1. The Middle East context: an introduction

Pawan S. Budhwar and Kamel Mellahi

This handbook provides an in-depth input on a variety of topics related to human resource management (HRM) in the Middle East. It is divided into three parts: contextual and functional issues, country and regional perspectives, and emerging themes and the future of HRM in the Middle East. This introductory chapter has three main aims. First, to highlight the dynamic context of Middle East within which this handbook has been developed. Second, to analyse the key developments in the field of HRM in the region and the need for this volume. And third, to provide a summary of each chapter.

THE MIDDLE EAST CONTEXT

The term Middle East defines a cultural area, so it does not have precise borders, and a variety of terminologies have been used to denote the region. These vary from ‘Middle East’, ‘Near East’, ‘Middle East–North Africa (MENA)’, ‘Southwest Asia’, ‘Greater Middle East’, ‘Levant’, ‘Arabian peninsula’ or the ‘Arab World’ in a very general sense, terms used by both academics and policy makers (see Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2015). The most limited version of the region includes Gulf State countries, namely Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Qatar, United Arab Emirates and Oman, as well as Iran, Iraq and the Levant region, while in some cases the region extends to countries in North Africa with a clear connection to Islam and that use the Arabic language, like Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco and Mauritania to the west and Sudan, Eritrea, Djibouti and Somalia to the south-east. For this handbook, the latter interpretation of the Middle East is used.

Despite some commonalities between the countries in the region, each nation has its own historical developments, an independent (and at times unique) set of socio-economic components, arising inevitably from the interplay of socio-cultural institutions, historical developments, demographic variables and political relations, and systems unique to themselves. This is further complicated by the different stages of industrialisation and economic and political development of each nation in the region. Such contextual complexities should be kept in mind while analysing HRM systems of the region.

The Middle East is the birthplace of three main religions: Islam (followed by approximately 95 per cent of the total population out of which 85 per cent are Sunnis and the remaining Shias), Judaism and Christianity. It is also home of some of the oldest civilisations of the world such as the Phoenicians, Babylonians and Egyptians. The population of the Middle East is over 380 million, representing about 6 per cent of the total world population. The region also hosts around 65 per cent of the world’s known oil reserves. However, until the discovery of oil in 1960s and 1970s, the region had the lowest levels of economic development in the world. The economic growth of majority of the countries in the region has been flat. The sharp fall in oil prices by about 60 per cent between 2014...
and 2015 is a specific challenge for many of the oil-exporting countries of the region. It is estimated that oil exporting countries in the Middle East may lose around $300 billion in oil revenues in 2016 (Knowledge@Wharton, 2016).

The slow economic growth in the region can be attributed to a combination of factors such as the so-called curse of natural-resource abundance (over-dominance of the oil sector in oil-rich countries); structural imbalances; deficient political systems and political reforms; underdeveloped financial markets; slow integration into the global economy; dominant, inefficient public sectors; growing unemployment; lack of creation of employable skills; strong inclination of many locals in Gulf State countries to work only in public sector firms, and, similarly, in managerial positions; under-utilisation of skilled women; dated and inefficient government systems in the region; and the conditions of war and conflict and mass migration (see Abdalla, 2015; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Iles et al., 2012; Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015; Sidani et al., 2015).

Further, developments since late 2010 (i.e., the beginning of the Arab Spring, the toppling down of governments in many countries in the region and the proclamation of the world caliphate by ISIS – Islamic State of Iraq and Syria – amongst others) have resulted in regional (and to some extent global) disturbances in the form of hundreds of thousands of dead and mass migration from the region – mainly from Syria, both into adjoining countries and into Europe (for details see Wikipedia, 2015). Such developments have serious implications for foreign direct investment (FDI) in the region, and due to serious concerns for security, a large number of multinationals have pulled out of the disturbed parts of the Middle East, leaving a significant vacuum for economic growth. Such developments have many socio-economic and human resource (HR) implications, such as dealing with increasing unemployment and human capital management (e.g., Goby et al., 2015; Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015; Singh and Sharma, 2015).

Emerging evidence suggests that most countries in the Middle East are now focusing on both HR and organisational development (see Kolachi and Akan, 2014; Singh and Sharma, 2015). In particular, the oil-rich countries have been making serious efforts to reduce their dependence on oil and develop other sectors, which need skilled human resources (e.g., Manafi and Subramaniam, 2015; Obeidat et al., 2014). Similarly, many countries in the region have been concentrating on the development of ‘locals’ and reducing the number of ‘foreigners’ due to the pressure of rapidly growing populations, and to provide jobs to their natives (see Goby et al., 2015; Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015). In this regard, many countries, such as Saudi Arabia, Oman and the United Arab Emirates (UAE), have been pursuing ‘nationalisation programmes’ (i.e., to reserve jobs for locals). However, there are serious concerns related to employable skills and the mind-set of the locals who prefer not to work in the private sector and on lower-level positions. Such developments have serious implications for the HR function in the region and in particular in relation to its role towards improving organisational performance (Waal and Sultan, 2012; Iles et al., 2012; Mellahi and Budhwar, 2006; Mohamed et al., 2015; Zaitouni et al., 2011).

Further, the globalisation of business and management education and training continues to progress in the Middle East, where West-based, reputed business schools have opened and/or plan to open branches in the region. The University of Qatar, for instance, was ranked as the world’s most international university in 2016 by the Times Higher Education’s ranking. These and other related institutions tend to adopt West-based curriculum and texts to teach and train local students, the majority of whom end up working
in the region. Such skills are appropriate to work in large and multinational companies, which are run professionally, but less so in local and small firms. This creates a mismatch between educational and vocational training programmes and the creation of employable and suitable skills for the Middle East context. Such dynamics demand the need to develop context-specific HR programmes.

To summarise, the Middle East region is now continuously in the news and is of interest to most nations of the world for a variety of reasons including economic, political and demographic challenges, migration, the supply of oil, ongoing conflicts and security issues. Along with the above-reported developments, we can also see developments in the field of HRM with the establishment of HR departments and formalisation of HR functions in the region. Further, we are witnessing that most countries in the Middle East are placing a large emphasis on the development of their human resources. There is also a drive by most countries in the region to further assimilate into the global economy. Nevertheless, a number of macro-level phenomena unique to the region (discussed above) are creating challenges in this regard. Such developments have serious implications for the HRM function in the region, especially when HRM is known to play a significant role in the economic development of nations (e.g., Debrah et al., 2000). The next section provides an overview of developments in the field of HRM in the Middle East as reported in the literature.

DEVELOPMENTS IN MIDDLE EAST HRM

A review of the literature presents variations between the countries regarding both the kind of research conducted on HRM in the region and the nature and status of the HRM function. It also highlights the absence of systematic analysis, which can present an overview regarding the dynamics of HRM in the Middle East (for an exception see Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006). Nevertheless, we can see an increasing number of publications emerging related to various aspects of HRM in the Middle East (e.g., see the special issue ‘HRM in the Middle East: toward a greater understanding’ of the International Journal of Human Resource Management – Afiouni et al., 2014). Below we summarise the main HR-related works for the region and later highlight the key messages emerging from the same.

Perhaps the majority of the research work on HRM in the Middle East has focused on providing a country-specific overview. Our first book, a decade ago, provided an overview of HRM in 14 countries in the region (for details, see Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006). Here we report literature published in the field mainly after 2006 to avoid the duplication of information. In this regard, see the works of Al-Hamadi et al. (2007), Khan (2011), Katou et al. (2010) and Khan et al. (2015) on Oman; Tlaiss and Elamin (2015) on Saudi Arabia; Namazie and Frame (2007), Soltani and Liao (2010) and Manafi and Subramaniam (2015) on Iran; Omair (2010) and Singh and Sharma (2015) on the UAE; Altarawneh and Aldehayyat (2011) and Syed et al. (2014) on Jordan; Tzafair et al. (2007) on Israel; Leat and Al-Kot (2007) and Mostafa and Gould-Williams (2014) on Egypt; Ramdani et al. (2014) on Algeria; and Zaitouni et al. (2011) on Kuwait. The focus of the above-mentioned works has been to highlight the emerging patterns of HRM and related systems along with their key determinants in respective countries.
Other themes emerging from the literature include the effects of regulations on HRM in the Saudi Arabia private sector (Mellahi, 2007) and on employment policy in Kuwait (Al-Enizi, 2002), the impact of HRM on organisational commitment in the banking sector in Kuwait (Zaitouni et al., 2011), the efficacy of high-performance work practices in Algerian firms (Ramdani et al., 2014), the impact of HRM practices and corporate entrepreneurship on firm performance in Turkish firms (Kaya, 2006), talent management strategies in the UAE (Singh and Sharma, 2015), the impact of cultural value orientations on preferences for HRM (Aycan et al., 2007), HRM and labour productivity in Libyan oil companies (Mohamed et al., 2015), HRM and innovation in the Iranian electronics industry (Manafi and Subramaniam, 2015) and career development in Oman (Khan et al., 2015).

Over the past quarter of a century or so, there has been a consistent emergence of gender-based studies (in particular dedicated towards women in management-related issues) in Middle East countries. In this regard, see the works of Tlaiss (2015) and Abdalla (2015) for career success/facilitators and barriers for women in an Arab context, Sidani et al. (2015) for female leadership advantage and leadership deficit, Marmenout and Lirio (2014) for female talent retention in the Gulf, Metcalfe (2008) for women in management in the Middle East generally, and in particular for Bahrain, Jordan and Oman, Aycan (2004) for Turkey, Metle (2002) for Kuwait, and Izraeli (1987) for Israel.

Along with gender, another theme along which we have regular contributions is that of the influence of Arab culture and values on its management systems (e.g., Ali, 2004, 2010; Mellahi, 2003). A related focus of research has been to examine the impact of Islamic values, Islamic work ethics and Islamic principles on the management of human resources in the region (see Branine and Pollard, 2010; Mellahi and Budhwar, 2006; 2010). As expected, due to socio-cultural similarities, a number of countries (such as Egypt, Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait and Qatar) tend to be similar on various aspects of cultural value orientations, such as strong on group orientation, hierarchical structures, masculinity and following Arab traditions and weak on future orientation (see Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). Mellahi and Budhwar (2006) reveal the influence of high power distance on managers’ perception towards the delegation of authority to lower levels of employees and interaction with employees in countries like Morocco, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Egypt. They also highlight that in such contexts and socio-cultural and traditional set-ups, loyalty to one’s family and friends is expected to override loyalty to organisational procedures and this often results in the use of inequitable criteria in recruitment, promotion and compensation. Ali (2004) and Mellahi (2006) further highlight that the influence of Islamic values and the principle of ‘Shura’, that is, consultation, social harmony and respect, is manifested in consensus based decision-making styles, respect for authority and age, and concern for the well-being of employees and society at large in countries like Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. On the contrary, Ali and Al-Kazemi (2006) reveal that several ideal Islamic values such as equity and fairness are often not adhered to in practice. This explains the widespread adoption of some HRM practices in the Middle East that are not compatible with Islamic values, such as the use of nepotism in recruitment and compensation, known as ‘Wasta’ in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries and ‘Piston’, ‘Maarifa’ and ‘K’tef’ in North African countries. Similarly, Iles et al. (2012) highlight the challenges for effective management of human resources in the public sector in Middle East where the impact of wasta is strong.

A review of the literature also reveals some publications related to the transfer of
HRM from overseas to the region (e.g., Al-Husan and James, 2009; Mellahi and Frynas, 2003). Nevertheless, due to significant differences (sociological, economic, legal, political, etc.) between the region and other parts of the world (the West, in particular), on the one hand, and the context-specific nature of HRM, on the other, it is recommended that a foreign element is, at best, not conducive to the development of sound management practices in the region (also see Neal and Finlay, 2008; Khan, 2011). Research by Saleh and Kleiner (2005) reiterates the above point for American companies stating that if they want to be successful in the Middle East then they should develop an understanding of the local culture, politics and people of the region. Along similar lines, Goby et al. (2015) highlight the usefulness of the creation of a positive diversity climate based on Arab cultural traditions in managing the diverse workforce (comprising both locals and expatriates) in the region.

A further rapidly emerging HR research and practice theme in the Middle East is related to ‘human resource development’, which not only focuses on the development of locals, and helps put them in jobs, but also focuses on issues related to the impact of Arab management styles on the effectiveness of cross-cultural negotiations and organisational development activities in the region (see Kolachi and Akan, 2014). In this regard, Matherly and Al Nahyan (2015) propose the need for effective governance of national–expatriate knowledge transfer to build competitiveness, whereas Goby et al. (2015) highlight the need for the development and practice of an interpersonal communication and diversity climate framework in order to facilitate workforce localisation in countries which mostly have an expatriate workforce such as the UAE. Al-Rajhi et al. (2006) reveal the challenges for HRM in the region regarding the adjustment of impatriates. The research by Rodriguez and Scurry (2014) further confirms the need for foreign firms and employees to be highly responsive/adaptive to the local requirements in order to be successful in the Middle East context.

As indicated above, a number of countries in the region have also been actively pursuing nationalisation programmes (i.e., bringing more locals into jobs and reducing the dependence on foreign nationals). Such policies have major implications for the management of workplace quotas (Matherly and Al Nahyan, 2015), talent management (Singh and Sharma, 2015), interpersonal communication and diversity management (Goby et al., 2015), and for making such nationalisation programmes successful (e.g., Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2014).

There is also evidence that the names and nature of traditional personnel departments are being changed in the Middle East to emphasise the development of effective HRM systems to help firms compete at home and abroad. However, due to the scarcity of skilled HR professionals in most Middle Eastern countries, HR managers often rely on ‘trial and error’ to cope with the impact of macro-level changes taking place in the region including severe international competition. In order to cover such skill gaps, Middle Eastern countries are heavily investing in the development of their human resources. However, several factors (such as a lack of emphasis on developing analytical thinking in schools, a lack of a vocation-based education system, a negative perception about the participation of women in the main workforce, amongst others), in combination, are proving to be the main bottlenecks (see Mellahi, 2006; Abdalla, 2015; Sidani et al., 2015).

Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that certainly there has been a rapid increase in the emergence of literature regarding different aspects of HRM in the Middle
East. Though, at present it is patchy, as a result of which it is difficult to draw a conclusive and comprehensive picture of the scene. Such evidence also does not allow us to assume the existence of a 'Middle Eastern HRM model’, that is, a single HRM model with distinct Middle Eastern characteristics (Khan, 2011). This can also be attributed to the diversity between nations in the region, the lack of a key role played by different institutions such as trade unions, the absence of an effective labour legislation framework and so on. As a result, it seems that organisations in the Middle East use a whole range of different HRM policies and practices, and that the professionalisation of HRM functions is at different stages in different countries. Nevertheless, we can see an emerging and reliable trend towards an increasing interest of both practitioners and researchers in finding out about the HRM systems relevant to the Middle East region. Also, it is evident that information regarding the use of local and indigenous constructs is now emerging (as highlighted in a few chapters in this volume). Research on such constructs is much needed as it will provide insights into the underlying processes relevant for effective management of human resources in the region and contribute to theory development. A possible way forward is to conduct a systematic analysis starting from the basics and leading to an advanced analysis before assessing forthcoming key issues. This can help to provide a comprehensive analysis and a more reliable picture of the scene. An attempt is made in this regard in this handbook.

PLAN OF THE HANDBOOK

The 23 chapters in this volume cover three broad themes: contextual and functional issues; country and regional perspectives; and emerging themes and the future of HRM in the Middle East. In order to achieve consistency and a comprehensive picture of the scene, we asked all the contributors to write along specific themes. These included background information; core issues pertinent to a given topic/country; factors influencing the core topic(s); conceptual, theoretical and empirical developments; the present scenario; emerging key challenges and recommendations; and the way forward. Most of the contributors are either natives of the Middle East or have worked, and/or are still working and researching in HRM in the region for a significant period of time. Hopefully, this has enabled the authors to present a more realistic picture about various aspects of HRM.

In Chapter 2, Namazie and Venegas explore the implications of culture on HRM in the MENA region. Initially they provide an overview on the impact of globalisation on HRM and the developments in HRM across cultures. Then they examine the MENA context with an overview of the region, followed by a discussion on the national culture and related socio-cultural factors affecting HRM in the region. In particular, they discuss the cultural perspectives and their link to HR practices. The chapter closes with the implications of linkages between culture and HRM for both practitioners and researchers.

Building on Chapter 2, Harry presents in Chapter 3, a critical perspective on the rapidly changing societies and regional situations which are driving the way HRM is practised in many organisations in the Middle East. He propagates the idea that the way HRM, or management in general, treats existing and potential employees plays into the manner in which society-level changes become positive or negative in their impact. Utilising information about the demographic changes taking place in the Middle East,
the level of the education system dominating the region and the prevalence of a complex mix of societal-level factors, Harry highlights the challenges faced by principal HRM activities such as resourcing, learning, rewards, retention, and performance management. He concludes his chapter by indicating the positive developments taking place in the field of HRM in Middle East.

In Chapter 4, Giangreco and Vakkayil explore the nature and patterns of performance appraisal systems (PAS) emerging in the Middle East. In particular, they focus on the issues surrounding performance appraisals. They first summarise the logics embedded in the use of PAS in Western contexts and discuss their potential limitations when applied to the Middle East context. They then highlight the emerging logics important for PAS in the region and conclude their chapter by identifying key challenges and related recommendations, which could lead to successful results from PAS implemented in the Middle East set-up.

In Chapter 5, Raheem presents a thorough analysis of the past and present scenarios of talent management in GCC countries. Initially she presents her conceptual stance about the construct of talent management by defining it, and then she highlights the complex mix of institutional forces which affect talent management in the GCC nations. She also covers the topics of work ethics and the attitudes of locals and the challenges they create for the management of talent in the region. Raheem further highlights the organisational-level barriers to talent management and concludes her presentation by suggesting ways forward for effective talent management and future research avenues on the topic in the Middle East context.

The handbook provides in-depth information on the scenarios of HRM in eight countries in the region. In Chapter 6, Al-Jahwari and Budhwar present an overview regarding the nature of HRM in Oman, focusing on four main HR functions: recruitment, selection, training and compensation. To set the context for the analysis, information on Omani societal culture and its current political structure, economy, education and research is provided. They also discuss the issue of workforce localisation and HRM practices, the current challenges faced by HR managers and make recommendations regarding how best to handle the same. The latter part of the chapter looks at the emerging HRM model in Oman and sets an agenda for the future research direction.

In Chapter 7, Waxin and Bateman analyse the scenario of HRM in the UAE. They first examine the core issues and factors influencing HRM (such as the cultural and labour market characteristics, the evolving UAE education system and the Emiratisation process) in the country and then analyse the literature on HRM in the UAE. They also highlight the key HRM challenges in the UAE and make a number of recommendations for practitioners and researchers to tackle these by developing relevant systems and via research outcomes.

Chapter 8 is dedicated to HRM in Saudi Arabia. Tlaiss and Elamin first provide an overview of the major factors that impact the overall status of the workforce in Saudi Arabia, including various governmental reforms. Next, they summarise the key developments pertaining to research on HRM in the country. They also highlight the challenges faced by the HR departments and functions in Saudi Arabia and discuss the way forward. In addition, they discuss key findings from an empirical study that examined a set of traditional core HRM topics, such as selection and recruitment, performance appraisal and promotion, as well as the status of women, style of management, and business ethics.
In Chapter 9, Namazie and Pahlavnejad explore the nature and emerging patterns of HRM in Iran. They begin by examining the Iranian context and analysing the role of factors such as history, economy, demography, national culture and socio-economic developments, religion, management and leadership in Iran on HRM. Next they discuss HR developments in Iran and support their presentation with research findings on HRM in ten companies to highlight the nature of the HR function. Later, this chapter presents the key challenges faced by HRM and its future in Iran.

Chapter 10 deals with HRM in Lebanon. Afiouni and Nakhle present a systematic review of HRM and highlight the nature of national factors that might be shaping HRM practices. They further reflect upon current HRM practices and the challenges faced in light of cultural and institutional realities by HR functions in Lebanon. Lastly, the chapter covers areas of research that HR scholars and practitioners should focus on to push the field forward in the country.

El-Kot, in Chapter 11, highlights the critical need for an effective HRM function that can enable Egyptian organisations to compete internationally in the global economy. She begins the chapter with a description of the Egyptian business context by highlighting the importance of understanding the socio-culture and religion, which effect the implementation of HRM in organisations in Egypt. Next she provides an analysis of the core HR practices in Egypt such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and rewards and benefits. Finally, El-Kot covers the key challenges and opportunities for future developments in human resources in Egypt.

In Chapter 12, Ramdani, Mellahi and Guermat focus on HRM in Algeria. They initially discuss how the recent changes in the socio-political and economic environment coupled with changes in the cultural and institutional environment are affecting HRM policies and practices in Algeria. They further discuss the status and role of the HR department in Algerian firms, with a specific focus on high performance work practices (HPWP). They utilise an empirical study to support their presentation and arguments. The chapter concludes with a summary of results, a brief discussion of the main challenges facing the HR function in Algeria, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 13 highlights the state of HRM in Morocco. Hassi presents a portrait of HRM practices, focusing on Moroccan small and medium businesses. He uses data from semi-structured interviews with HR managers to highlight the nature and pattern of HRM practices. In order to set things in context, he provides a historical account of development in HRM. His discussion also covers challenges facing the HRM function and the future of HRM in Morocco.

The remaining ten chapters in the handbook are dedicated to emerging topics and ways forward for HRM in the Middle East. In Chapter 14, Al-Ajmi, Hirekhan, Budhwar, Al-Ajmi and Singh focus on the topic of employment relations in the context of domestic workers in Kuwait. Their analysis is based on the findings of an empirical study and from the perspective of employers. Initially they provide an overview on the scenario of domestic workers in the Middle East. Their analysis is based on the findings of an empirical study and from the perspective of employers. Initially they provide an overview on the scenario of domestic workers in the Middle East. This is followed by a presentation on the findings of their empirical research investigation. A variety of issues related to relevant legislation; sponsorship of domestic workers for jobs, their recruitment and the role played by the recruitment agencies in the same; and other issues surrounding the employment relations of domestic workers are highlighted. The chapter closes with a number of recommendations for different stakeholders.
Chapter 15 covers the topic of labour localisation and HRM practices in the Gulf countries. Waxin and Bateman first examine the literature on core issues pertinent to this theme such as demographic and labour-market characteristics in the GCC. They then discuss the objectives of localisation programmes and the major components of localisation policies. Next they analyse the literature on HRM practices that facilitate the implementation of localisation programmes and highlight the multiple challenges related to this. Finally, they make recommendations that can enhance the impact of localisation efforts.

In Chapter 16, Harrison and Haslberger focus on the topic of expatriate management across the MENA region. The authors aim to provide an understanding of the work developed to date on expatriate management in the region. In order to achieve this, they have analysed the literature on expatriate management across the MENA region, which has helped them to identify and discuss the key themes addressed in the field to date, discuss gaps in the literature and suggest a research agenda for future consideration.

Al Amri, Glaister and Spicer, in Chapter 17, examine the topic of talent management practice in Oman from an institutional perspective. Information from both private and public sectors is used to examine the role of institutional factors in shaping talent management systems in Omani companies. To set things in context, the analysis begins with a discussion of Oman's business environment and the impact of the nationalisation policy (Omanisation) on its industrial sectors. The concept of talent management is then introduced in the context of Oman's institutional environment, and, thereafter, the multiple perspectives of institutional theory are examined. Each of the perspectives is then related to the authors’ empirical findings and these are used to critically evaluate the impacts of the institutional environment on talent management programmes and the challenges that lay ahead.

In Chapter 18, AL-Husan and ALHussan focus on HRM in foreign firms operating in the Middle East. In order to put things in context, the topics of privatisation and investments in the region are also discussed. They begin their chapter by providing an overview of FDI and privatisation in the Middle East. This is followed by a discussion on the factors that influence MNCs’ transfer of HRM practices, the mechanisms used in the transfer process and the enablers of and constraints on this transfer. Evidence from three empirical case studies is used to examine the transfer of HRM practices from Western MNCs to state-owned enterprises (SOEs) that were privatised under the auspices of the Jordanian government’s privatisation programme. The chapter concludes by covering the key challenges in the region and the way forward.

Chapter 19 is dedicated to the emerging topic of the role of HRM in corporate social responsibility (CSR) in the Middle East. Jamali and El Dirani examine the increasing affinities between CSR and HRM. They make the case that HRM’s capabilities, expertise and knowledge in executing organisational strategies can potentially help in ensuring the integration of CSR within an organisation’s culture and fabric and significantly help to advance the CSR agenda. The authors compile the CSR–HRM blueprint, outlining how the CSR and HRM functions can be better integrated, and provide evidence from two successful cases from the Middle East where companies have made significant strides in terms of enacting the necessary alignment and reaping the desired benefits from the synergies of CSR and HRM. They conclude the chapter by highlighting the implications and suggesting the way forward in relation to how organisations can create a better alignment between CSR and HRM and benefit from it.
In Chapter 20, Cornelius, Pezet, Mahmoudi and Murtada examine the scenario of HRM in public sector firms in the Middle East. They review the literature on public sector policy developments across the Middle East and then highlight the characteristics of HRM in the public sector. Later on, they point out the main challenges for the practice of HRM in the public sector in the Middle East and present implications for future research.

Chapter 21 is dedicated to an in-depth analysis of the topic of ‘wasta’ in the Jordanian context. Ta’Amnha, Sayce and Tregaskis address the void in our understanding of the meaning and impact of wasta in contemporary Jordanian society. They draw on the available literature and empirical research to clarify the realities of wasta as experienced by those working in a Jordanian context, and to identify the cultural and institutional factors shaping the meaning of wasta and its impact. The authors also discuss the implications of the practice of wasta for the effectiveness of HRM and organisational performance.

In Chapter 22, Nasief proposes a framework for the analysis of HR localisation practices in GCC countries. Initially his presentation focuses on localisation within the GCC in general and Saudi Arabia in particular. Then he introduces work on institutional HRM and presents a framework for labour localisation, focusing on a case study conducted by him in order to provide research evidence for examining the framework. It is important to note that while this framework was applied to a case study in Saudi Arabia, the framework can be applied in other GCC countries with little adaptation. Finally, the chapter proposes ways in which to employ and develop the framework further.

In the last chapter, Mellahi and Budhwar summarise the emerging scenario of HRM in the Middle East. They also provide an overview of the current state of HRM research and highlight the emerging challenges for HRM in the region. It is believed that these issues are expected to be the focus of future research and will help to further enhance our understanding of HRM in the Middle East.

USEFUL WEBSITES

Arab League: http://www.araleagueonline.org
Middle East Media Research Institute: http://www.memri.org
Middle East Institute: http://www.mei.edu

REFERENCES

The Middle East context: an introduction 13


