specified the levels of conflict escalation and how it evolves with time:

“On the day of the conflict, performance goes down to almost zero. On the other hand, after that the performance goes from what is normal (70%) to a significantly higher rate in performance (90%). Employees become more motivated and need to prove their point regardless of whether the conflict was on their side or someone else’s side, so it does create motivation.”

On the contrary, interviewee 2 mentioned the negative aspects of conflict:

“Conflict has a very negative effect on performance, because there will be a negative atmosphere and they will be more focused on how to solve the conflict or to obtain what they personally believe is right. For example, seeking revenge from the person they are in dispute with, which will distract them from focusing on the task itself and being productive instead.”

Interestingly, interviewee 3 went forth in declaring the positive sides of conflict through a metaphorical example:

“If you have a mountain and you want to get to the top of the mountain, there are a million ways of arriving at the desired point; you can go around, you can go straight, you can jump, you can crawl and so on. This is the nature of diversity: some people are comfortable with crawling, while others are not. This is what brings us all together, you will learn from people how to do things differently.”
Antecedents of conflict, diversity and Wasta interrelated to conflict

It is of great importance to analyze whether or not diversity plays a role in creating conflict within organizations. According to what we found from the previous research, diversity is interrelated to conflict. We approached this area by raising question 13: “Do you think diversity creates conflict? If yes, why do you think it is so?”

Interviewee 1 suggested that: “Diversity is both positive and negative. When it is positive, it is because we have different backgrounds, and so, we get better outcomes, as everyone shares their own experience and way of thinking. However, having a high level of diversity will cause conflict at times, in which case everyone needs to figure out why is this happening and how—recognizing if your experiences and background are appropriate given that specific context. So, if you look at the positives, they are significantly more apparent than the negatives—that is, if people look at it in a professional and beneficial way.”

On the other hand, interviewee 2 stated that: “Diversity helps reduce conflict—the less diversity, the more conflict you have within the organization.” He explained this further by giving a real life example from his own experience:

“I’ve worked in an organization where every employee was from a different country and the harmony between employees was amazing. There were employees from India, Pakistan, Palestine, Jordan, Egypt and Saudi Arabia and we all became friends because there was no single group of people with a similar background, and so everyone was equally interested in working together.”

On the other hand, interviewee 3 suggested the opposite, as she mentioned that when dealing with diversity, “you have to know how to deal with people,” and further specified her statement by adding:

“Since people come from different cultures and backgrounds, you cannot deal with each person in a unique manner, because it may lead to a misunderstanding in relation to what the other person wants to achieve from this task.”

Furthermore, interviewee 4 stressed upon the fact that diversity creates conflict by laying emphasis on the fact that not only is there a correlation between diversity and conflict, but that it is not only present in organizations. In fact, “diversity creates a misunderstanding in terms of communication in general.” To elaborate upon the latter argument, our respondent gave the following example based upon his working experience in France: “An individual from France for instance is more predisposed to indirect communication, as they are not straight to the point. Unlike the Anglo-Saxon system of communication, France and any country that was affected by the French culture, such as Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, would turn around the ideas rather than just to convey the idea.” To be more specific in regards to culture and systems of countries, she also stated that, “In the American system (i.e. the Anglo-Saxon system), communication is more direct and hence, enables one to really convey their ideas, making less room for conflict of interest in the Anglo-Saxon managerial system. As opposed to the French managerial system, Jordan is more of an Anglo-Saxon System.”

On the contrary, on a more or less optimistic note, a particular respondent offered a different point of view, as he said: “I think diversity brings happiness and prosperity because it brings new ideas and cultures, as well as new ways of communication, making it a positive component to a company.” Additionally, interviewee 5 offered the following example from his personal experience: “I personally support diversity in the company. We hire people from ISAAC. In fact, we have a Chinese employee and are going to hire another lady from India, as well as Turkey, based on our belief that different types of thinking will contribute toward better results.”

In accordance with the points gained from our respondents, it seems reasonable to assert that diversity has a positive impact on organizations, as the most successful organizations in the world have much diversity in their workforce, for example: Microsoft, Apple, and many others.

The second area of analysis, antecedents of conflict, Wasta

Due to our belief, Wasta is a very important area of study, as it plays a major role in the managerial context of private organizations in Jordan and the MENA region. We have decided to ask the managers to give their opinion on Wasta, as well as the role it plays in conflict and conflict management. We started with question 1: “How do you define Wasta from your own perspective?” Interviewee 1 gave the definition of Wasta, in relation the recruiting process, by stating the following:

“Wasta is outside people interfering in the actual work for unnecessary reasons, sometimes having an employee work in the company with no good experience, which is bad and affects the company’s moral aspect. When someone is hired by Wasta and is not qualified, they will fail in the job as a whole.”

On the other hand, in addition to providing a definition, interviewee 2 stressed on the point that if the person with Wasta is qualified then there is no harm in hiring them:

“Wasta is an individual bringing in another related individual into an organization. Whether that person is a relative or a friend, it will not make a difference if the person concerned is qualified, which makes it a good thing. However, sometimes this person is not qualified which is bad, and it creates obstacles within the organization.”

Hence, the definition by this particular respondent shed a light upon the dual nature of Wasta, as well as perhaps the potential obstacles in approaching such matter.

Moreover, interviewee 3 brought to light another perspective, asserting that Wasta is good when used to achieve a proper business relation, as it guarantees working with someone...
who is recommended and familiar. To quote this particular respondent: “Wasta is when you use other people’s achievements in life to benefit your own.” Our respondent explained that Wasta is not always a negative thing, since knowing someone you want to do business with is oftentimes much easier than doing business with someone you do not know personally, and hence cannot guarantee the success of the ensuing cooperation. In fact, to him it is simply a process of helping and recommending someone, and which he explained further by providing an example of a means by which it could be applied, such as, “by placing the CV of the person with Wasta on top of the other CVs.”

In accordance with the answers received from our respondents, it seems reasonable to assert that depending on the manner in which it is implemented within the managerial context, Wasta can be a factor in conflict creation and at the same time may also function as an opportunity creator.

Proceeding to analyze the interrelation of the antecedents of conflict (Wasta), as well as the role it plays in conflict and conflict management, we asked the following question 2: “Do you think Wasta plays a role in conflict amongst team members?” Interviewee 1 argued that Wasta can be a conflict creator if it is used in an improper or incompetent manner and stressed that: “Yes, if the person was unfairly hired with Wasta, and not qualified,” this will most likely cause conflict amongst team members. He also analyzed that the sequences of such type of conflict will appear later on, with a more integrated effect, explaining that: “Such conflict will not appear on the spot; such conflict will appear late and cause further conflicts.”

Interviewee 2 described the role Wasta plays in conflict by giving a real life example, and said:

“Yes, of course. My manager hired his younger brother and he has a minimal stage of autism, making him incapable of communicating properly with people. As a sales person, he has been in this position for two or three years, and no one really wants him to stay in the company because he is pulling his team back. Yet no one can do anything about it. When people talk to our manager about his autistic brother, it only leads to arguments and disputes between the manager and those complaining about the situation. Such a situation creates more conflict, triggered by the general tension created by the initial conflicting situation between the manager and his employees, due to the fact that a complaint was taken personally by the person in charge.”

To furthermore analyze Wasta and the role it plays in conflict, we wanted to observe its commonality. Therefore, we asked question 3: “Have you ever witnessed Wasta within your working space?” Interviewee 2 stated that he had witnessed Wasta more than once in his working space and provided a real life example:

“My manager hired his friend’s daughter, who was not qualified, and that lead to a lot of issues within our company. She only stayed for six months, during which she delayed the team. In other words, she was a burden on the team. She weighed us down, instead of contributing to our progress as a team, as she was not even interested in the job, but merely accepted it due to her father’s demands.”

In relation to this, interviewee 3 stated that, “it is very common, and that in Jordan it is more common in the public sector rather than the private sector.” On the other hand, interviewee 5 provided us with a new perspective on Wasta by saying:

“In our company, our CEO is a feminist, and thus, is devoted to empowering women. However, she assigned an unqualified manager just because she is a female and she would support her even when the general manager, who is also the CEO’s husband, would note something wrong about the work of the newly assigned manager. Only after 7 years did the CEO realize that she cannot support her anymore.”

Through their answer, not only did our respondent expose the biased favoring practiced by those entitled to hire, bearing in mind that the general manager is also related to the CEO, but the example provided by our respondent brought to light the potential gender issues in relation to Wasta worth examining further in future research. As for the answers received from the rest of our respondents, there appeared to be no real case of Wasta. Bearing in mind that the respondents were from a private sector, and recalling our earlier deduction that Wasta is significantly more common in the public sector rather than the private sector, it appears that, indeed, the organizational strategy of these particular respondents makes sure that Wasta does not take place in their working environment.

To sum up our analysis and conclusions regarding Wasta, we inquired about the perceptions of managers in relation to the qualifications of their employees, by asking our respondents question 4: “Do you think that the employees within your working space are qualified for their jobs?” Interviewee 1 stated that “80% are qualified, whereas the remaining 20% are not, due to the fact that they had been hired without sufficient familiarity with their backgrounds or previous experience, but Wasta was at no point involved in this equation.” On the other hand, interviewee 2 stated that:

“Even if the person hired is initially qualified, yet as an employee does not work hard to improve and develop their skills and position within the organization, he/she will become unqualified for the job. Then again, if a person is not qualified for a job but works hard to develop and improve, they will have a better chance in keeping their job and becoming qualified ultimately.”

Contrariwise, interviewee 4 stated that throughout his working experience, all the occurrences of Wasta encountered by him were appropriate recommendation of qualified individuals. Interviewee 5 gave an extended perception for the qualifications of the employees by providing the following explanation: “If we have technical employees who were hired by Wasta and we later discover that they are not qualified after all, we can always transfer them to another department where they might still perform a great job.”
Moving on from the qualifications of employees, the broader context to be dealt with is the role Wasta plays in the conflict within the organization as a whole. The purpose of the following questions is to tackle issues of performance within organizations. In fact, performance is the most important factor in our research model; it is the means by which we may determine a comprehensive outcome for our research question. We started off by asking our respondents question 5: “Do you think Wasta affects the performance and the outcome achieved by the company?” Interviewee 5 explained:

“If a person was hired with Wasta, this person will stay for a specific period of time, during which they may prove themselves to be working properly, in which case they are certified to stay. At the end of the day, this is a business, and we need employees to work efficiently. Hence, if someone is hired by Wasta and proves that they are not good enough, they will be dismissed, because ultimately, this is a business, and it requires someone who may provide the company with a proper KPI (key performance indicator). All in all, with or without Wasta, if the employee concerned is bringing back profit and working, they are here to stay. However, if faced with the opposite situation, the person will by default be dismissed from the position. In other words, if the person affects the performance and quality of work in an adverse manner, they will be removed.”

Interviewee 3 expressed a bilateral view on whether Wasta affects the performance and the outcome achieved by the company, stating that any person with Wasta is most probably qualified, which would therefore function as a positive influence upon performance. However, she then stated the opposite regarding her experience in the public sector, explaining the following:

“In this company, it works as a positive factor, because when you hire someone using Wasta, this means you hired someone through the employment of a strong network, which aids in the recruitment and selection process, leading to positive outcomes and performance within the organization. However, in the public sector, it works negatively, since people that are hired come from one family, leading to no diversity at all. Additionally, not all of those hired are qualified, leading to a significant decline in performance and outcomes.”

In light of the points made by our respondents, the common pattern that seems to be highlighted is that Wasta affects the performance and the outcomes achieved by the company. It appears that, since private sectors are more concerned with performance leading to profit, as opposed to the public sectors, that will consequently lead to a distinction in terms of how Wasta transpires as a concept within each organization.

The final point of analysis in our research model is conflict management. To attain an accurate analysis and a desired outcome, we must thoroughly study, as well as analyze the tools used in solving conflict. Since conflict is interrelated to all its antecedents, it is necessary to obtain knowledge regarding the general approach and means through which conflict is solved. Thus, in addition to the theoretical approaches previously mentioned in our literature review, enquiring about the tools used in conflict management leads to a clearer vision on the unit of conflict management. This particular point of analysis was realized by asking our interviewees question 6: “Do you have tools to solve conflict within groups?”

Most of the interviewees agreed on the point of having open communication as the tool to solve conflict. One of our respondents stressed that: “The only tool that works so far is open communication. As long as people talk and they cover all points in a fair and unbiased manner, this should be a sufficient means of conflict management.” To further verify this point, interviewee 2 stated that: “The purpose of open communication is to ensure awareness in relation to each person’s opinion, whether it is about a task or a personal conflict. In order to assist in the process of being a fair manager.”

On the other hand, a respondent of ours declared that there is no formal or written tool to solve conflict, and so, according to the nature of each conflict, they sit and talk. In case this is not sufficient enough to solve or manage the conflict, interviewee 3 explained that, “the conflict is to be taken to a higher level of supervision and management.” On the contrary, interviewee 4 proposed that they have meetings to tackle the problem, in order to figure out the solution rather than imposing one solution.

The most formal tool we detected was given by interviewee 5, who stated the following:

“Usually we apply what is known as ‘personal-development talk’ every year. This means you will be evaluated and will also evaluate others based on leadership style, management style, time management and technical skills. The evaluation is then followed by gathering objectives for the upcoming year, in order to ensure improvement in all the aspects noted, as well as a clear vision on the development of each individual receiving the evaluation. This is merely one of the tools we apply often. Another one of our commonly used approaches would be the ‘open space policy’. As we mentioned previously, we are more result oriented, we also follow the capability maturity model integrated it keeps employees on the right path.”

All that being considered, we may infer that the tools for solving conflict vary, be it from one company to another, or from one form of leadership to the other; it is ultimately dependent on the organization and its structure.

Interviewee 5 elaborated on the importance of focusing on the quality of the individuals hired, so as to guarantee sufficient performance within the company. Agreeing with interviewee 1 and 3, our respondent added:

“This is especially important in the private sector, because they are well aware of situations where you hire someone who is unqualified and you receive the blame for such action. At the end of the day, you want to hire someone to achieve a good outcome. I do not know about the public sector, but in the private sector we hire the best candidates because we want the performance to be better as well.” This is not a certain tool to solve conflict but it is a precautionary measure that prevents a situation where there can be conflict created due to wrong choices of employees.
Limitations and Recommendations

One limitation is that our study and research has been based upon the past fifteen years, and is therefore is focused on that period. Also the underlying subject discussion has its challenges or limitations, as it involves several cultural constrains. The awareness of such topic is very limited within the Arab society.

For future recommendations, it would be more stimulating to study larger organizations, and their day-to-day activities, while observing the antecedents of conflict. Some of our interviewees also suggested that it would be beneficial to study parts of the public sector to see how the antecedents of conflict can play a role in public and governmental institutes.

Conclusion

Our study shed the light on a new side of Nepotism, Wasta, and the role it plays within the antecedents of conflict. The factors that contribute to the conflict are essential within managerial contexts. Subsequently, it has become a topic widely discussed among researchers whether conflict may in fact produce a positive effect on the group performance, namely Simons and Peterson (2000), whereas others, such as Jehn (1995) disagree. With our qualitative research we have reached the conclusion that conflict can create positive and negative effects on group performance. Some of the interviewees expressed that, when conflict evolves, it can create positive and healthy competition. On the other hand, some interviewees stated that when conflict occurs it can lead to misinterpretations of thoughts, leading to hatred within the group members.

Pruitt and Rubin (1986) analyze that beliefs and background may play a role in creating conflict, and therefore, any factor related to background and beliefs is worth looking further into, in order to analyze their effects upon conflict. Since nepotism or the bigoted practice of hiring relatives and friends by a person in power or an authority figure, as a concept, is also in direct association with the backgrounds and beliefs of persons, studying Nepotism and analyzing its effect on conflict creation and management is of interest. Locally known as Wasta in the MENA region, Nepotism here is not merely restricted to such groups, but may involve strangers whom are connected to this authority figure in a way or another. Antecedents of conflict, such as Wasta and diversity, can play a role in conflict creation and management within private organizations. There is a positive and negative effect of those antecedents. Some people view Wasta as a positive aspect that leads to job recommendations, hence job opportunity creation. On the other hand, others perceive Wasta, when used in an unprofessional way, as a factor that creates conflict within group members in organizations. As for the second antecedent, which is diversity, some interviewees perceive it as a positive factor that supports learning from other people’s experiences and ideas. Diversity can also create conflict, because of the miscommunication and misinterpretation between the members of a group.

References


Applying the Expectancy Theory to Explain the Motivation of Public Sector Employees in Jordan

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to examine the motivation of public sector employees in Jordan. A modified model of Vroom's expectancy theory, which includes five components: expectancy, extrinsic instrumentality, intrinsic instrumentality, extrinsic valence, and intrinsic valence is adopted and applied to 258 employees of 13 public sector institutions in Amman. It remains to be seen in what extent do intrinsic and extrinsic factors motivate employees and how should managers incorporate strategies in order to make sure that the rewards are answered with increased productivity.

Introduction

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has been facing a number of serious problems. Since its independence in 1946, it has suffered from several wars, a lack of natural resources, and multiple refugee crises. The recent turbulences that resulted from the Arab spring have also had a great economic impact on the country, such as an overload of refugee capacity and a negative effect on tourism. Unfortunately, all these problems that hindered progress and development could not be controlled.

However, one of the main problems that impact the country is one that is fully within control yet seems impossible to solve, that is, public sector performance. Standing at a rate of over 40% of total employment with approximately 225,000 employees, it is clear that one of the first noticeable problems is overhiring with continuous decline in the quality of services. This causes a long list of serious problems affecting government performance.

In an effort to reduce unemployment, which as of mid-2014 stands at 12%, the government employed 12,000 people annually during the past few years. This has led to serious problems of burdening the government financially as well as increasing the gap between employees’ knowledge and the skills required for their jobs, all in all leading to decreased productivity.

There have been serious efforts to improve performance through civil service system reforms, increasing motivation with awards such as the King Abdullah II award for excellence in government performance and transparency (initiated ten years ago) and International Organization for Standardization (ISO), which hopes to also boost creativity in the public sector, an element that is severely lacking. However, there’s still not enough improvement.

Although progress has been witnessed in certain departments, such as Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department, and the Department of Civil Status, most ministries and public sector institutions are still suffering from low quality services and administrative flabbiness. The civil service system's latest
reforms should in theory motivate employees to perform better. Among the reforms made, there have been several that addressed rewards for performance.

Such a reform was an amendment to article 76 which used to limit the number of times an employee could be upgraded based on merit removed the limit, which should increase performance and competitiveness. It is worth mentioning that merit upgrading is based on the employee's annual evaluation for the last 5 years (last 2 years: Excellent, the 3 years before: Very good) and a clean record (no disciplinary action taken against him/her).

Another important amendment is that now employment is by contracts, thus lowering the feeling of absolute job security that makes some employees less productive. Now an employee has to uphold a certain level of performance to ensure he or she is not fired.

An amendment that truly addresses the personal and professional development of the employees is an amendment which states that any employee that acquires a new educational qualification (for example: a bachelor’s degree) will receive an increase in annual bonuses.

Other changes that in general aspire to improve overall performance and human resource practice include downgrading the penalties so they start with a warning instead of a direct deduction from the annual bonus; this aims to genuinely control and improve employee behavior instead of immediately penalizing them. They also expanded the authority of the secretary general of each institution to include addressing and adjusting the conditions of the institution's staff, changed the name of the employee committee to the human resources committee and added to its attributes human resource planning and management. In addition to that, they canceled the bonuses committee and added its tasks to the human resources committee. And in an effort to control the bloated government they set the maximum number of supporting jobs at 30% of total jobs.

It is clear that the civil service system does have rewards for those that work hard and perform well. That has been the case even before the newest reforms, yet that does not show in performance. So it is necessary to see how employees perceive these rewards to understand where their motivation stems from. Another important factor to consider is the personal motivation of public sector employees, and how they see their own personal and professional development in their public sector careers.

It is essential to understand how the employees perceive their work and the rewards they receive for it. One theory that could explain this is the Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964).

The expectancy theory explains how the motivation force is formed by examining the employee's perception on three levels: 1. Expectancy, which addresses how employees see the effort they put into their job affects their performance. 2. Instrumentality, which explains how employees view potential rewards for their performance. 3. Valence, which shows the value employees place on those rewards.

Since there is huge concern over public sector performance and its negative impact on the country, it is critical to examine the problem with a scientific approach. There are many elements in the complex equation to enhance performance and productivity, and in this research we choose to focus on only one: public sector employee motivation.

**Literature Review**

Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation (1964) attempts to explain the reason behind employees' motivation through understanding the perception the effort put into work to the reward they receive in return. It is composed of three factors, as follows:

Motivation force = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence (i.e. VIE model)

The expectancy theory suggests that employees will be motivated to work harder if they believe their effort will result in good performance, and that performance will lead to a reward, and that reward will satisfy a need worth the effort (See figure 1). Each of those beliefs is represented by a factor:

**Expectancy:** refers to an employee's perception of the effort's role in improving performance. This is determined by self-efficacy, goal difficulty, and perceived control. Self-efficacy is an employee's self-assessment of their capability to perform a task, goal difficulty affects the employee's perception of the attainability of the goal (the more difficult a goal, the less the expectancy), and the perceived control of the job which leads to an employee's development of ownership and responsibility thus leading to higher motivation.

**Instrumentality:** refers to an employee's belief that good performance will lead to a reward (could be tangible or intangible). It is composed of three variables, trust, control, and policies; trust in who decides the reward and it's receiver, control of the decision making process in case there is no trust, and policies that clearly state how performance will lead to reward.

**Valence:** The value of the reward in the eyes of the employee. This is determined by the needs, goals, values, preferences, and sources of motivation of the employee.

Based on a combination of all three factors, employees will choose the behavior alternative that gives them the highest motivation force. The higher each factor, the higher the motivation. So, the theory is dependent on perception; perception of effort and performance, and performance and reward, as well as the perception of the value of the reward. Therefore, the expectancy theory could be considered a "process theory" (Fudge and Schlacter, 1999) as opposed to a content theory, since it depicts how expectations lead to one behavior or another depending on the individual's perceptions.
Figure 1: Vroom’s Expectancy Theory Model

- **Expectancy**
  - Self-efficacy
  - Goal difficulty
  - Perceived control

- **Instrumentality**
  - Trust
  - Control
  - Policies

- **Valence**
  - Perceived value of reward

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Figure 2: Lawler and Porter’s modified expectancy theory, 1967

- Perceived value of rewards
- Perceived probability that effort will result in performance
- Perceived probability that effort will result in desired reward

- Ability

- Intrinsic rewards
- Extrinsic rewards

- Effort

- Performance

- Role perception-demands of job

- Satisfaction

- Perceived equality of rewards
Criticism of the Expectancy Theory

Despite its popularity and general acceptability, the expectancy theory has not had enough empirical evidence to validate it. It has been criticized by many scholars; however the criticism has not been a full rejection of the theory, rather an extension to make up for its weaker points. This has led to various developments of the theory by several researchers who integrated other elements into the equation.

The first generation of critics included Graen (1969), Lawler (1971), and Lawler and Porter (1967). Their main concern was that the theory was too simple. They did not believe it could accurately predict an employee's increased effort as a response to a reward. For example, the reward might be a promotion, but if that means more working hours, then the employee might not place high value on it, and so will not put more effort. Lawler and Porter also presented a modified version of the theory to include extrinsic and intrinsic factors (see Figure 1).

Landy & Becker (1990) suggested that the key to improving the predictions of the expectancy model might lie in variables such as the number of outcomes, valence of outcomes, and the particular dependent variable chosen for study.

Schwab (1979) examined the relationship between the VIE model and two criterion variables, effort and performance. They included several moderators of this relationship in 32 between-subject studies in a statistical analysis.

van Eerde & Thierry (1996) used meta-analysis to examine the theory’s factors and their relationship to five types of criterion variables: performance, effort, intention, preference, and choice. Campbell & Pritchard (1976) argued that these set of variables are too complex and poorly misunderstood to be encompassed by a simple equation. Starke & Behling (1975) did not find that people made decisions related to work effort in a manner consistent with the axioms underlying the expectancy theory: independence and transitivity.

To sum up, research has found that the expectancy theory has proved its worth, however not without an overwhelming percentage of modified forms of the theory. (Lawler, 1973)

Motivation in the Public Sector (Extrinsic/Intrinsic)

The research on motivation of public sector employees has been growing steadily for the past 40 years, yet continues to severely lack consistency. The general conclusion is that employees are motivated through extrinsic rewards (rewards provided by others such as salaries, promotions), intrinsic rewards (rewards that stem from the individual such as satisfaction, feeling of accomplishment), and public sector motivation (feeling of responsibility and duty towards the society). However, whether public sector employees are more influenced by one kind of reward or another is still unknown. The debate has not been conclusive, since many studies are suggesting one configuration and others are contradicting it completely.

Extrinsic rewards

Research regarding the extrinsic reward of job security and promotion has not been consistent. The research ranged from evidence claiming public sector employees value job security less than the private sector employees (Crewson, 1997) to other evidence suggesting they value it more (Baldwin, 1987), to finding no difference between the two sectors (Wittmer, 1991; Gabris & Simo, 1995). As for promotion of status and prestige, some research found that it is less important for employees of the public sector (Crewson, 1997), while other research found there's no difference when they compared the two studies (Wittmer, 1991; Gabris & Simo, 1995).

Intrinsic rewards

The same contradictions have been found in research on intrinsic rewards. While it's been found that public sector employees valued the feeling of accomplishment and self-worth more than private sector employees (Crewson, 1997), it’s also been concluded that they are not motivated by responsibility and self-development (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007). Another research found that public-sector employees don't place as much value on autonomy and ability to work independently as those in the private sector. A more recent research found that there's no specific difference across sectors regarding having an interesting job as a motivator (Houston, 2011).

Public Service Motivation

Public Service Motivation (PSM) is a concept developed by Perry & Wise (1990). Perry's research concluded that public service employees, in contrast to their private sector counterparts, are motivated by their civic duty and responsibility.

There is a lot of empirical evidence to support Perry's statement, suggesting that public employees are less motivated by extrinsic rewards than the private sector employees (Solomon, 1986; Wittmer, 1991). The presence of PSM and its value for public sector employees is also evident from research that suggests employees of the public sector are more willing to volunteer and donate blood than the private sector employees (Houston, 2006).

Further discussion on extrinsic/intrinsic work motivation in the public sector

There is an overwhelming general belief that public sector employees are motivated intrinsically than extrinsically, however research has mainly focused on PSM as a representation of intrinsic rewards. Because of this, the intrinsic rewards of self-accomplishment and self-worth, work independence and autonomy, and self-development have been somehow neglected in the literature.

Studies examining the pay-for-performance and other financial incentives and rewards concluded a "crowding out effect", that is extrinsic rewards actually decrease intrinsic (PSM) motivation (Frey, 1994).
Other research simply points out to the individual differences. Delfgaauw & Dur (2008) suggest that public sector employees could be divided into three categories: lazy, regular, and dedicated. Lazy employees avoid putting effort into their jobs; dedicated employees are motivated by PSM, while regular employees are the same as the dedicated ones but without the PSM. Each category of employees has different motivations, especially when taking into consideration if the effort is verifiable or not. Delfgaauw & Dur (2008) found that lazy employees prefer jobs where effort is unverifiable, while on the opposite, dedicated employees prefer effort that is verifiable.

Research has found that in countries facing economic challenges and high rates of unemployment, the public sector is preferred as it provides job security and stability (Boudarbat, 2008; Groeneveld et al., 2009). It’s also been found that the higher the wages paid by the public sector, the more the job attractiveness increases (Adamchik & Bedi, 2000; Tansel, 2005).

Countries that have a career-based system provide better job security than position-based ones. In a career-based system, employees are expected to work their entire lives in the public sector, promotions and career advancements are decided by the government and the labor market is internal. Whereas position-based relies more on competence regardless of their existence inside or outside the public-sector labor market, that is they don’t mind bringing in external employees to switch and start work in the public sector (Hammerschmid et al., 2007).

Research has found that the lower the income, the higher the preference for public sector work for its job security. In opposite to income, research found that the higher the educational lever, the less the preference for public sector. As for age, older people have been found to prefer public-sector work more than younger generations (Van de Walle, et.al, 2014).

Jordanian Public Sector Employees

While having public sector employees rank intrinsic rewards higher than extrinsic might seem like a good thing, it might actually be a symptom of a serious problem. If considered within a Jordanian context, this could be due to the fact that performance is not directly related to an increase in income or promotion. Employees have very little trust that their hard work would be rewarded. They do not believe their original salary is proportional to the work they do, or that it is enough to satisfy their needs. They also do not believe that the promotion system is fair, or that they would be rewarded financially in any manner if they are more productive.

An even more serious problem is that the same study also found that there are overwhelmingly low moral incentives as well. The employees do not believe the government cares enough about its employees’ professional well-being; the government does not provide medals, honorary promotions, advantages for participating in training courses, participation in decision making, transfer to another position for better utilization of skills, and transfer to a better department as a reward for good performance.

However, in terms of the social incentives provided by the government, the results were significantly higher. Employees found availability of a daycare center and a room for prayer highly motivating. Being provided with cultural services, such as a cultural or sports center as a reward for good performance, lead to medium motivation, whereas loans for social occasions, compensation for transportation costs, and availability of a cafeteria were found not to contribute to motivation.

The study also found that the overall performance of the employees is average. The study looked at different aspects of performance, such as: willingness to work outside official work hours, ability to solve work problems, ability to act in critical situations, full readiness to take responsibility, commitment to work laws and procedures, participation in management decision making, possession of good communication skills, constant performance improvement, completing tasks according to the required standards, and performing work as effectively and efficiently as required.

So, as concluded from the study, public sector employees perceive social incentives as their first motivator, followed by moral ones, and finally financial ones in Jordan.

Unfortunately, there has not been sufficient literature regarding the motivation of public sector employees.

Methodology

Our main goal is to address many of the concerns stated in the previous section in one holistic model. In order to do that we adopted a research design similar to that of Chiang and Jang (2008). While their research applies a revised model of the expectancy theory to hotel employees, we want to use it for the public sector employees in Jordan. We believe that for the particular contingency of the sector, the model is also suitable for testing their motivation.

Chiang and Jang used an adjusted expectancy theory model based on Porter and Lawler’s modified model (1973) (See Figure 3).

Research hypotheses

The research proposes the following hypotheses:

Expectancy (effort → performance):

If employees believe that putting more effort into their jobs would lead to better performance, then it is logical to assume that in theory, this perception would lead to increased motivation. So we propose the first hypothesis:

H1: Expectancy has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.

Extrinsic instrumentality (performance → extrinsic reward):

If employees believe that better performance would lead to a desired extrinsic reward, (promotion, bonuses, and better salary) then it is logical to assume that in theory, this perception
would lead to increased motivation. So we propose the second hypothesis:

**H2a:** Extrinsic instrumentality has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.

**Intrinsic instrumentality** *(performance → intrinsic reward)*:

If employees believe that better performance would lead to a desired intrinsic reward (feeling of accomplishment, more control over job, and more confidence), then it is logical to assume that in theory, this perception would lead to increased motivation. So we propose the third hypothesis:

**H2b:** Intrinsic instrumentality has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.

**Extrinsic valence** *(desired extrinsic reward)*:

If employees place high value on a desired extrinsic reward then it is logical to assume that in theory, this perception would lead to increased motivation. So we propose the fourth hypothesis:

**H3a:** Extrinsic valence has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.

**Intrinsic valence** *(desired intrinsic reward)*:

If employees place high value on a desired intrinsic reward then it is logical to assume that in theory, this perception would lead to increased motivation. So we propose the fifth and final hypothesis:

**H3b:** Intrinsic valence has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.

**Statistical methods used**

For the purpose of descriptive and statistical analysis required for the research objectives, the following statistical methods were used:

1. Frequency and percentages to describe the characteristics of the sample.
2. The mean and standard deviation
3. Cronbach's Alpha to examine the internal consistency estimate of reliability of test results.
4. Pearson correlation coefficient
5. Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA).

**Variable construction**

**Theoretical:** Referring to researches (previous literature), official government reports, and government civil service system guide.
Practical: Distribution of a questionnaire (Chiang, 2008) that includes a section for each element of the adjusted expectancy theory model. (See Table 1)

The research measurements were designed using a 7-point Likert scale. The Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient ranged from 0.77 - 0.91 which is statistically acceptable in managerial research because it is larger than 0.75 (Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994). This indicates that the measurements have internal consistency.

Data Analysis

The methods of data collection and statistical approaches used to analyze the data are clarified in this section. Descriptive analytical research methods are used to analyze the collected data due to the study questions, which is to examine the 5 constructs of the expectancy theory (expectancy, extrinsic and intrinsic instrumentality, and extrinsic and intrinsic valence) and its relationship with employee work competition.


The population is composed by employees in the Jordanian public sector. The sample consisted of 13 institutions, 300 questionnaires were distributed, 282 returned, and 258 were suitable for data analysis. The gender ratio was as follows: 56.2% consisted of males and 43.8% of females. The age of the sample ranged from 20 to 61 years old. The educational level variation was as follows: 13.9% were at secondary level, 14.3% held diploma, 52.3% Bachelors, 13.9% Master’s, 5.4% PhD. (See Tables 2, 3, 4)

Results

We concluded the extent to which each measurement item was perceived by employees through calculating their mean scores, which are presented in Table 5. For the expectancy’s four measures, the mean scores ranged from 5.48 (more effort leads to being regarded as an effective employee) to 5.88 (working hard will get the employee more accomplished) based on the 7-point Likert scale. The extrinsic instrumentality ranged from 3.11 (performing well gets pay increase) to 3.91 (performing well gets more opportunities for promotion). Intrinsic instrumentality had noticeably higher mean scores, ranging from 5.47 (performing well leads to more responsibility or control over job) to 5.96 (performing well leads to a feeling of accomplishment). When it came to valence, the mean scores were somewhat similar to instrumentality, with extrinsic valence ranging from 3.21 (performing well leads to a good salary), to 4.61 (performing well leads to interesting work), and intrinsic valence ranging from 5.38 (performing well results in more challenging tasks) to 5.75 (performing well leads to personal growth and development). Work motivation achieved high mean score with the lowest being 6.05 (a tie between high motivation leading to increasing more effort on the job and enhancing quality of performance) and the highest being 6.07 (high motivation leads to increased productivity on the job). So in conclusion, respondents evaluated intrinsic instrumentality as the highest. With the high mean scores for work motivation, employees indicated that high motivation would lead to improved performance.

The modified expectancy theory model is validated as R-squared was able to explain more the more than 47% of the variance of the work motivation. The F-value (approximately 19.9) proves the fit of the model.

The analysis shows that extrinsic instrumentality and valence do not have a significant impact on work motivation (the significance level is above 0.10). However, it is interesting to see that despite not being statistically significant, the relation is expected to be negative (the beta coefficient is negative). So, Jordanian public employees are actually less motivated when they receive more extrinsic rewards. However, this statement needs to be further tested in future research, since there is no statistical support for it in our study.

The intrinsic instrumentality and valence are statistically and positively related to work motivation, with a level of significance of 0.024 and less than 0.001, respectively. The biggest impact is assigned to intrinsic valence. Results show that employees are motivated with the reward of feeling of accomplishment and personal growth and development, so they place great value on intrinsic rewards.

Expectancy is not statistically significant (near 0.10 but over this threshold). However, the expected relation should also be positive in this case (See Table 7).

We encountered some limitations while collecting the data. The first one is that the data was only collected from public sector institutions in Amman, which is the developed capital of the country, so it might not be representative of all employees across Jordan. The data was only collected from administrative staff, so it might not be a fair representation of the different types of public sector employees. The data was sometimes collected with the supervision of a manager, which might have influenced the answers of the employees.

We recommend public sector institutions to look further into why extrinsic rewards (even with the latest reforms) do not resonate with the employees as to better understand how employee work motivation functions. In this way, further improvements could be made to the system.

Expectancy is not significant but is very close to become so. This gives hope that maybe with more improvements in the public sector, expectancy could increase leading to better motivation and thus better performance. The public sector job is very routine-oriented with little room for creativity and better performance. Decreasing, when possible, the mundane tasks could lead to improvements.
Table 1: Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th># of measurement items</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient</th>
</tr>
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<td>Expectancy</td>
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<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Instrumentality</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Instrumentality</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>EI</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Valence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Valence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>EV</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Motivation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chiang 2008</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Gender of the population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage of total population %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>56.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>43.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Age group of the population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage of total population %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 – 69</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>145</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>258</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Educational level of the population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage of total population %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's</td>
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<td>135</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>Male</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>PhD</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>145</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>258</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Descriptive statistics of measurement items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expectancy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPPERFO</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPACCOM</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPPRODU</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPEFFEC</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Instrumentality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform well in my job will definitely result in my...</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSBONUS</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSINCRE</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSBONUS</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic Instrumentality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform well in my job will definitely result in my...</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSRESPO</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSACCOM</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSGOODE</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Valence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAY</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALBONUS</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
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<td>VALINCRE</td>
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<td>VALINTER</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALPROMO</td>
<td>3.78</td>
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<td><strong>Intrinsic Valence</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>RESPOV</td>
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<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
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<td>CHALL</td>
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<td>ACCOM</td>
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<td>1.86</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Work Motivation</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>WORKEFFO</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORKQUAL</td>
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<td>1.82</td>
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<tr>
<td>WORKPROD</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORKINVO</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: A 7-point scale was used, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).
Table 6: Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Expectancy</th>
<th>Extrinsic Instrumentality</th>
<th>Intrinsic Instrumentality</th>
<th>Extrinsic Valence</th>
<th>Intrinsic Valence</th>
<th>Work Motivation</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>.734**</td>
<td>.264**</td>
<td>.685**</td>
<td>.531**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<td>258</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>258</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Instrumentality</td>
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<td>.303**</td>
<td>.821**</td>
<td>.274**</td>
<td>.125*</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td>.303**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.279**</td>
<td>.786**</td>
<td>.595**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>258</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Valence</td>
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<td>.821**</td>
<td>.279**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.346**</td>
<td>.160*</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Valence</td>
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<td>.274**</td>
<td>.786**</td>
<td>.346**</td>
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<td>.643**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td>Work Motivation</td>
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<td>.125*</td>
<td>.595**</td>
<td>.160*</td>
<td>.643**</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Table 7: Multiple Regression Analysis

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
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<th>Model 2</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Sig</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
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<td>F-value</td>
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Table 8: Results of the modified expectancy theory model

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<tr>
<th>Number of hypothesis</th>
<th>Hypothesis statement</th>
<th>Hypothesis Test</th>
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<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Expectancy has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2a</td>
<td>Extrinsic instrumentality has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b</td>
<td>Intrinsic instrumentality has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>H3a</td>
<td>Extrinsic valence has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b</td>
<td>Intrinsic valence has a positive effect on public sector employee motivation.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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</table>

Table 9: ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
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<td>41.342</td>
<td>40.550</td>
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<td>Residual</td>
<td>256.922</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>1.020</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>463.632</td>
<td>257</td>
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</table>
Conclusion

The validity of the modified expectancy theory model is supported in this study. The modified model explains the expectancy, extrinsic and intrinsic instrumentality, and extrinsic and intrinsic valence of employee motivation in the public sector in Jordan.

The research showed that the intrinsic instrumentality and valence factors have a significant and positive relation with work motivation. This is good news for the public sector, because intrinsic rewards are easier to capitalize on since they do not require financial resources to incorporate into the work environment. Therefore, it is clear that the management must recognize intrinsic rewards and include them in their human resource strategies as they are important motivators for the employees. The managers should support and encourage a work environment where performance is verbally recognized and friendly competition is fostered. Recognition of the employees’ effort and performance contributes to the feeling of accomplishment and self-worth. It is also good to care about their employees’ own personal growth and development which can be done through training, workshops, and helping the employees obtain certificates that qualify them for career advancements.

As for the extrinsic elements (instrumentality and valence), they do not contribute to work motivation as much as intrinsic elements do. However, the public service system does in fact reward performance: annual evaluations are taken into consideration in upgrades based on merit, which should motivate employees to improve performance. With the recent reforms, there is no longer a limit to the times an employee can be upgraded based on merit. Another amendment rewards employees with an annual bonus if they acquire a new qualification such as a bachelor or a master’s degree. Another one uses negative rewards. Now employment is by contracts, which means if performance does not reach certain standards the employee could have disciplinary actions taken against him/her and even possibly being fired. This should decrease the feeling of job security that sometimes leads to lack of productivity.

The research contributes to the existing literature by being the first one to implement the expectancy theory in the public sector in Jordan, proving its validity.

It also comes at an important time; three months after the latest civil service system reforms. The research explains the employees’ view of the system after the amendments and their impact on work motivation. Further research could examine the employees’ view of the system after the amendments and their impact on work motivation. Further research could also delve into how employees are motivated by intrinsic rewards and how that could be incorporated into the everyday work life in the public sector. Since expectancy is very close to becoming significant, future research should look into how the public sector job could be improved so that employees are more motivated to be performant.

References


