

Features of Management in Developing Countries

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Abstract: Management in developed countries seems easier except that the environmental requirements are very tough and the competition is very high. In developing countries very different styles of management: Local which may not match the modern styles, and many foreign styles applied in the foreign companies. There is rare information. Labors are not well trained. Suppliers are not aware of quality systems and delivery reliability. In developing countries easier environmental is required. In developing countries long term relations based on trust and mutual benefit is difficult to convey. Firing people is not usual and thus people may feel they will never get fired regardless of what they do. In developing countries competition is not very high. Since competition is not high, the customer does not get very high priority. People are not used to obey rules and so it is hard to get employees follow a company system of work. Salaries and wages are low. Personal relationships and personal attitude comes before organization rules. Labor is expected to work hard only and is not expected to innovate. Research on management in the developing countries is very limited. In developing countries e-business is just starting. The manager of developing countries facing the problem like: not expected to be fired easily, competitors are using the same infrastructure, Labor are not used to get respect and to be encouraged to innovate. The managers of developing countries are capable to do this kind of think to improve the culture like the developed countries: Train the labor and let them train each other, show supplier that they can trust you. Cooperate with them, keep word with them, think about effective ways of using e-business etc.

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I. INTRODUCTION

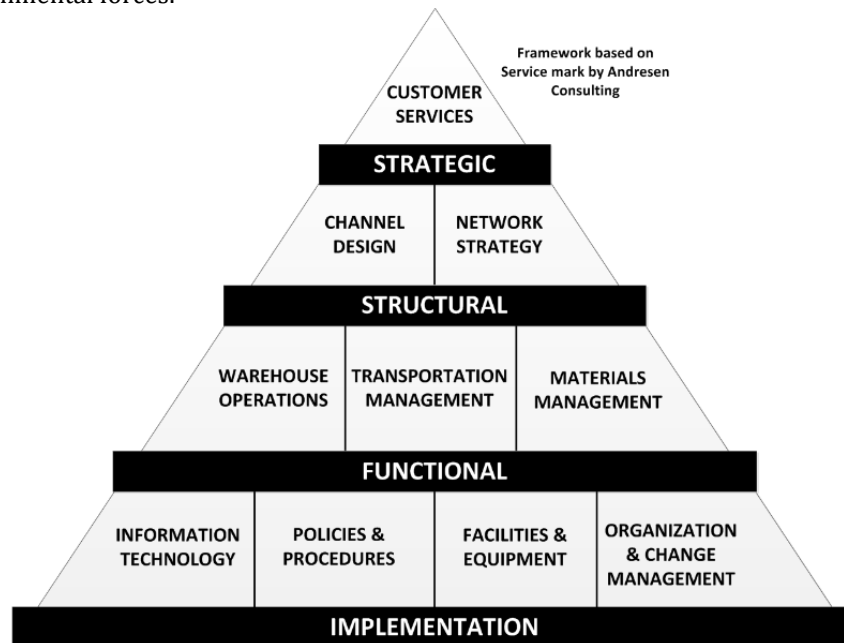
Historically, countries have been classified based on their economic conditions using indicators such as GNP or GDP. Many groupings have been proposed, such as industrialized, developed, advanced developing, newly industrialized, developing, less developed, and undeveloped. Institutions such as the United Nations, the World Bank, and even independent researchers have been using these categories of countries for many years. For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that there are a large number of countries in a cluster named developing countries. However, developing countries are not nearly as homogenous as industrialized countries. They vary significantly in many respects, and may be categorized into subgroups in terms of their stage of development. Indeed, there are some common characteristics that have separated these countries from so-called industrialized countries. Since every social phenomenon is perceived differently both within and between nations, these commonalities should not be taken as a source for generalized rules. However, a brief description of these characteristics will contribute to a better understanding of organizations and their management activities in developing countries. As business activities become international and most recently global, and geographical borders between countries vanish, there are closer and more frequent interactions among organizations, firms, industries and institutions both within and between countries. The fast pace of change in macro-environmental forces has had significant influence on organizations and their management practices over the last two decades. Therefore, understanding how organizations in different countries adapt, resist and generally manage themselves may be one of the key success factors for global business activities in the new century. Most of the theoretical and empirical studies of organizations and management issues have been developed based on samples from industrialized countries or firms and organizations established in

these countries. Researchers have been questioning the applicability of Western theories of organizations and management systems to non-industrialized countries for at least the last two decades. In their review of administrative theories in developing countries, describe how the applicability of Western theories has been questioned by studies that have considered macro- environmental forces. Recognizing the limitations of Western management theories across nations will provide impetus for developing new theoretical frameworks for understanding management activities in non-industrialized countries. One way to improve our understanding is to analyze management systems of so-called less-developed countries, with the assumption that this can provide useful information. How, with what means, and from what perspectives these less-known systems should be observed are the type of questions that provide a starting point for proposing guidelines for developing better theoretical frameworks for understanding management systems in different contexts. Since more than 70% of the world population lives in developing countries, and the majority of the world's natural resources and market opportunities are in these countries, both practitioners and researchers have become more interested in understanding their social and business activities. This is why Developing countries, as one of the well-known clusters of non-industrialized countries, are used in this study. Although the external environment of organizations has global, national and industry levels, the focus of this study is on their national environment. Despite the vital role of management systems in the organizations and institutions of developing countries, there are few theoretical and/or empirical studies on this topic. The purpose of this study is to provide some guidelines for developing theoretical frameworks for management systems in developing countries. Recent theoretical and empirical studies on management issues and organizations in developing countries, along with some of the classical management and administrative theories (such as those introduced by Barnard, Chandler, Drucker, Simon, Thompson, and Roethlisberger) are used in this study. Since environmental factors play a major role in the development of all social phenomena, some of the main regulatory, economic, cultural, and organizational characteristics in developing countries are described. The next two sections provide a brief overview of organizational strategies and structures, their relationship, and decision-making process in developing countries. The last two sections describe the essence of management systems in these countries, and suggest related principals and guidelines for future theoretical frameworks.

It is important to refer to the characteristics of organizations in developing countries. Since most of the large and major firms in developing countries are owned or highly regulated and controlled by their governments, administrators have rarely changed their daily routine and their position of power except under pressure. In most industrialized countries, technological, economic and market pressure have made administrators change their long-term goals and objectives, adopt new courses of actions, and allocate the resources necessary to achieve these goals.

This process has in fact increased the complexity of their systems and made them adapt their administrative structure by moving toward decentralization. In developing countries the pursuit of survival and certainty plays a major role in shaping strategies and structures of their organizations. Those at the top level of these organizations mostly pursue survival objectives, and people at the lower levels seek certainty to protect themselves in their highly uncertain environment. Strategies and structures that are not adapted to survival and certainty create difficulties for internal and external communication and eventually serious conflicts. When lines of communication between individuals and external authorities are not aligned with the stated strategies, individuals try to override the existing designs by every possible means in order to create their desired balance. The negative products of this process are corruption and over-regulation. This tends to expand the interpretative margin of rules and regulations and is in fact one of reasons for high regulatory uncertainty in these countries. This in fact is a clear indication of the significant impact of environmental forces on strategies and structures in these countries. Individuals as complex systems cooperate with organizations based on their bounded rationality (Simon, 1945). Simon claims that this rationality is limited by three major elements: values, skills, and knowledge. In a context where values and conceptions of purposes are individualistic, the communication process will become more dynamic. There will be a wider area of rationality for individuals, and therefore, administrative organizations will seem to be less important. In a context where values are mainly collectivistic, the communication process will become less dynamic. There will be more limitations for area of rationality for individuals, and as a result of this, administrative organizations will become more important. The latter is in fact the case in most of the developing countries. High degrees of power-distance as well as high degrees of uncertainty avoidance have made communication and authority processes less dynamic in these countries. In other words, since there is a limited area of rationality for individuals, centralized structures are more popular among developing countries. The majority of the centralized structures used in developing countries are imported from abroad (mainly

from those countries that have supported them politically and technologically) and have been reinforced by their environmental forces.



There are different perspectives to explore management systems. Drucker (1954) perceives management as an institution in a society that makes its resources productive and leads to economic advances. He identifies three jobs for managers: managing a business, managing managers and managing work and workers. Management may also be seen as an administrative phenomenon – as a process to cope with uncertainty (Thompson, 1967). Thompson considers the co-alignment for three sets of variables (people, technology and task environment, and organization design and structure) as the basic administrative functions. Defining the nature of management work is another way to understand management as a multidimensional construct. Mintzberg (1973) defines major dimensions of managerial work in three categories: interpersonal roles (figurehead, leader, liaison), informational roles (monitor, disseminator, spokesperson); and decisional roles (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator). These are in line with Drucker's (1954) five basic operations for the work of a manager (setting objectives, organizing, motivating, communicating and establishing performance yardsticks, and developing people). Researchers in the field of management define managerial work in narrow terms such as planning, organizing or controlling activities. The most common point in all of these studies is that management involves a decision-making process to fit external and internal factors of organizations. As Thompson (1995) describes it, the administrative aim is to match what it takes for strategy execution with the way things are done. The stronger the fit, the better the execution of strategy. Considering cultural dimensions, stormy socio-economic climates and also resource scarcities, it can be imagined how complex this matching process can be in Developing countries. Researchers have built theories on specific dimensions of managerial work in different contexts. They have ended up with three main theories: situational, universalism and convergence. Situational theory suggests that there are many models of management, not only across nations and levels of industrialization but also within nations (Campbell et al., 1970). Universalism theorists (Hage and Finsterbusch, 1987; Mintzberg, 1973) suggest that all managers are motivated by a common drive for efficiency that causes them to mimic best world wide administrative practices. Convergence theory suggests that management routines among nations with similar cultural and industrialized backgrounds will naturally converge to a common set of enduring routines. In most of these studies, managers and their activities are perceived based on dimensions developed in industrialized countries. Perhaps all managers actually do engage in similar activities with similar time allocations, but the underlying motivation for these activities, the manner in which they are carried out, and the meanings that managers interpret from them might have situational and/or convergence influences. Appropriateness of design, structure and assessment can be judged only in light of the conditions, variables and uncertainties present for the organization; and these judgements are significantly influenced by the perceptions and beliefs of those participating in the administrative process (Thompson, 1967). As long as we take the management system as a purely scientific or physical process

driven by economic or technological factors, it will be seen as a transferable package. But if managers and organizations in a given context are more concerned about competition, economic and technological issues, it cannot be concluded that the management system is a technical instrument or a mathematical model to make efficient use of the organization's resources. It should be realized that since human beings (as a complex natural system) are the main element of these constructs, a pure scientific or economic approach would not provide a thorough understanding for them. Management systems should be capable of: a) receiving signals from interactions within and between internal and external factors; b) providing effective and efficient feedback to every elements of organization; c) being sensitive to the external and internal changes; d) being able to keep the organization balance on a right track toward its consensus goals.



Management by Objective (MBO)

In summary, management systems in industrialized countries are more sensitive to competition and economic objectives than to political and social objectives; used to working with well defined and rational models; very sensitive to small changes; and used to making as many decisions as required. In contrast, management systems in Developing countries are less sensitive and sometimes not at all sensitive to competition and economic objectives compared to social relations and political objectives; significantly concerned about informal organizations and used to working with less defined models; less sensitive to small internal and external changes; and trying to make as few decisions as possible. Considering decisionmaking processes and management systems of Developing countries, it is suggested that:

- Management systems of organizations in Developing countries are less concerned about small internal or external changes.
- Management systems of organizations in Developing countries are significantly shaped by their national environmental forces rather than by other internal or external factors.
- Goal ambiguity and survival strategy are two main characteristics of management systems of organizations in Developing countries.
- Management systems of organizations in Developing countries are less concerned about making incremental decisions.
- In Developing countries, a management system that can make big decisions and move the organization to a position where the past accumulated problems are less visible is perceived as more acceptable than those that follow an incremental decision making process.
- In Developing countries, management systems are more focused on short-term problem-solving than in onong term business development.
- The industrial environment in Developing countries lack a critical mass of specialization in technologies, which results in the utilization of second generation technologies.

II. METHODOLOGY

Organizations in Developing countries have been described based on economic or market conditions, cultural dimensions, or even authority or political perspectives. Hamilton and Biggart (1992) argue that an authority or political economic approach with a Weberian emphasis produces the best explanation for industrial arrangement in Developing countries. Environmental factors are the main driving forces for organizations and their actions in Developing countries. Organizations are in fact seen as the creatures of their environment. Organizations in Developing countries try to keep away from uncertainty and normally prevent dealing with it. That is why organizational identity as the pattern of response in dealing with uncertainty (Thompson, 1967) is almost absent in Developing countries. They are bound by strong social values and norms, which shape both their objectives, and ways to achieve those objectives. Researchers claim that even the most cosmopolitan and technical sectors of Developing countries have not completely converged in their values and managerial behavior (Morris et al., 1998). They do not follow the economic or rational models as do those in industrialized countries. It seems that treating organizations in Developing countries as collective actors driven by their environmental forces will shed more light on the nature of this phenomenon. One of the main sources of differences between organizations in industrialized and developing countries is the way that individuals contribute in an organization and also their perception of inducements. Individuals' contributions in Developing countries are not only in the form of capital, skills or efforts, but also of social relations and/or connection with authorities. Sometimes family names, social position, and/or connections are the only resources that individuals bring to organizations. For the same reasons and because of differences in the nature of individual expectations, inducements are also perceived differently in Developing countries. What they need is long-term protection and support in their uncertain environment. This means organizations should provide them with inducements that help them to survive. Formal organizations are highly influenced by informal organizations in most Developing countries. These two types of organizations influence each other and are also mutually dependent (Barnard, 1938). It is believed that there are informal organizations within every formal organization. The complexity of organizations may change according to how these influence each other. Informal systems of communication such as friendship and group and family relations play an essential role in keeping members of organizations together in these countries. This may provide better opportunities for informal organizations to grow and dominate the formal ones. Lack of organizational identity, strong influence of environmental forces, strong resistance to change (due to a high degree of uncertainty avoidance), concern for survival, the vital role of business groups and informal organizations, and goal ambiguity are some of the main characteristics of organizations in Developing countries. These in fact have made it more difficult to understand organizations and their management systems in Developing countries. Researchers and analysts accustomed to working with "rational" models (developed in industrialized countries), have been trying to use their models to understand these systems for decades, but only during the last two decades has it been realized that these models are not applicable in Developing countries.

Uncertainty is a fundamental characteristic of regulatory and economic situations. Uncertainty is a fundamental characteristic of regulatory and economic reality in most Developing countries. Environmental regulation in developing countries is currently one of the most unpredictable factors facing potential investors. "Not only has environmental legislation in these countries changed rapidly and frequently in the last decade, it has also had a considerable interpretative margin and been enforced with varying degrees of zeal". Domination of powerful families, political groups, religious groups and/or business groups who can impose or override rules and regulations based on their own interpretations and interests, have made the regulatory environment even less predictable. Most of these countries are paying a considerable price for this regulatory uncertainty. Besides this regulatory uncertainty, most of these countries have a history of economic problems. According to a report by Martinez (1999), although global GNP has risen from \$3 trillion to \$30 trillion over the last 50 years, the wealth has been distributed unevenly, and the disparities between rich and poor have only grown. The same report indicates that 1.3 billion people in the developing world live on a little less than a dollar a day. With the exception of about ten large emerging countries, the majority of Africa, South Asia, and Latin America has experienced economic decline during the past 30 years (Garten, 1997). Developing countries are generally charged with having gone on a "foreign borrowing binge". The socioeconomic and regulatory uncertainties have had a powerful influence on the nature of management systems in Developing countries. In fact, the public sector plays a dominant role as the provider of basic commercial goods and services. Infrastructure facilities traditionally have been constructed and operated by governments of these countries. In many parts of Asia and in Eastern Europe, governments and other types of "non-market" institutions have traditionally been leading organizations' activities (Besley, 1995). Therefore, intricate relations between

business and government actually appear to be the norm throughout the developing world, and as long as government officials have discretion, companies often end up working with them. Along with governments, business groups, as specific types of institutions, play a vital role in economic and social activities in most of the Developing countries. In some Developing countries, business groups function to allocate inputs such as honesty and trustworthy competence on the part of high-level managers – inputs that are otherwise poorly represented. This is why states in most of the Developing countries actively participate in the public and private sectors of the economy and are in fact leading actors. In South Korea, state policies support business concentration. In almost all Developing countries, states impose import controls on selected products and promote industrial development in export products through special tax incentive programs (Hamilton and Biggart, 1992). There are also cases where business groups might evolve largely independent of state influence or with an identity quite distinct from that of political groups, such as in Mexico (Camp, 1989). There are also situations where key government actors themselves form their own firms and business groups, such as the Suharto family in Indonesia. Policy, and social and cultural factors, may be the main reasons for existence of BGs in Developing countries. It takes more time to establish a BG in Developing countries, but it may have longer life compared to BGs in industrialized countries since they are part of the social and cultural structure of Developing countries. High degrees of uncertainty and turbulence; centralized economic and political power and control; relatively weak and unstable legal systems; undeveloped and/or less developed infrastructure; and lack of development of financial institutions such as stock markets and investment banking are some of the common regulatory and economic situations of Developing countries.



Growth in developing countries

Decision-making management in Developing Countries

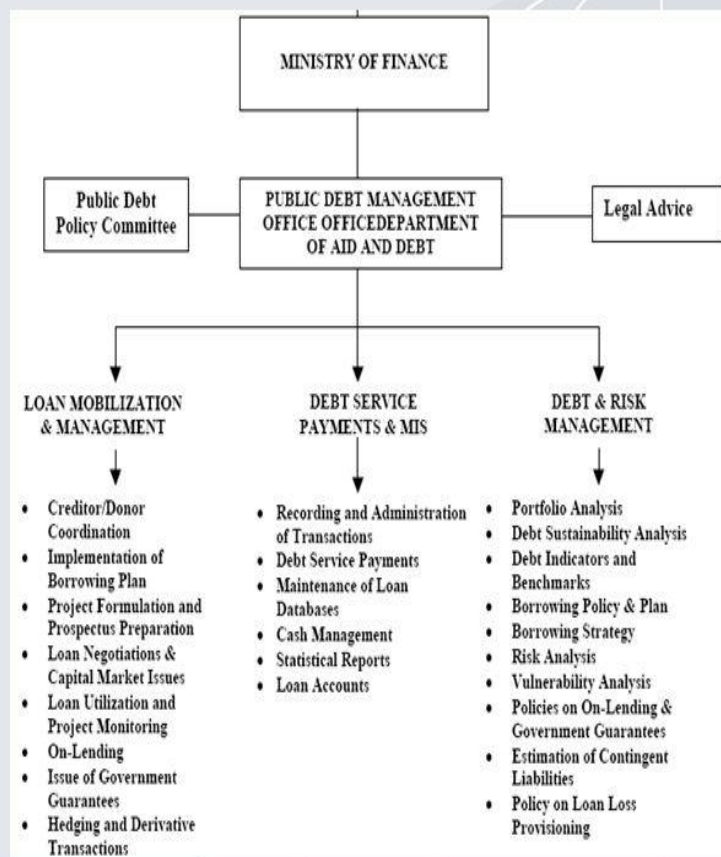
Decision-making is not a one-time action but a process in which human beings (who are constrained by time and space) are its core elements. Every one of the decisions made by each individual is subjected to his/her understanding of the time and space in which the decision has been made. Thus, decision-making as a subjective construct should follow a pattern shaped by time, space, and individuals' understandings. This is what Ackoff (1970) called the "decision-making process boundaries" within which decisions are made. Dynamic objectives with two-way relationships with the environment normally affect the direction and boundaries of this process. Ackoff believes that there is no one decision that can resolve the problem of managing, since it needs to follow an incremental improvement. This is in line with what Braybrooke and Lindblom (1963) named incrementalism. As Ali (1993) argues, most recent research and studies on cross-cultural management maintain that managers can adapt different decision styles, depending on the pattern of organization and individual characteristics (Blyton, 1984, Yukl, 1981), and also cultural background (Hofstede, 1980; Tayeb, 1988). Managers may display a variety of decision styles, depending on the situation and the type of decisions involved. Since people in most of the Developing countries have low degrees of masculinity and individualism (in terms of Hofstede's cultural dimensions), they tend to ignore small changes. A small change may be defined as a change in a relatively unimportant variable, or a relatively unimportant change in an important variable (Braybrooke and Lindblom, 1963). According to

theories developed in industrialized countries, corporate managers should be involved with the overall direction of organizational strategic management process, and those at initiating level should in fact make and define strategies (e. g. Bower, 1970). However, in Developing countries, those at institutional level are defining strategies and most of the time institutional level strategic processes remain with no definition and therefore no initiation. It is left to time and/or environment to solve them. For this reason, there are always a backlog of decisions to be made in organizations of these countries. Historically, they end up making big decisions to make big changes that are often followed by crises and/or revolutions. This is because the avoidance of small changes ends up obscuring the potential role of incremental decisions in resolving an organization's problems. Therefore, when organizations in Developing countries face significant changes, they don't have enough knowledge and understanding to handle them. This can be one of the reasons for perceiving "big decisions" as one of the best solutions for management problems in these countries. But since organizations and their members need more time to adapt themselves with these rapid changes, there is always a significant gap between words and actions in these countries. They have followed extraordinary strategies such as opening up a national market to world competition, closing all doors to becoming independent, and/or changing the entire management teams to catch up with the accumulated problems that have not been solved for a long period of time. The World Bank and IMF used to claim that the answer to all Africa's problems was to open up their national markets to the world competition and free trade (Brown, 1996). Unfortunately while the IMF and the World Bank have persuaded more than thirty African governments to follow their advice, the result has been even more economic decline in these countries than in those that did not adopt structural adjustment programs. Organizations in Developing countries with significant natural resources such as oil, gas, gold, copper, etc., have tried to keep themselves secure by staying under their governments' umbrella (such as in the Middle-East and some South American countries). Organizations in those Developing countries with no natural resources have been trying to ensure their security through funds and loans from the World Bank or IMF (such as African, Asian, and South American countries). But in both cases their social and economic problems have turned out to be worse after several decades, because of less attention to the problems with their management systems and incremental decisions that should have been made. Decision-making generally follows an adaptive process (Cyert and March, 1963). This process takes into account the inherent organizational conflicts and the external factors. In Developing countries, lack of appropriate sources of information for managers, characteristics of the environmental forces, and also lack of internal consensus about organizational goals among members of organizations, have reduced the importance of the decision-making process. Most firms operate with considerable latent conflict of goals. Their decisions are not to solve the existing conflicts, but to stay away from the centre of conflicts and problems as much as possible. Organizations in industrialized countries react and solve problems as they arise (short-run reaction to shortrun feedback). They don't treat the environment as exogenous, but something to be predicted and controlled. In practice they establish standardized business practices among groups of firms, which collectively seek to eliminate uncertainty (Cyert and March, 1963). One of the standard operating procedures is planning which reduces a complex world to a somewhat simpler one. In Developing countries, however, the tendency is toward being more passive when facing problems. Decisions are made to avoid problems rather than to control and solve them. Uncertainty is mostly avoided by maintaining existing conditions; therefore, decisions are made to increase the stability of whatever is in hand, as long as it brings more stability and minimum change. Decision-making in Developing countries may also be guided by searching for problems. But, since there are rarely organizational slacks, the vulnerable areas for search will be power positions and structural stability. Organizations learn when, where, how and what type of decisions they should make to adapt to their traditional organizational goals and structures. Planning may be seen as one of the remedies for these countries. It is argued that in complex situations planning is inevitable, because it provides time to look at the interrelated cause-effect relationships (Ackoff, 1970). It is an anticipatory decision making process. In some Developing countries such as South Korea planning has become a part of administration, but it is not a general standard operating procedure among these countries yet. Highly government controlled economic systems have also reduced the scope and the role of decisions made by managers of organizations in Developing countries (Badran et al., 1981). Therefore, the vital role of environmental forces, the limited role of top managers in making major decisions and the lack of organizational identity have reduced the impact of internal arrangements in achieving emergent goals in organizations of Developing countries.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Managers influence all the phases of modern organizations. Sales Managers maintain a sales force that markets goods. Personnel managers provide organizations with a competent and productive workforce. Plant managers run manufacturing operations that produce the clothes we wear, the food we eat, and the automobiles we drive. Our society could never exist as we know it today nor improve without a steady stream of managers to guide its organizations. The well known management author Peter Drucker highlighted this point when he said that Effective Management is probably the main resource of developed countries and the most needed resource of developing ones. In short, all societies, whether developed or developing, need a huge lot of good managers.

Developing Country Structure



Essentially, the role of managers is to guide the organizations toward goal accomplishment. All organizations exist for certain purposes or goals, and managers are responsible for combining and using organizational resources to ensure that their organizations achieve their purposes. The role of the Management is to move an organization towards its purposes or goals by assigning activities that organization members perform. If Management ensures that all the activities are designed effectively, the production of each individual worker will contribute to the attainment of the organizational goals.

Management strives to encourage individual activity that will lead to reaching organizational goals and to discourage individual activity that will hinder the accomplishment of the organization objectives. There is no idea more important than managing the fulfillment of the organizational goals and objectives. The meaning of the Management is given by its goals and objectives. All managers, must have a single minded focus on the fulfillment of the organizational goals.

IV. CONCLUSION

Since organizations and management systems are significantly interdependent on their social context, transferring social technologies across borders is more complex than transferring physical technologies. This study claims that the complexity of national environmental forces of developed countries has made the application of Western management theories more problematic in these countries. Since management theories are built through an interaction process between human beings and reality, it is suggested that a clinical type of approach is more effective in developing theories of management systems in developed countries. Global business firms should realize that it is time to stop transferring Western management systems to developed countries and trying to adapt their organizations to these systems. These systems should be observed from inside by means (measures) that have been developed in their context.

Developing competencies in order to manage the complexities and contradictions of developing countries is not a matter of producing a neat list of attributes. Areas of competencies must be identified, discussed and developed by the management group in their organizations, so that they address both the specific global influences on managing and the specific indigenous influences. Developing these competencies as part of a global management mindset is important for two reasons: they are needed in the developing world and their acquisition makes possible that the Western manager on a developing world assignment may be able to learn about managing complexity from developing country colleagues. Although the developing-developed world paradigm suggests that the developing world must move more towards the developed world; that managers in Africa, South Asia, Central Asia, Latin America, and even East and Central Europe must learn from Western managers, experienced international managers know that this is not the case. This mind-set is prevalent in the developed world and also in the developing world. Despite the Western world's belief that the 80 per cent of the globe comprising the developing world has nothing to offer the developed world, think of the challenges developing country managers must face.

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