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**Strategy Implementation Challenges in Public Sector Organizations in Abu Dhabi,
United Arab Emirates**

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**Strategy Implementation Challenges in Public Sector Organizations in
Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates**

A thesis
Submitted to the University of Bangor
In Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Dedication

I dedicated this work to my family, without their constant support this research would not have been possible to accomplish.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the challenging issues in implementation of strategy in public sector organizations in The United Arab Emirates Abu Dhabi. It tests the relationship between the factors associated with effective strategy implementation including organisational culture, structure and leadership with performance of the organizations in public sector. Proponents of strategic management in the public sector organizations have suggested that the style of leadership, organizational culture, and organizational structure are the key elements in implementing strategy successfully. This study therefore sought to answer three key questions in an attempt to highlight important considerations for managers of public sector organizations. What are the main challenges in strategy implementation process in public organizations in UAE? What are the senior managers' perceptions and attitudes of the strategy implementation and evaluation of strategy in public sector organizations? And what are the influential factors associated with the effective strategy implementation in public sector organizations and what is their impact on organizational performance? A questionnaire survey is used for data collection. The study uses a sample of 157 managers in the nine major public sector organizations in Abu Dhabi. The questionnaire was constructed using mainly closed ended questions. The close-ended questions were formatted using rating questions, matrix questions, semantic differential, and ranking questions. Before distributing the questionnaire, the pilot study has been carried out. In order to analyse the data and consequently testing the hypothesis, the collected data was summarised using statistical graphs such as, bar charts and histograms. Regarding the reliability of the data, reliability analysis on measurements has been carried out. The data has been analysed by SPSS software for

calculating correlation analysis and Lisrel software for testing the hypotheses. The results of the research show that the most challenging issues in implementing strategy are structure, leadership and organizational culture. There is a significant relationship between effective strategy implementation and organizational performance in public sector. Performance in organizations that implement their strategies successfully is better than organizations with poor strategy implementation. There is a need to develop more flexible organizational structure in public sector in UAE to be able to cope with changes. This research has contributed to the strategy theory by developing a conceptual framework. There are policy implications to support the policy makers to develop appropriate policies to overcome the strategy implementation challenges in public sector organizations.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Introduction

This thesis is an empirical study of strategy implementation challenges in public sector organisations in the UAE. It sheds light on the key issues in managing and implementing strategic decisions in public sector organisations and identifies the challenging issues related to the implementation of strategy. This chapter is an introduction to the thesis, and it provides a broad picture of this research. The chapter starts with an overview of the research background in strategic management. Then the rationale of the study is discussed in detail. The chapter continues by introducing the challenging issues in strategy implementation in public sector organisations. Then the research objectives and research questions will be discussed. An overview of the methodology of the work will be discussed in the next section. Finally, the chapter ends by introducing the structure of the thesis.

1.2. Research background

Strategic management has been recognised as an important practice that contributes to organisational success in the public sector (Wheelen & Hunger, 2011). It is been discussed that thinking strategically and using strategic management techniques and methods enhance the organisational success rate (Wit & Meyer, 2010). Recently, a great deal of attention has been paid to the role of strategic management practices in general and strategy implementation in particular in public sector organisations. It has been argued that the last decade of strategy research has seen the emergence of a much greater focus on the practicing strategy. For example, Johnson et al. (2011)

argued that research on doing strategy answers three main questions: what is done, how it is done and by whom. Cuganesan et al. (2012) argued that:

This focus on the doing of strategy – or, as it is increasingly labelled, ‘strategy-as-practice’ – variously studies:

- (i) those doing the strategizing (‘practitioners’);
- (ii) the social, symbolic and material tools that are used (‘practices’);
and
- (iii) The overall pattern of activities that comprise the doing of strategy (‘praxis’) (p. 248).

Cuganesan et al. (2012) built on the work by Jorgensen and Messner (2010) and developed a strategy-as-practice perspective. They argued that:

Our study is differentiated in that it seeks to draw out the detail of how such shared understandings are developed and the specific ways in which diverse interests are mediated across the formal strategic practices of direction setting, resource allocation, and monitoring and control in particular. (Cuganesan et al., 2012, p. 248)

The word ‘strategy’ has long been used in a variety of ways and has been conceptualised in diverse forms (Ansoff & McDonnel, 1990; Porter, 1998; Wheelen & Hunger, 2011, Coulter, 2011). One early definition of strategy was provided by Chandler (1990), who argued that strategy is the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources for carrying out those goals. Mintzberg and Quinn (1998) identified interrelated definitions of strategy as: plan, pattern, position, and perspective. Karami (2007) argued that strategy is an area of management that is

concerned with the general direction and long-term policy of the business as distinct from short-term tactics and day-to-day operations. Coulter (2011) defined strategy as an organisation's goal-directed decisions and actions in which its capabilities and resources are matched with the opportunities and threats in the environment (p. 5). Almost all definitions of strategy have some key parts. First, strategy involves an organisation's goals. This is important in public sector organisations, where the organisation's goals are formed mainly by government policies (Pitts & Lei, 1996). Therefore, organisations in the public sector should develop a goal-directed strategy. Second, strategy involves action. In other words, an organisation's strategy involves not only what it wants to achieve but actually doing it (Porter, 1998). Therefore, doing strategy becomes more important in public sector organisations, where the people at the operational level have less input in developing organisational strategies (Nayyar & Bantel, 1994). This study seeks to conceptualise this issue in public sector organisations and identify the key challenges the top managers face in the implementation of strategy in public sector organisations in the UAE.

Karami (2007) argued that the dominant paradigm in strategic management is a prescriptive, rational and analytic model characterized by two principal functions: strategy formulation and implementation. This approach has evolved over decades. The major contributors to this approach are Ansoff (1984), Porter (1998) and David (2011). It has been argued that strategic management is about how a strategy is developed and implemented (Cole, 1994). Therefore, there are two key elements in the strategic management process: strategy formulation and strategy implementation. Strategy formulation is how organisations in the public sector choose to define strategy (Mintzberg et al., 1995). Accordingly, strategy implementation is how to put

strategy into action and to evaluate strategy. The approach to strategy formulation will dictate the eventual management style. The top management team in public sector organisations plays a significant role in the implementation of strategy through strategic leadership and managing the culture of the organisation (Coulter, 2012). The nature of the strategy formulation will therefore result in the adoption of a specific approach to strategic management. The development of a strategy can be formal or rational (Mintzberg, 1994) and emergent or progressed (Whittington, 1993) under a logical incremental path. Strategic management handles how a strategy is developed and how the organisation's environment is analysed before the appropriate strategy is selected and implemented (Thompson, 1995; Wheelen & Hunger, 2011). The implementation of strategy is the most challenging part of the process of strategic management in public sector organisations. Though some have argued that public sector organisations do not commonly practice strategic management significantly (David, 2011), several studies have found a positive relationship between strategic management and performance in the public sector. For example, Garmeli (2004) studied the role of human capital as an internal factor for organisations in the implementation of strategy. The study attempted to bridge this gap by suggesting a behavioural approach to measuring organisation-specific human capital and examining its impact on the financial performance of local government authorities (Garmeli, 2004, p. 375). The results confirmed that factors associated with educated and highly skilled human capital, such as leadership quality and management skills, play a significant role in successfully implementing strategy.

Proponents of strategic management in public sector organisations have suggested that the style of leadership (Valdman et al., 2004; Crossan et al., 2008), organisational

culture (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010; Agbényiga, 2011; Jacobs et al., 2013) and organisational structure (Tse, 1991; Willem et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2013) are the key elements in successfully implementing strategy. The literature suggests that, as the activities and supporting functional areas of an organisation become more complex, strategic management will develop through various stages from its initial beginnings in simple financial plans and budgets to forecast-based planning, externally oriented planning where the managers begin to think strategically, proactively planning the firm's future and formal strategic management techniques (Karami, 2007; Coulter, 2011; Johnson et al., 2011). It is often argued that managers must make this necessary progression toward a strategic orientation and more sophisticated strategic management techniques in public sector organisations as the environment becomes more turbulent to ensure the long-term success of the organisation (Mintzberg et al., 1995; Wit & Meyer, 2010).

Finally, it is important to recognise that, in studying strategic management practice in public sector organisations, the role of the top management team is critical (Wheelen & Hunger, 2011; Wit & Meyer, 2010). Many managers in public organisations do not believe that strategic management applies to their organisations. This is due to the assumption that the level of change in the environment is exaggerated for public sector organisations. The environment is simple, and the level of change at the macro level is not sudden or deep (Johnson et al., 2011). Therefore, organisations in the public sector do not need strategy to react to changes in the environment or to be proactive (Nayyar & Bantel, 1994). The top management team's personal goals, characteristics and strategic awareness will all significantly affect the development of strategy in the public sector (David, 2011). Previous studies have shown that the

strategy implementation process is heavily influenced by the strategic leadership. The ability to comprehend and make appropriate use of sophisticated strategic management practice in an organisation in the public sector is a function of top management's previous experience (Crossan et al., 2008; Mintzberg, 1994; Coulter, 2012).

1.3. Rationale of the study

A review of the literature revealed that, while the volume of literature on strategic management in private business organisations is extensive (Pearce & Robinson, 1994; Hitt et al., 1998; Lowry et al., 1999; Hoskisson, 2000; Wheelen & Hunger, 2011), the literature on strategic management in public sector organisations is limited (Crossan et al., 2008; Hrebiniak, 2006). Strategic management as a field of study typically deals with business firms; however, public sector organisations cannot be ignored (Cole, 1994; David, 2011).

Some writers have argued that formal strategic management procedures are particularly inappropriate in the public sector, as, for companies operating within a stable environment where conditions are not changing fast or are changing incrementally at a maximum, strategic thinking becomes meaningless (Coulter, 2011). In contrast, there is a large volume of literature on applications of strategic management in public sector organisations (Hrebiniak, 2006). However, a considerable volume of literature has focused on strategy formulation rather than strategy implementation in public sector organisations. This research study is a direct response to the gap in literature on studying strategy implementation in public sector organisations.

Strategy implementation is the sum of the activities and choices required for the execution of a strategic plan (Wheelen & Hunger, 2011). It is a process by which strategies are put into action. Implementation is not seen as a science but as a craft. It has been argued (Hrebiniak, 2006) that strategy formulation and implementation are separate, distinguishable parts of the strategic management process. Each can be differentiated and discussed separately, conceptually and practically. Logically, implementation follows formulation; one cannot implement, carry out or ensure the fulfilment of something until that something exists (Zajac, 1995). Making strategy work implies the existence of strategy. However, formulation and implementation are also interdependent, part and parcel of an overall process of planning, executing and adapting. Wheelen and Hunger (2011) argued that, in an effective strategy implementation process, three major issues should be identified. First, who are the people who will carry out the strategic plan? Second, what must be done to align the organisation's operations in the new intended direction? Third, how is everyone going to work together to do what is needed? A review of a wide range of literature reveals that little research has been done regarding implementation, although it is as important as the formulation of strategy. This dilemma was retested by Hrebiniak (2006) to identify the reoccurring problems and obstacles associated with strategy implementation. He claimed that, despite the importance of strategy implementation and the balance that should occur between implementation and formulation, the implementation field is still ignored in the literature. Hrebiniak (2006) argued that one basic problem is that managers know more about strategy formulation than about implementation. They have been trained to plan, not to execute plans. Execution is

most certainly touched on, but not in a dedicated, elaborate and purposeful way. The emphasis clearly is on conceptual work, primarily planning, and not on doing.

When it comes to defining strategy implementation, there was no main or clear definition of it. Strategy implementation has been defined in different ways. The literature review reveals three main areas in the definition of strategy implementation: process, behaviour and hybrid. Some authors (Hrebiniak, 2006; Wit & Meyer, 2010) have defined implementation as a process. On the other hand, some authors (Varadarajan & Dillon, 1982) have viewed implementation as behaviour, which seems to have more advocates. A few others, such as Wheelen and Hunger (2011), have adopted a hybrid perspective on implementation, which, as the name indicates, is a mixture of behaviour and process. In their definition of strategy implementation, they described it as a dynamic, iterative and complex process that comprises a series of decisions and activities by managers and employees – affected by a number of interrelated internal and external factors – to turn strategic plans into reality to achieve strategic objectives. Hrebiniak (2006) also argued that another problem in strategy implementation is that:

Some top-level managers believe strategy implementation is ‘below them,’ something best left to lower-level employees. Indeed, this comes from an actual quote from a high-level manager who believed that it was top-management’s role to plan and think strategically, and the role of lower-level ‘grunts’ to simply carry out the top level’s demands and implementation requirements. (p. 13)

It has been argued that the barriers to strategy implementation can be classified into four main categories: vision barrier, people barrier, resource barrier and management barrier (Carmeli, 2004; Crossan et al., 2008; David, 2011). A vision barrier occurs when the organisation strategy is not understandable by the employees (Bart, 1998). A missing link between people's objectives and the organisation's strategy is the people barrier (McIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Misallocation of the resources causing a waste of time, money and energy is the resource barrier. Finally, a management barrier occurs when the managers allocate less time for long-term objectives and waste time on short-term strategic decisions (Jacobs et al., 2013). This study explores the application of strategy implementation in public sector organisations in the UAE. The rationale for that is the significant role of public sector organisations in the UAE economy. Public sector organisations are the key drivers of economic growth in Abu Dhabi.

1.4. Objectives of the study and the research questions

Previous research in the field of strategic management in the public sector has suggested several issues of significance that merit further investigation. The overall aim of this study is to explore senior managers' perceptions and attitudes and contribution to the strategic management process in general and strategy implementation in particular in public sector organisations in the UAE. The research questions and the relevant research hypotheses were developed after a review of the literature. In this section, a brief overview of the research questions and objectives of the study and the relevant hypotheses are presented; however, their details and the process of developing the conceptual framework of the research are presented in chapter four.

This study sought to answer the following questions in an attempt to highlight important considerations for managers of public sector organisations.

1. What are the main challenges in the strategy implementation process in public organisations in the UAE?
2. What are the senior managers' perceptions and attitudes regarding strategy implementation and the evaluation of strategy in public sector organisations?
3. What are the influential factors associated with the effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations and what is their impact on organisational performance?

To answer to the research questions, four main propositions were developed. All of these propositions are separate but linked together alongside the research objectives.

Research objective 1: To investigate the relationship between strategy implementation and organisational performance in the public sector.

Research objective 2. To identify and investigate the relationship between the types of associated structure and effective strategy implementation in the public sector.

Research objective 3: To investigate the role of strategic leadership in implementing strategy in the public sector.

Research objective 4: To investigate the role of organisational culture in successfully implementing strategy.

All of the research objectives aim to investigate the relationship between the research variables, which are addressed in the research hypotheses. The relationship between

the research objectives and hypotheses is illustrated in Table 1.1. The research hypotheses are as follows:

H_1 : There is a significant relationship between effective strategy implementation and organisational performance in the public sector.

H_2 : There is a significant relationship between the organisational structure and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations.

H_{2a} : There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and formal organisational structure.

H_{2b} : There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and informal organisational structure.

H_3 : There is a significant relationship between style of leadership and strategy implementation.

H_{3a} : Effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transformational leadership.

H_{3b} : Effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transactional leadership.

H_4 : There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations.

H_{4a} : Successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with an open culture.

H4b : Successful strategy implementation in public sector

organisations is significantly associated with a closed culture.

Table 1.1

The relation between the research objectives and hypotheses

Research objectives	Related Hypotheses
Research objective 1	H1
Research objective 2	H2 (H2a and H2b)
Research objective 3	H3 (H3a and H3b)
Research objective 4	H4 (H4a and H4b)

The details of the findings and discussion of each research objective and hypothesis are provided in chapters six and seven. This research study provides a theoretical framework for analysing strategy implementation in public sector organisations. It presents empirical evidence from selected organisations in Abu Dhabi to describe the strategy implementation challenges they face.

1.5. Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organised in eight separate but interlinked chapters. Chapter one provides a broad picture of the thesis and presents the research background to the study and the rationale of the research. The research objectives and the hypotheses are presented in this chapter.

Chapter two provides an overview of the major works in the areas of strategy and management. This chapter provides a critical literature review in strategy implementation. A number of important concepts in strategy are introduced. The chapter starts by defining the terms ‘strategy’ and ‘strategic management’. It continues with a review of the literature on the major factors associated with strategy implementation, including organisational culture, leadership and organisational structure. The chapter addresses the history, nature and models of strategy implementation. It continues by introducing the balanced scorecard as a matrix to measure organisational performance. The chapter ends with a chapter summary.

Chapter three provides detailed information about the UAE. The chapter starts with the historical background of the country and continues by providing basic information on the UAE. The chapter also discusses the structure of the seven Emirates and ends with a detailed discussion on the government of Abu Dhabi.

Chapter four provides the conceptual framework of the research. Accordingly, this chapter reviews the major challenges in strategy implementation in the UAE. The major topics covered in this chapter are strategy implementation, organisational structure, leadership, organisational culture and organisational performance. The chapter goes on to develop a conceptual framework for the research. The framework developed from the theories can be seen as consisting of three main elements.

Chapter five describes how the research design was developed and, in doing so, draws together all of the preceding chapters. This chapter ends with a discussion of the data analysis techniques and the selection of appropriate data analysis for quantitative data.

Chapter six provides the descriptive data. This chapter introduces the descriptive characteristics of the collected data, such as means, standard deviations and skewness. The main objective of this chapter is to provide a clear picture of the distribution of the data order select the appropriate statistical techniques for data analysis. And the chapter ends with a chapter summary

Chapter seven continues with another level of advanced data analysis results using LISREL. The chapter ends with a chapter summary.

Chapter eight discusses the major findings of the research in connection with the research objectives and hypotheses. The hypotheses offered by the conceptual framework of the research are compared with the findings of the study, providing interesting insight into the phases of the process of strategy implementation in public sector organisations. Finally, the chapter ends with a conclusion.

Chapter nine is the concluding chapter and, as such, is primarily concerned with the significance of the findings of the research. The chapter begins by revisiting the objectives of the research and the research questions. The chapter then considers each of the main research hypotheses. The chapter then explains the theoretical and practical contributions of the research. The chapter suggests further investigations in the field and concludes with a consideration of the limitations and difficulties encountered during the research process.

Chapter 2

Literature review: factors associated with strategy implementation

2.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of five main sections. Section one reviews strategy definitions, strategy evolution, approaches and finally strategy management processes in organisations, which includes strategy formulation, implementation and evaluation stages. After a general discussion of the strategy concept, the chapter will focus on factors associated with strategy implementation, including organisational culture, organisational structure and leadership. Section two is a review of organisational culture, its definitions, types and characteristics and its relationship with strategy implementation in organisations. Section three is a comprehensive study of organisational structures, definitions, types and the relationship between strategy and structure in companies. Section four reviews management roles and leadership theories and styles, including transformational and transactional leadership. Also, the relationship between strategy implementation and leadership is been discussed. Section five presents definitions of organisational performance, measurement models and performance evaluation in public sectors. Finally, the chapter ends with a chapter summary.

2.2 Strategy in management

In this section the literature on strategy in general, and strategy implementation in particular, will be reviewed.

2.2.1 Origin of strategy

The term 'strategy' has been used in different fields. The word 'strategy' is derived from the Greek *strategos* meaning army, and *ago* meaning leading or moving (Nixon & Burns, 2012). The corresponding meaning for strategy in Greek is *strategika episteme* (knowledge) and *strategon sophia* (wisdom). Also, it refers to military concepts, *stratagems*, which are tricks of war (Senturk, 2012).

2.2.1.1. Definitions of strategy

Strategy has different meanings in different contexts, and there is no agreement amongst academics as to what actually constitutes strategy. Hence, strategy in business has been defined as an overall direction and long-term policy derived from short-term tactics (Eren, 2006). According to Simsek (2002), "strategy is a long-term plan which is formulated by considering competitors". Also, Mirze and Ulgen (2004) defined strategy as a "set of dynamic decisions designated to reach objectives, by focusing on eventual results in long term which examines the activities of competitors". According to Dincer (2007), strategy is "a process of reorganising the necessary tools and resources, planning the activities, guiding the operations and providing a competitive advantage to determine objectives which are compatible with changing environmental conditions". Strategy is concerned with changes in uncertain situations and provides a long-term plan or direction to achieve organisational goals (Grant, 2005; Fitzroy & Hulbert, 2005).

Mintzberg et al., (2005) provide different interrelated definitions for strategy in management area. They state that strategy is a purposeful plan which has been designed before taking action to fulfil the goals and objectives of an organisation.

2.2.2. Evolution of the concept of strategy

During the last three decades the concept of strategy in business and management has been dramatically developed. During the 1960s and 70s, the emphasis was mainly on growth, vertical integration and diversification. The leading concept in the field of strategic management, which was proposed by Boston Consulting Group, focused on product life cycle, the experience curve, SBUs (strategic business units) and portfolio matrices (Grant & Jordan, 2012). Then, in the 1980s, the five-force model, generic strategies and value chain, was proposed by Michael Porter (Jacobids, 2010).

Gradually the emphasis on growth was shifted to new concepts such as competition and information. The main priorities in the 2000s were globalisation, competitive advantages and the force of information technology (Kreitner, 2004). These changes occur in the core of businesses and strategy should be able to response to these changes. A growing number of researchers have developed different approaches to strategy (Zajac et al., 2000; Upton & Felon, 2001; Meier et al., 2006). The four approaches to strategy were proposed by Wittington (1993) (see Karami, 2007, p.7), namely: classical, processual, evolutionary and systemic. A summary of the characteristics of the four main approaches is shown in Table 2.1.

2.2.3. Levels of strategy

There are three levels of strategy, including corporate strategy, business strategy and operational strategies.

Corporate level (determining strategy) is concerned with overall firm strategy – managing shareholders and stakeholders. It also includes corporate parenting, which deals with managing portfolio – structure, resourcing and synergy (Jacobids, 2010).

Table 2.1 The characteristics of the four main approaches to strategy

	Classical	Processual	Evolutionary	Systemic
Strategy	Formal	Crafted	Efficient	Embedded
Rational	Profit maximization	Vague	Survival	Local
Focus	Internal plans	Internal (political/cognitions)	External (markets)	External (societies)
Influence	Economic/military	Psychology	Economics/biology	Sociology
Authors	Chandler/Ansof Porter	Cyert & March Mintzberg/Pettigrew	Hannan & Freeman Williams	Granovetter Marris
Period	1060s	1970s	1980s	1990s

Adapted from Karami (2007, p. 7)

Business level refers to defining and integrating strategy in single business units or strategic business units (SBUs), which operate in different environments, competing for resources and selling strategic issues to the parent (David, 2003).

Operating or functional level refers to implementing and initiating strategy and includes marketing strategy, logistics strategy and HR strategy (Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012).

SBUs are part of an organisation where there is a distinct external market for goods or services (Grant & Jordan, 2012).

2.2.4. Strategy approaches

According to Martinet (2010), strategy in organisations includes the ‘five Ps’, which were suggested by Mintzberg (1987). Each of them is a different approach to strategy. The five Ps are: plan, ploy, pattern, position and perspective. Understating each of them helps organisations to form a successful strategy.

Strategy as a plan: in order to deal with different situations in organisations, managers have to make guidelines and plan different kinds of activities. Strategy should be planned in advance and with purpose. Although planning is very important and essential for formulation of strategy, it is not enough on its own. So the other Ps are important as well (Golden et al., 2007).

Strategy as a ploy: according to Mintzberg (1987), this means a specific strategy for thinking seriously about competitors, getting the best of them, having impact on them and even discouraging or disrupting them. It means strategy can be a ploy as well as a plan (Martinet, 2010).

Strategy as a pattern: strategy becomes a pattern based on the organisations past behaviours. Managers can use the organisation’s successful experiences in the past in future planning. They can think deeply about the organisation’s already successful points – in other words, strategy covers patterns in stream of actions (Jermias & Gant, 2004).

Strategy as a position: the decision to locate an organisation in a particular environment or position it in a special marketplace. In this definition, strategy is a way of achieving sustainable competitive advantages for organisations. The

organisations try to fit themselves in with environmental conditions. In order to analyse the environment, the organisations can use tools such as Porter's five forces and pest analysis (Meier et al., 2006; Golden et al., 2007).

Strategy as a perspective paradigm: strategy depends on organisational culture and behavioural patterns. The thinking patterns of managers and employees have deep effects on the strategic perspective of an organisation. The organisation can use cultural analysis tools such as Deal and Kennedy's cultural model to form an understanding of the strategic perspective of their organisation (Jacobids, 2010).

Strategic management helps organisations to achieve their objectives by formulating, implementing and evaluating decisions in regard to important issues such as integrating management, marketing, finance, human resources, production and R&D (Gibbons & Connor, 2005).

In business literature, the term 'strategic planning' is likely to be used instead of 'strategic management', which is an academic word. The purpose of strategic management is formulation, implementation and evaluation of strategy, while strategic planning mostly refers to strategy formulation and long-term planning for the future using today's successful experiences (Perry, 2001).

Strategic planning was proposed for the first time in the 1950s and was focused on more deeply during the 1970s. Most managers believed that strategic planning was the solution for all organisational problems and the main way to achieve success (Perry, 2001; Grant & Jordan, 2012).

2.2.5. Strategic management processes and perspectives

In general, strategic management is a set of managerial decisions and behaviours to realise and determine how companies can improve their long-term performance (Golden et al., 2007). Strategic management includes internal and external environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation and evaluation or control (Upton & Felon, 2001; David, 2003; Martinet, 2010).

Strategic management involves decision making by managers about significant issues within firms, and affecting the proper strategy. The strategic management process describes an organisation's strategies (Karami, 2007). By these processes, managers of organisations carefully choose a set of strategies which help them to accomplish better performances. It is a conscious, purposeful and continuous process to determine and fix goals to cover present and future competitors. There are various strategic management models (Tikkanen & Halinen, 2003).

According to David (2005), the strategic management process consists of three main stages: formulation, strategy implementation and strategy evaluation. Some academics have added an analysis stage before the formulation stage (Wang et al., 2007). In this view, analysis is embedded in the formulation stage and is not apart from it.

Strategic formulation is an organisation's effort to develop a vision and mission, and their organisational statement. It begins with determining the vision and mission of the organisation, then analysing not only the internal factors related to the organisation such as its strengths and weakness, but the external factors such as opportunities and threats too (Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012). This process is called SWOT analysis. The information extracted by SWOT brings the main strategy

in line with the organisation's mission. In this stage, the organisation tries to develop objectives, creates alternative strategies and finally it determines a fixed strategy (Powell, 2006).

After identifying and realising the firm's capabilities and strengths and other competitors' competences, the strategy will be formulated (Dyson, 2004; Powell, 2006). During the strategic formulation stage, firm's decision makers agree on determined business, resources, technology, markets, international relationships and competitors, as well as how to enter business and keep it safe (Carland & Carland, 2003; Wang et al., 2003).

Top managers should fully understand and play an important role in formulating strategy and should decide how to prepare necessary resources for the implementation of strategy (Payson, 2004).

Strategy implementation as an action stage of strategic management deals with executing the formulated strategy. In this stage the focus is on establishing policies, allocating resources, developing supportive culture, designing organisational structure, establishing information systems and managing employees' activities (Golden et al., 2007).

In order to maximise competitive advantages, firms should identify the firm's distinctive competences and recognise the activities which they can perform in the best way (David, 2005; Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012).

This stage has been called the most difficult stage in the strategy management process. The implementation of a successful strategy depends on both top managers

and employees' high commitment and personal desire. It is defined as an art not a science. Strategy evaluation is the last stage of the strategy management process (Dobni & Luffman, 2003; David, 2003). Managers continuously need to control and check whether the strategies are working well or not. They evaluate the strategy to get information in this regard. As the external and internal issues which affect organisational processes are always changing (Upton & Felon, 2001), the strategies should be checked in order to assure that they are suitable and working, or not (Bikhchandani et al., 2006).

The third stage deals with organising the duties and choosing the best and most skilled human resources to perform the tasks, and encouraging and rewarding them for effective performance (Carland & Carland, 2003). As the external environment changes over time, it can have a great effect on the firm's performances. Managers should always be aware of these kind of changes and continuously re-examine and monitor the strategy process in order to adjust the mission, goals and strategy implementation according to external changes (Karami, 2007).

Strategy evaluation including three main activities (Goodwin & Wright, 2001):

- 1) monitoring all internal and external factors,
- 2) measuring performance, and
- 3) developing modifications and supportive actions.

The evaluation stage is very important because today's success in the changing business environment does not guarantee success tomorrow. These three stages

happen in large organisations and the public sector since they have divisions and SBUs (Tayler, 2010).

Venkatraman and Subramaniam (2002) view strategic management as having three distinct sections: traditional strategic management (strategy as a business portfolio), competence-based view (portfolio of capabilities) and network approach (portfolio of relationships). Each section demonstrates the researchers' ideas about different strategy issues and competitive advantages (Tikkanen & Halinen, 2003; Buytendijk et al., 2004).

2.2.6. Strategy implementation in public sector organisations

This section covers strategy implementation in public sector organisations. During the last decades, strategy has acquired deep meaning in planning and managerial issues within public sector organisations. Strategy is a set of actions and policies that demonstrate the main direction of an organisation and how it achieves its objectives in the long term (Martinet, 2010). In general, strategic management is a set of managerial decisions and actions to realise and determine how companies can improve their long-term performance (Carland & Carland, 2003). Strategic management includes internal and external environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation and evaluation, and control. Strategic management is decision making by managers regarding significant issues within firms, and the utilisation of proper strategy (Tayler, 2010; Merchants & Van Der Stede, 2012).

Strategic management process describes organisations' main strategies (Gibbons & Connor, 2005). By these processes, managers carefully choose a set of strategies which help them to accomplish better performances. In public sector organisations, the government's policies are possibly the most influential factors in the formulation of strategies. Strategy formulation is a conscious, purposeful and continuous process to determine and fix goals to cover present and future competitors (Kell et al., 2007).

There are varieties of strategic management models which are applicable in public sector organisations (Tikkanen & Halinen, 2003). The main paradigm in strategic management is considered to have two major purposes: strategy formulation and implementation. Over the years, management strategists have considerably emphasised strategy implementation (Van Der Maas, 2008; Van Buul, 2010).

Karami (2007) believes that strategic management is an artistic skill by which managers formulate, implement and evaluate an organisation's objectives. Golden et al., (2007) assert that strategic management explains about developing and implementing of strategy. The opinion of Powell (2006) is that strategy formulation is about how an enterprise chooses to define and implement its strategy by strategic management.

According to Tayler (2010), the two main features of strategic management are forming and implementing strategy, and the success or failure of strategy depends on these two features. During the strategy implementation process, some points should be carefully noted, such as: leadership, annual goals, policies, resource

allocation, conflict management, organisational structure, management of resistance and organisational culture (Van Buul, 2010).

One of the main arguments against these theories, by Johnson and Scholes (1993), is that strategic management is not a sole management process, because a manager is often required to cope with functional and operational problems. To implement strategy effectively, these tasks are essential, whereas it is not the same for strategic management.

Factors for successful implementation of strategy are: organisational culture, budgeting, implementing and facilitating procedures, continuous improvement, installation and operation of information systems, motivating employees and finally, the application of internal leadership toward strategy (Van Buul, 2010). The absence of any of these items in an organisation can cause problems in the implementation of strategy.

Lindenberg (2001) states that implementing and evaluating organisational strategy are the two critical factors for an organisation's success, rather than formulation strategy or analysing the internal and external environment of an organisation. Powell (2006) points out that managers have an important role in implementing strategy in organisations since the planning is just a small part of strategic management.

Strategy implementation includes many key factors. It required activities such as collecting and gathering support and commitment from people involved in effective leadership, and also gathering resources which will support the new plan (Martinet, 2010).

Heide et al. (2002) call strategy implementation an administrative task because of the nature of these activities. After reviewing the literature and several models, it can be observed that a great deal of theoretical and empirical studies on strategy implementation, such as Heide et al. (2002), Bikhchandari et al. (2006), Crittenden and Crittenden (2008) and Tayler, (2010) indicate that different models have been tested to determine how and which factors help to reach an effective implementation of strategy (Jacobids, 2010).

Several recurrent factors emerge from the review as being important in strategy implementation. They are as follows: organisational culture, organisational structure and leadership style. These three key factors are associated with effective strategy implementation and will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.3. Organisational culture and strategy implementation

2.3.1. Organisational culture

Organisational culture is a pattern of behaviour developed by an organisation (Martin, 2002; Braithwaite et al., 2010). The literature proposes two main definitions of culture, which are defined by Kilmann et al., (1985): “Culture can be defined as the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and norms that knit a community together”. Frost et al. (1985) state, “talking about organizational culture seems to mean talking about the importance for people of symbolism - of rituals, myths, stories, and legends - and about the interpretation of events, ideas, and experiences that are influenced and shaped by the groups within which they live”.

Organisational culture is a way of thinking and doing things that unites groups and individuals inside organisations in order to achieve common goals (Brown, 1995). Organisational culture is a system that demonstrates all organisational members' shared values, beliefs and views about organisational tasks. It also deals with employees' actions and feelings, and each firm has its own culture that is different from other firms (Schein, 1986; Flynn & Chatman, 2001; Kusluvan & Karamustafa, 2003; Throsby, 2003).

2.3.2. Types of organisational culture

Organisational culture can be divided in two main types: traditional control and employee involvement (Alvesson, 2002; Macintosh & Doherty, 2010; Jacobs et al., 2013). Traditional control is focused on demands and relies on top down control of employees' behaviour in, where managers' beliefs and values shape and form the culture of the organisation. Employee involvement emphasises employee participation and the development of patterns under the influence of employee values (Smart & Wolfe, 2000; Flynn & Chatman, 2001; Kusluvan & Karamustafa, 2003; Chatman & Cha, 2003; Carmeli & Tishler, 2004; Chan et al., 2004; Choi & Scott, 2008; Zhou et al., 2011).

A scientific classification of organisational culture, according to Williams et al. (1989), is based on the characteristics of power, tasks and people in organisations. It consists of four main categories:

- **Power-oriented culture:** these organisations try to dominate and show control and authority over all subordinates.

- **Role-oriented culture:** the organisations focus on hierarchical levels, legality, legitimacy and accountability.
- **Task-oriented culture:** in these organisations, the accomplishment of tasks and fulfillment of duties is more important than anything.
- **People-oriented culture:** the organisational members' needs, requirements and feelings are the first priority of the organisation.

The interpretation of organisation culture according to Sonnenfeld's (1988) model (DeJos, 2005):

- **Baseball team culture:** this is related to organisations' unsustainable and rapidly changing environment which has effects on reactions and creativity in the firm. Therefore, organisations try to adapt very quickly to changes (Nicolescu, 2003).
- **Club culture:** organisations seek loyalty and commitment from people to increase members' spirit (Nastase, 2006).
- **Academy culture:** organisations use expert consultants and the high-level skills of employees (Olaru, 2003).
- **Fortress culture:** when the business environment is very uncertain, this kind of culture focuses on increasing members' confidence, ensuring the business survives and leading the teams to fight for success (Macintosh & Doherty, 2010).

2.3.3 Characteristics of organisational culture

The characteristics of corporate culture have been explained by many researchers (e.g., Sørensen, 2002; Chatman & Cha, 2003; Kerr & Slocum, 2005;

Aktas et al., 2011). The common features are that corporate culture is intangible, implicit, invisible and informal.

Strong versus weak culture: in an organisation with strong culture, the values of the organisation are shared widely among members and large numbers of employees accept and believe in the core values of the company. Strong culture means loyalty, high commitment and behavioural control. In contrast, weak culture features very low organisational commitment, and the core values are not understood and shared among a great number of employees. In firms with strong culture there are some common symbolic heroes, specific slogans, myths and legends and specific language throughout the company (Chatman & Cha, 2003).

National culture versus corporate culture: employee's behaviour is under the effect of their national culture. Organisations should increase awareness and hire staff with cultures and training that easily fit in with the organisational culture. Sometimes national biases have an impact on overall organisational culture; especially in international companies, all organisational members have to obey and follow the organisational culture and forget their personal and national cultures (Sørensen, 2002).

2.3.4 Organisational culture typology

Organisational culture typology and its alternatives have been studied by many researchers. There are different kinds of typologies in terms of organisational culture and strategy. Some of them emphasise the importance of organisations' functions, such as technology, customer, marketing, and financial issues (Colyer, 2000; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002; Lee & Yu, 2004; Smith & Shilbury, 2004; Shortell et al.,

2004), and others focus on market approaches as being prospector, analyser or defender. Some typologies look at stockholders' values and some approaches consider employees and competitors (Chatman & Cha, 2003; Macintosh & Doherty, 2010; Zhou et al., 2011). A summary of these viewpoints is shown in Table 2.2.

Organisational culture has four main functions and plays a very important role during strategic management processes (Dodek et al., 2010). Those functions are as follows:

- 1) **Integration function:** the culture integrates employees into the company. Not only do new employees need integration, but also maintaining integration is important as well.
- 2) **Guidance function:** the culture guides all employees toward organisational objectives and goals. This is very complex and challenging as it deals with humans. It energises employees to carry out their tasks in any condition. Human resource management and managerial culture are very important in applying this function.
- 3) **Protection function:** this protects organisation members against environmental changes. The changes include financial, political, and social dangers which can affect employees' behaviours and shared values. The duty of organisational culture is to protect employees and organisational behaviours and actions, and not let the environmental changes have negative effects on them.
- 4) **Maintaining culture:** this means keeping the companies' values and traditions alive and transferring them to new employees. Any

strong firms have strong culture and traditions that have been passed to new generations.

Table 2.2 Typology of firm culture

Authors	Deal & Kennedy (1982)	Schine (1985)	Graves (1986)	Williams et al, (1989)
C ontrast	Risk (high/low) Vs. Feedback speed (fast/slow)	Individualistic Vs. Collectivistic	Bureaucratic, anti-bureaucratic Vs. Managerial-Ego driven	Formalisation Vs. Centralisation
Culture labels and features	Tough guy culture Risk taking Individualistic	Power culture Entrepreneurial Ability values	Barbarian Ego driven Workaholic	Power-oriented Competitive- Responsibility to person rather than expertise
	Work hard - Persistent - Sociable	Achievement culture Personal Intrinsic	Presidential Democratic Hierarchical	People-oriented - Consensual - Not management control
	Bet your company - Ponderous - Unpressurised	Support culture Mutuality Trust	Monarchical Loyalty Doggedness	Task-oriented Competency Dynamic
	Process culture Bureaucratic -Protective	Role culture - Order - Dependable	Pharaonic Ritualised Changeless	Role-oriented Legality Legitimacy

Source: Adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010

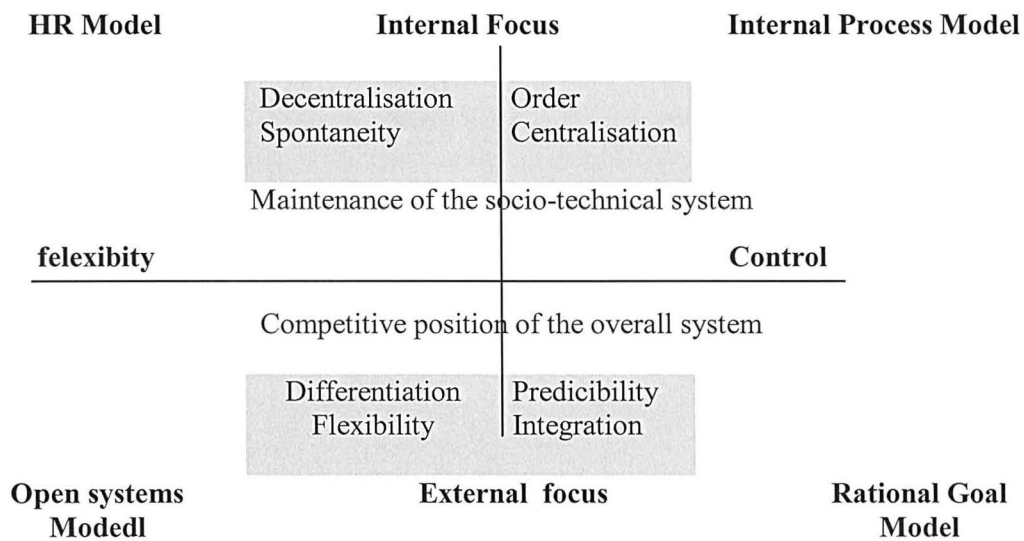
2.3.4.1. Quinn model

The Quinn model of organisational culture explains the interactions which affect the efficiency in organisations. According to this model, managerial systems are based on cultural values. Quinn (1988) identified four main cultures according to theories of “competing values”, which are shown in Figure 2.1. It consists of two dimensions of flexibility over control and internal factors over external factors. The interaction between these two dimensions introduces four kinds of culture (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2010)

- **HR:** human resource culture shown between internal factors and flexibility. This involves valuing human resources, employee training, control and commitment.
- **OS:** open system culture has an external focus over flexibility. It focuses on external environment expansion, growth, external support and using outer resources.
- **IP:** internal process culture is characterised by internal focus and control. It values communication, stability and managerial information in organisations.
- **RG:** rational goal model has an external focus and control orientation, valuing productivity and efficiency.

The models are opposite one another; HR model with RG, and IP model with OS model (Quinn, 1988).

Figure 2.1 The Quinn Model



Source: Adapted from Quinn (1998)

2.3.5. Organisational culture and strategy implementation

Studies have indicated that strong cultures are connected with the strong effort, clear focus and higher performance in environments in which unity and

common vision are demanded. Whether the organisation requires a strong dominant culture depends greatly on its individual environment. In other words, the nature of the challenges which the organisation faces in implementing strategy is liable to be the deciding factor. For instance, a few organisations face circumstances in which survival relies on flexibility, innovation and entrepreneurship. Coordination and control have less influence on deciding successful performance. In this case, a strong adhocracy culture is likely to be most appropriate. Some organisations may need a more balanced or eclectic culture in which similar emphasis is needed on each of the four culture types. No culture type is likely to be strong in this kind of organisation. In other words, all culture types are equally emphasised. What is important is that there is no ideal culture type. Each organisation has to decide for itself what degree of cultural strength it needs to be successful in implementing its strategy.

In public sector organisations, strong cultures and strong performance may be closely connected for three reasons: first, a strong culture usually offers good conformity between strategy and culture. This conformity is viewed as important for the successful implementation of organisational strategy. Second, a strong culture will probably result in the alignment of goals among employees. In other words, most of the employees share the same goals and have some agreement about how they should pursue them. Finally, a strong culture gives rise to employee motivation. Therefore, culture is very important to make the managers and employees devote themselves to the excellent performances which characterise successful organisations. These suggestions of the existing literature will be tested empirically in this research.

2.4. Organisational structure and strategy implementation

The second factor associated with strategy implementation in public sector organisations is organisational structure. In this section the literature on this element will be reviewed and the main theories and models will be discussed.

2.4.1 Definition

Organisational structure has a basic role in firms and most researchers and theorists point out the importance of structure for effectiveness and efficiency in any organisation (Jacobides, 2007; Lim, Griffiths, & Sambrook, 2010). Organisational structure has been defined by a great number of academics and researchers. Robbins and Judge (2007) define organisational structure as a system describing a hierarchy within an organisation. The hierarchy in the organisation is the arrangement of authority lines, communication, rights and duties of an organisation and also determining each job and its function (Damanpour & Aravind, 2012).

A structure depends on the organisation's goals and is developed in an organisation to operate and assist in achieving objectives for future growth (Foss, 2003; Burton, 2006).

Indeed, organisational structure determines how the roles and responsibilities are allocated, controlled, and coordinated, and also how information flows among the different levels of management, and how procedures are carried out among organisational members (Burton, 2006; Claver et al., 2012). Claver et al. (2012) state that organisational structure determines task assignation, reporting lines, coordination and feedback mechanisms and interaction patterns.

2.4.2 Theoretical concepts of organisational structure

Despite the broad definition, a number of theatrical concepts and various constructs have been specified for scientific analysis. These are as follows: administrative intensity, complexity, concentration of authority, divisionalisation, configuration, documentation, flexibility, standardisation, structuring of activities, horizontal and vertical differentiation, span of control, organisational status, spatial dispersion and traditionalism (Van de van & Ferry, 1980; Inkson et al., 1970; Pugh et al., 1990; Grinyer & Yasai-Ardekani, 1981; Kieser & Kubicek, 1992; Holdaway et al., 1975; Pugh et al., 1990; Kieser & Kubicek, 1992; Chid, 1984; Fredrickson, 1986; Abdel-Khalik, 1988; Donaldson et al., 1996).

There are some other constructs of organisational structure, which are as follows:

- *Structural differentiation* refers to the extent to which the organisation is divided into different positions, sections and subunits. It characterises the organisational structure in horizontal or vertical differentiation. The other concepts which are related to structural differentiation are complexity, configuration, divisionalisation, span of control, spatial dispersion and vertical differentiation (Jonkera, 2012).
- *Specialisation* "describes the degree to which labor is divided and tasks are assigned to specific departments and positions" (Damanpour & Aravind, 2012). In this organisational structure, vertical and horizontal components are used. In horizontal specialisation, the roles, responsibilities and tasks will be determined and their scope defined (Burton, 2006). Vertical specialisation is "the degree to which the

administration and the actual performance of work are separated"(Jonkara et al., 2012).

- *Centralisation* refers to the degree and type of decision making at the top or across an organisation (Fleischmann, 2011). As Mintzberg (1979) states, "the expressions centralization and decentralization have been applied in many different ways in organisation theory that they have almost ceased to have a useful meaning".

- *Formalisation* describes how tasks and work are done based on rules, methods and procedures (Jonker & Treur, 2003). In organisations which follow formalisation structure, documentation and standardisation are applied. Documentation refers to accomplishing works relying on paper and written documents (Damanpour & Aravind, 2012).

- *Standardisation* describes how work follows the rules and methods (Allio, 2005). On the whole, formalisation refers to both documentation and standardisation (Upton et al., 2001).

One of the controversial issues is which structure is best and why (Grunig et al., 2002). As Grunig et al. (2002) point out, the effect of factors which contribute to shaping organisational structure should be considered.

Based on Popova and Sharpanskykh (2012), the patterns of organisational structure are formed by three main factors. First, environment factors have an effect on shaping the patterns of structure. Second, internal consistency and structural

characteristics are the other main factors influencing organisations to select their structure, and they should work together to ensure equilibrium with their environment. And the third reason is that managers tend to follow structures which are in vogue, such as participatory, bureaucracy or matrix management.

The other main and effective factor is technology, which is mentioned as a modern concept in opening new avenues for organisational structure. Jonkera et al. (2012) mention the effective role of technological development in organisational structure. Also, they assert that technology provided telecommunication and eliminated distances, which allowed people to work in any time and place. It is no longer necessary to work together at the same time and in the same place (Claver et al., 2012). As in Miller's viewpoint, there are four kinds of work distribution which are based on time and place. They are as follows:

- **Central office:** work done at the same time and place
- **Telecommunication:** work done at the same time in different place
- **Flex time:** work accomplished at different times in the same place
- **Virtual office:** work accomplished at different times and in different places

2.4.3 The concept of fit

As was previously described, any structure needs to be fit to the situation, size, task, environment and uncertainty of an organisation (Chena & Liangb, 2011). A large number of studies in the fields of organisational structure and strategic management reveal that a good appropriate fit between the structure of organisation and its strategy leads to high performance (Jonker & Treur, 2003). Some academics describe this link

with contingency theory. Donaldson (2006) argues his "SARFIT¹" model and refers to the concept of fit between the structure and the contingencies' value. He believes that in choosing structure, attention should be paid to environmental and external contingencies because they could induce changes to the economic condition, competitive situation, customer needs and behaviour or substitute products. In other words, organisations should focus on Porter's five forces (Palmer & Dunford, 2002). Changing intra-organisational contingencies is other issue that may affect fitting organisational structure and the value of the contingencies. For instance, in case of changing the size, organisational structure should be adapted to this change and be fit with the size (Rogers, 2005). In some cases, fit may decrease between organisational structure and contingencies' value. For example, when a manager applies a new business strategy, it leads to poor fit between the structure and the new contingency (Donaldson, 2006). As Rogers (2005) states, "the adaptation process is typically neither simple nor smooth".

2.4.4 Models of organisational structure

Mechanistic/organic structure: one of the classical models of organisational structure. A large number of studies in the field of organisational structure theory propose that the organisational structure's nature can be diagnosed as mechanistic (inorganic) structure versus organic structure (Daft, 2003; Kim, 2005; Nahm et al., 2003).

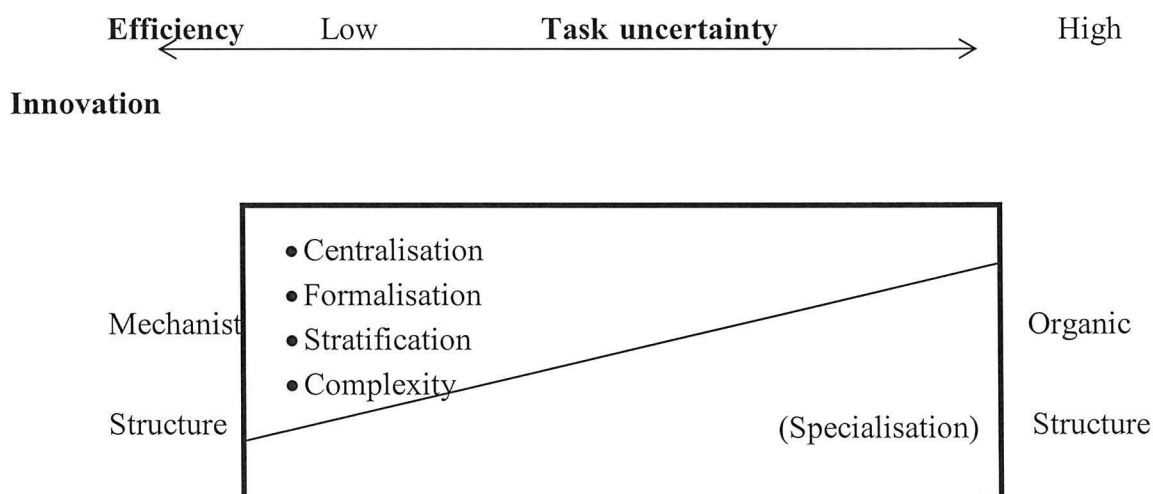
Daft (2003) asserts that in organisations, major changes occur in response to the organisation's environment and society. Also, he mentions that when the

¹Structural Adjustment to Regain Fit

organisational environment has a high degree of certainty, mechanistic structure is the best option and is effective. In this case, technologies tend to be routine, internal structure is vertical, functional, and bureaucratic, organisations are large-scale and employees can be considered as another resource in organisations (Rogers, 2005).

The organic structure refers to an unstable and uncertain environment for an organisation (see Figure 2.2). In the organic paradigm, technologies are non-routine, the size of the organisation is not very important, and teamwork, face-to-face interactions, innovation and learning become more necessary and important. The internal structure is horizontal (Daft, 2003).

Figure 2.2 Mechanistic/organic structure



Source: Adapted from Huszynski and Buchanan (2010)

Based on Nahm et al. (2003), the external environment of an organisation can have an effect on organisational structure. The organisational theorist proposed that firms that rely on reliable and stable markets may not operate effectively in dealing

with complexity and instantaneous changes in the environment (Chena & Liangb, 2011).

According to the model of Burn and Stalker (1996) and Hage (1965), if the environment is more stable, the firm will have centralisation and formalisation, and stratification structure and mechanistic structure will be effective (Nahm et al., 2003; Sine et al., 2006). In contrast, organisations that deal with unstable and uncertain environments have organic structures with decentralised decision making, less formalisation (Jaworski, 1988) and flat hierarchies (Walton, 1985).

Although organisational theorists divide the structure of organisations into mechanistic and organic paradigms, innovation researchers state that organisational structure can be industrial and post-industrial based on the modes of operation (Walter & Bruch, 2010). According to Koufteros & Vonderembse (1998), organisations that change their mode from industrial to a post-industrial show:

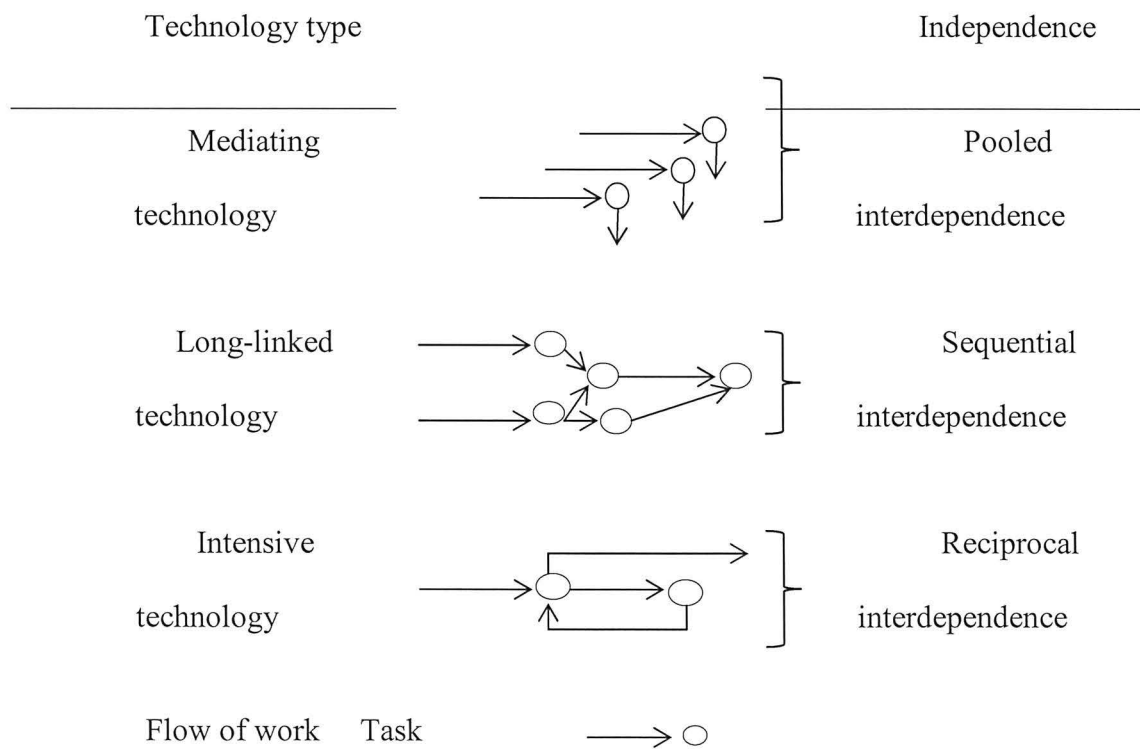
- rules and regulations that encourage creative, autonomous work and learning,
- few layers in the organisational hierarchy to enable quick response,
- a high level of horizontal integration to increase knowledge transfer,
- decentralised decision-making so operating issues can be dealt with effectively and quickly, and
- a high level of vertical and horizontal communication to ensure coordinated action.

Walter and Bruch (2010) state that technology is a significant variable for organisational structure which determines task independence. They propose a model with three different types of technology, three forms of task independence and three

different organisational structures (see Figure 2.3). Based on this model, the first type of technology is mediating technology, which corresponds with pooled interdependence (Burton, 2006).

An example of this type of technology and task is the branches of a bank, which have relationships with each other indirectly. Because of the low degree of task interdependence, the organisation is structured by rules, methods and procedure.

Figure 2.3 Types of technology and related forms of task interdependence



Source: Adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski (2010)

According to Bruch and Ghoshal (2003), the best option for this kind of organisation is a mechanistic structure. The second type of technology is long-linked technology, in which all units should work together because the output of one unit is

the input of another, like in food processing (Palmer & Dunford, 2002). According to Buchanan and Huczynski (2010), the task independence of this kind of technology is sequential and connects organisational units directly and in one way (see Figure 2.3).

In this type of technology and task independence, firms are structured by planning. The last type is intensive technology, which has multiple and unpredictable links between organisation units, like in construction projects or hospital care. This type of task independence is reciprocal. For instance, for producing a new product, all units and departments of an organisation, such as marketing, production, financial and R&D, should show reciprocal independence.

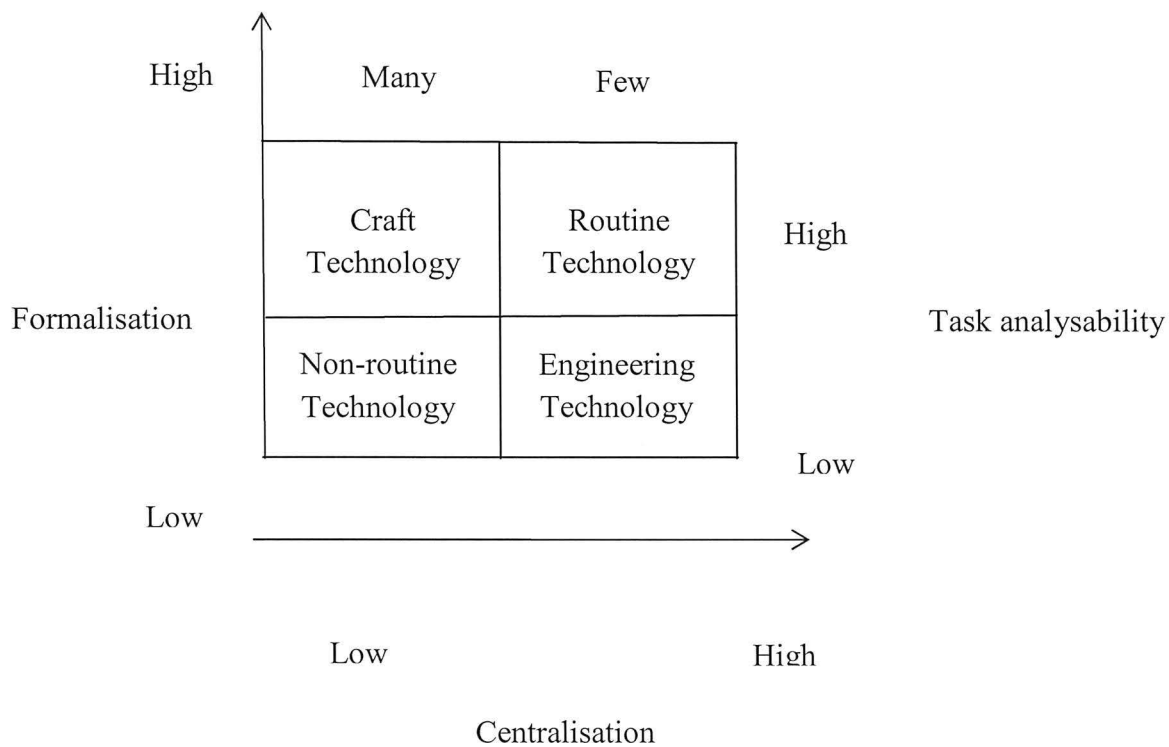
Chang (2010) mentions different kinds of technology and task independence and argues that each type should fit with the best and most effective structure. Also, he proposes different structure for each of the forms based on Burn and Stalker (1996), and states that "pooled independence fitted a mechanistic structure, reciprocal independence fitted an organic structure and sequential independence fitted a mixture of mechanistic and organic".

Likewise, Perrow (1967) and Thompson (1967) refer to technology as the most important determinant of organisational structure (see Figure 2.4). They proposed a model to demonstrate four types of technology according to task analysis ability and number of exceptions, and for each type suggest an appropriate structure (Walters & Bruch, 2010):

Perrow's model: Perrow's model consists of four dimensions (see Figure 2.4). The first is routine technology, which has high task analysability and a small number of exceptions. This form needs a highly centralised and formal structure. Based on

Burns and Stalker's (1996) (see Buchanan & Huczynski, 2010, p. 508) terminology, routine technology fitted a mechanistic structure; an example of this type of technology is mass steel production. In contrast, non-routine technology has low task analysability and many exceptions (Chang, 2011).

Figure 2.4 Types of technology



Source: Adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski (2010)


According to Perrow (1967) (see Buchana & Huczynski, 2010, p. 524) this form of technology is the opposite of routine technology and requires a decentralised and informal structure fitted to an organic structure. For instance, aerospace organisations need more flexible structures. The other dimensions of the model are

engineering technology and craft technology, which fit a mixture of organic and mechanistic structures (Bunderson & Boumgarden, 2010).

As Perrow (1967) states (see Buchana & Huczynski, 2010, p. 505) engineering technology is analysable with a high number of exceptions (e.g., heavy machinery), while craft technology is hardly analysable with a small number of exceptions (e.g., specialty glass production). Therefore, engineering technology is fitted to a centralised structure while craft technology is fitted to a decentralised structure. Woodward (1965) (see Buchana & Huczynski, 2010, p. 502) also carried out other research in this field. She proposes a model to show that the type of technology determines the organisational structure (see Figure 2.5). She classifies technology into the type of production and number of units. She characterises unit and small batch production (e.g., locomotive), large batch and mass production (e.g., automotive) and process production (e.g., oil refinery). She states that mechanistic structures are an appropriate and effective paradigm for large batch and mass production according to classical management. In contrast, unit and small batch production and process production should be fitted to an organic structure based on human relations because these types of production require more flexibility.

Woodward, referring to Burn and Stalker (1996), asserts that "with increasing production continuity first the organic structure, then the mechanistic structure and then again the organic structure were appropriate". One of the other results of her study was that an appropriate relationship between organisation structure and technology leads to high organisational performance. Her thesis demonstrates that technology is not a direct determinant of the firm's structure, but has a significant effect on management decisions regarding production set-up.

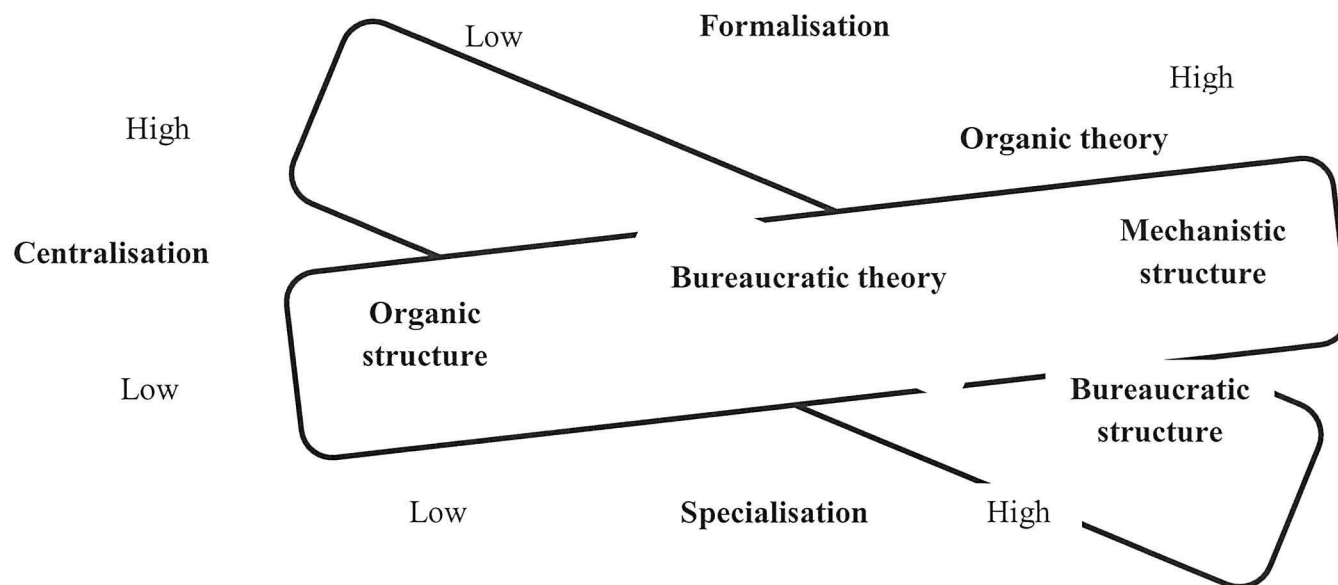
Figure 2.5 Production continuity and organisational structure according to Woodward

Mechanistic structure		✓	
Organic structure	✓		✓
	Unit and small batch production	Large batch and mass production	Process production
			
	Production continuity		

Source: Adapted from Buchana and Huczynski (2010)

Weber (1946) proposes the scientific management and bureaucratic theory. He defines bureaucratic management as "a formal system of organization based on clearly defined hierarchical levels and roles in order to maintain efficiency and effectiveness and mainly focused on dividing organizations into hierarchies, establishing strong lines of authority and control." Donaldson (2001a, p. 25) proposes a model which depicts the synthesis of organic and bureaucratic theory with a focus on different contingencies and the structural constructs (see Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6 Organisational models of organic and bureaucratic theory



Source: Adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski (2010)

Based on organisational models of organic and bureaucratic theory, the organic theory is based on organic–mechanistic theory. "While the mechanistic ideal-type structure is high in centralization, specialization, and formalization, the organic structure is low in these dimensions". In contrast, bureaucratic theory is formed from simple structure and bureaucratic structure. "Bureaucratic structure is dominated by indirect control and therefore high in specialization and formalization but low in centralization. It is also high in structural differentiation" (Donaldson, 2001).

Organisational size is considered as a main contingency for bureaucratic theory regarding structural differentiation, centralisation, specialisation and formalisation. Most research on organisational structure argues that small organisations require simple structures, and for large organisations, a fitted bureaucratic structure and task independence is the minor contingency. Based on

Figure 2.7, low task independence fits divisional structure while high task independence fits functional structure (Gulati & Puranam, 2009).

Figure 2.7 Contingency-structure relationships in fit according to organic and bureaucratic theory

		Contingency value	
		Low/Small	High/Large
Organic theory	Task uncertainty	Mechanistic structure (CE- SP- FO)	Organic structure (ce-sp-fo)
	Task interdependence	Mechanistic structure Divisional structure	Organic structure Functional structure
Bureaucratic theory	Size	simple structure (CE-sp-fo)	Bureaucratic structure (ce-SP-FO)

(High/low values in centralisation (CE/ce) – specialisation (SP/sp) – formalisation (FO/fo))

Source: Adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010

As shown in Figure 2.7, in organic theory, when organisations face task uncertainty, a mechanistic structure is appropriate and requires less centralisation,

specialisation and formalisation. Bureaucratic theory argues that small organisations should decrease specialisation and formalisation, while centralisation should be increased. In contrast, centralisation is high in large organisations (Puranam et al., 2006).

2.5 Leadership and strategy implementation

2.5.1. Leadership and management

All organisations need efficient and effective managers and employees to reach their pre-determined goals. Behavioural patterns of managers increase job satisfaction and encourage motivation and high spirits in the organisation (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). Therefore, leadership style is a facilitating factor and has a great impact on the productivity of firms and employees either formal or informal. But the main question that has been raised for more than a century is which style has an effect of employees' motivation and firm performance (Meier et al., 2006)?

2.5.2 Approaches to leadership

There are different approaches to leadership (Hunter et al., 2007). These approaches are shown in Table 2.3.

Leadership has been viewed in recent years starting with the “great man” and “trait” theories, and “transformational” leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1991). In the 1970s, behavioural theories of leadership effectiveness were dominant. For example, path-goal theory (House & Mitchell, 1974), LMX theory (Graen & Cashman, 1975) and normative decision theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Table 2.3 Approaches to leadership

Trait spotting	Attempts to identify the personality traits and other related attributes of effective leaders
Style counselling	Attempts to characterise different leadership behaviour patterns to identify effective leadership styles
Context fitting	Contingency theory which argue that the effectiveness of particular leadership behaviour is dependent on the organisational and cultural setting
New leadership	Perspective approach which identifies ‘new leaders’, ‘superleaders’, and ‘transformational leaders’ as visionaries. Dispersing the role to develop self-leadership skills in others

Since the late 1980s, theories of transformational and charismatic leadership have been expanded. Versions of transformational leadership have been proposed by several theorists, including Yukl (2009), Dechurch et al. (2011) and Edwards and Gill (2012). Refined versions of charismatic leadership have been proposed by several theorists, including Edwards and Gill (2012) and Munir (2010).

The traditional theories consider the role of successful leaders and their personalities regarding leadership, but the newest approaches, such as transactional and transformational theories, cover the followers’ role and the nature of leadership

(Bolden et al., 2009). Table 2.4 illustrates the leadership theories and gives a brief description of them.

Table 2.4 Leadership theories

Theories	Description
Great man theory	Leaders are born with an innate talent to lead
Trait theory	Identifies personality traits of effective leaders, a common approach which is still used in the military.
Behaviourist theory	What leaders actually do in regard to behavioural characteristics
Ohio state leadership theory	Style counselling
Action-centred theory	Functional leadership, the combination of task, team and individuals
Situational leadership	Using different leadership styles in different situations
Contingency theory	Situational variables' effect on particular leadership styles
Path-goal theory	The effect of environmental contingency factors, leader behaviour and subordinate contingency factors on the outcome
Transactional theory	The significance of the relationship between leaders and followers
Transformational theory	Leaders and followers influence on each other to promotion
Charismatic leadership	Key characteristics of charismatic leaders: self-confidence, vision, articulate, strong convictions, unconventional, change agent, environmentally sensitive
Full range leadership theory	Mix of transformational and transactional leadership styles

Source: Adapted from Bolden et al. (2003)

2.5.3 Transactional and transformational leadership

The last findings in the leadership field focus on two main leadership styles: transformational and transactional styles. In recent years these approaches have

become the most popular leadership styles (D'Alessio, 2006). While popularity does not necessarily imply veracity or utility, it could be argued that the popularity of these theories, which were pioneered by Bass and Hannah (2009) and Bolden et al. (2003), is due to their utility in organisations. Breyman (1992) calls it a new perspective of leadership. The first theory of transformational and transactional leadership styles was developed by Mills (2005) and Bass and Riggio (2006).

Transactional leadership is a kind of exchange relationship between leaders and employees or followers, or in other words, between superiors and subordinates. In this relationship, the parties influence each other and both superiors and subordinates gain different levels of values and rewards from each other (Peleg, 2012).

Transactional leadership introduces some levels of dependency between leaders and employees, and rewards these dependencies. Leaders have a high impact on followers, since followers have more of a tendency to do exactly what the leaders want and desire to be carried out. Successful transactional leaders should be aware of followers' expectations and needs and try to fulfil them regularly (Hunter, 2007; Yammarino et al., 2012).

Porter and McLaughlin (2006) note that transactional leadership is a kind of exchange of rewards and values between transactional leaders and followers. Followers must carry out exactly what the leaders desire and must satisfy the leaders in order to fulfil both organisational goals and their own personal objectives. Transactional leaders are as important as other leaders such as charismatic or transformational leaders. They themselves know the task and control it, and also make clear the responsibility of each employee. This kind of leader has to deal with

performance, rewards and manage and monitor routine tasks in organisations (Benzvi, 2006). Unlike transformational leadership, transactional leaders' personal values and beliefs toward work requirements, tasks and exchange of rewards plays an important role in transactional leadership styles (West-Burnham, 2006).

Over the last few decades, the scientific community has paid great attention to the relationship between leaders and followers (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Rowold & Schlotz, 2009). According to Ryska (2002), the styles of leadership impact on the relationship between leaders and subordinates. In the last two decades, the theories of transformational and transactional leadership have been developed as new leadership paradigms (Yukl, 2002; Harvey, Royal, & Stout, 2003; Alban-Metcalf & Alimo-Metcalf, 2007; Trautmann et al., 2007; Peleg, 2012).

The transformational leadership theory was formulated by Bass and colleagues (Benzvi, 2009). They define transformational leadership based on the leader's effect on their followers, and the behaviour used to achieve this effect. In this leadership style, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl, 2009). "Transformational leaders emphasize higher motive development, and arouse followers' motivation and positive emotions by means of creating and representing an inspiring vision of the future" (Rowold & Schlotz, 2009).

In contrast, "transactional leadership explains the relationship between leader and follower as an exchange system of well-defined transactions. In turn, the leader rewards or disciplines the follower with regard to his/her performance" (Dumdum et al., 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Benzvi (2006) states that transformational leadership is a kind of relationship where the leader encourages the followers to reach a superb level of achievement, which is mainly the success of the organisation and fulfilment of the group objectives. Personal values, trust, respect and commitment to promises are main features of transformational leaders, which differs from transactional leadership style (Evans, 2001).

A transformational leader is a leader that pays more attention to the creativity of followers, tries to impact and change the personal beliefs of followers and encourages them to reach the highest level of performances (Pleg, 2012). For transformational leaders, satisfying followers and fulfilling their personal desires is of the same importance as organisational success and goal fulfilment (Yammarino et al., 2012). Charismatic leaders, who according to Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) are very close to transformational leaders, are defined as people “who by force of their personal abilities are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers”.

In both transformational and charismatic leadership styles, the personal characteristics of the leaders have an impact of the performance of followers. Some characteristics, such as self-confidence, creativity, enhancing motivation, independence, moralisation and the ability to dominate and influence followers, are common in both styles (Yukl, 2009).

Bass and Riggio (2006) stress that transformational leadership leads to superb performance beyond expectation in organisations. Further empirical studies by many

researchers have proven that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and firm performance (Barling et al., 2001; Block, 2003; Campbell, 2008).

Also, studies show that there is a positive correlation between transformational leadership and employee commitment (Barling et al., 2001), low level of job stress (Podsakoff et al., 2000), job satisfaction (Shin & Zhou, 2003), agreement with leaders (Podsakoff et al., 2000), emotional intelligence (Barling et al., 2001) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Yukl, 2009; Dechurch et al., 2011).

Different levels of management, culture and workplace conditions have effects on the success of transformational leadership (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006). According to Bass, collectivist societies and management levels are two main predictive factors for transformational leadership (Campbell, 2008).

In general leadership, theorists note that transformational leadership style is more effective than transactional style in terms of persuading and encouraging followers to high performance (Burke et al., 2011). Studies in previous decades have proven this finding (Dechurch et al., 2011).

There is considerable evidence that transformational leadership is very effective (Benzvi, 2006). Survey studies have found that transformational leadership is positively related to indicators of leadership effectiveness such as subordinate satisfaction, motivation and performance (Yukl, 2009; Yammarino et al., 2012). Mills (2005) shows that key elements of transformational leadership correlate positively with subordinate satisfaction and performance. Table 2.5 shows the main features of the transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Table 2.5 The main features of the transformational and transactional leadership styles

Leadership Style	Description
Transformational	A process of influencing whereby leaders modify their associates' awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way. Transformational leaders are proactive; they seek to optimise individual, group and organisational development and innovation. They convince their associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards.
Transactional	Transactional leaders display behaviours associated with constructive and corrective transactions. Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels, offering rewards for compliance and sanctions for non-compliance

Adapted from Avolio and Bass (2004, pp. 95-96)

According to Avolio and Bass (2004), there are 'four Is' of transformational leadership that should be considered:

- *Idealised influence*: this means articulating the mission or vision of the organisation and charismatic behaviour of leader in terms of organisational

objectives. Leaders should be able to have influence on followers to comply with the organisational mission and respect it (Antonakis et al., 2003).

- *Inspirational motivation*: this means leaders motivate others to put organisational interests before self-interests and create a condition whereby employees engaging in organisational activities undertake responsibilities willingly (Edward & Gill, 2012). Also, transformational leaders motivate employees to have high confidence and be very optimistic about the goals (Yukl, 2009).
- *Intellectual stimulation*: leaders encourage others to see what they are doing from new perspectives. They encourage them to think differently and try to change the old customs and methods and be creative in solving problems (Munir et al., 2010).
- *Individualised consideration*: transformational leaders develop others to higher levels of ability. They are very thoughtful of followers' organisational needs to grow. Furthermore, they create a mutual close relationship and praise followers for their better performance (Mullen et al., 2011).

A new form of leadership approach, which is called “full range leadership theory” by Bass (1999), is a mix of transformational and transactional leadership styles (Mullen, 2011). It consists of nine factors including five transformational leadership factors and three transactional leadership factors (Antonakis et al., 2003). The factors of transformational leadership consist of: inspirational motivation, idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), intellectual

stimulation and individualised consideration (Arnold et al., 2007). Transactional leadership factors are as follows: transactional leadership factor, active management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) (Mullen, 2011). This new approach attempts to cover all ambiguities, missing behaviours and weakness of transformational and transactional theories. It is neither transformational or transactional behaviour, it is an effective style of leadership which focuses on planning and monitoring of tasks and emotional and networking interactions between followers and leaders (Barling et al., 2011).

2.6. Organisational performance

In this section the concept of organisational performance will be reviewed.

This section also provides a critical review of different strategy performance evaluation models.

2.6.1 Evaluation of strategy

In order to monitor and measure organisational performance, the strategy implementation processes of firms should be evaluated. Evaluation is the last section of the strategic management model (Marr & Schium, 2003). By evaluating strategy and organisational performance, management can identify problems or potential problems. Strategy evaluation consists of three main stages (Neely & Adams, 2002):

- 1) examining the strategy bases of organisations
- 2) comparing results with expected results

- 3) corrective reactions to make sure that performance is complying with plans

Evaluation is one of the most challenging parts of the strategy management process. It is very important that managers be sure that the firm's objectives come true (Li, 2001). Sometimes, little evaluation or no evaluation makes the situation worse. Therefore, top managers should strain to evaluate properly and sensitively and try to recognise weak and problematic areas before the situation becomes critical (Marr & Schium, 2003; Tangen, 2004; Walter & Bruch, 2010).

As the business environment is dynamic and organisations face internal and external changes, strategic evaluation is very essential for firms (Marr & Nelly, 2001).

2.6. 2 Definitions of organisational performance

During the last two decades, organisational performance was one of the interesting issues for managers, and plenty of studies on this issue can be found. Although there are different kinds of software to evaluate performance, different frameworks and models have been proposed by academics (Li, 2001).

Organisational performance demonstrates the output of organisations and evaluates the results in comparison to intended outputs (Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012). Organisational performance has been defined as a process of quantifying efficiency and effectiveness of operations within an organisation (Kwon et al., 2012). Generally speaking, in organisational performance evaluation, three main objectives of the organisation should be assessed. The objectives are as follows:

- 1) Strategic objectives: include strategic management and review of strategies
- 2) Communicational objectives: include controlling current statutes, showing the future direction, providing feedback and benchmarking with other organisations
- 3) Motivational goals: mainly focus on developing a reward system to encourage and enhance learning (Buytendijk et al., 2004)

For many years, evaluating organisational performance was one of the challenging issues for researchers. Commercial organisations had used financial indicators as the only tool to measure their performance until Johnson and Kaplan in early 1980, after evaluation of accounting management systems, represented the inefficiency of this information to evaluate the performance of organisations. This inefficiency was due to the increasing complexity of organisations and market competition (Luq et al., 2012).

Therefore, performance evaluation systems (Performance Measurement System or PMS) which rely only on financial factors can cause problems for organisations. Some of these problems are as follows (Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012):

- As financial indicators do not connect with organisational strategies, they may be inconsistent with organisational strategic objectives and cause problems in formulating and implementing strategies. For instance, excessive

use of the "rate of return of capital" could lead to short-term improvements (Kell et al., 2007).

- Traditional criteria such as cost effectiveness and suitability may put managers under pressure to focus on short-term results; therefore, no improvement will occur (Aragon-Correa et al., 2007).
- Financial indicators do not show a detailed report on the cost of processes, products and customers, and only focus on process control of systems as a part of the whole system (Luo et al., 2012).
- Financial indicators are not able to determine the exact quality costs and just encourage more production (Kunze et al., 2013).

2.6.3 Performance measurement models

Deficiencies and shortcomings in the traditional performance evaluation system led to a revolution in performance management (Tangen, 2004). Researchers and users have moved towards creating a system that aims to address the current environment, thus several processes were created for various organisations (Kunze et al., 2013). In addition, many frameworks to support these processes have been suggested and the goal of these frameworks is to help organisations to properly evaluate their performance (Teeratansirikool et al., 2013). In the following section, some of the more well-known models of performance evaluation (process and frameworks) will be introduced, and the advantages and limitations of each of them will be analysed (Medori & Steeple, 2000).

- **Sink and Tate model**

One approach to evaluate performance is the Sink and Tate model. In this model, organisational performance is due to the complex relationship between seven performances indicators, which are as follows (Tangen, 2004):

- 1) By effectiveness, which is defined as “doing the right thing at the right time with good quality”. In practice, this introduces the effectiveness of actual output with expected output (Merchant & Van Der Stede, 2012).
- 2) By efficiency, which simply means “doing things right” and is defined as the ratio of the expected real consumption of resources (Buytendijk et al., 2004).
- 3) By quality which is a broad concept. It should be explained and measured using different aspects.
- 4) By productivity; traditionally this is defined as the ratio of output to input
- 5) By quality of work which contributes to organisational performance
- 6) By innovation, as a key component for improving performance
- 7) By profitability, which is the ultimate goal of any organisation.

Although this model is very old, after its introduction many changes happened in industries, but these seven indicators still have great importance to organisations' performance. However, this model has several important limitations as well. For example, in this model, the "flexibility" that is one of required essentials is not

considered in the recent markets of the last decade. Another limitation of the model is its neglect of the customer's role in organisational performance (Chenhall, 2005).

- **Performance matrix**

Keygan (1989) introduced the performance matrix. The strength of this model is that it considers the integration of different aspects of organisational performance, including financial, non-financial and internal and external. But this model does not reveal the relationship between different aspects of organisations very clearly (Luo et al., 2012).

- **Performance pyramid**

One of requirements of performance evaluation systems is a clear relationship between performance indicators at different hierarchical levels of the organisation so that each unit's effort is to reach the shared and same goals (Veen-Drik, 2010). One of the models which compressed the creation of this relationship is the performance pyramid model. The purpose of the pyramid is to build the relationship between strategies and operations of organisations (Tangen, 2004).

This performance evaluation system includes four levels of goals that express organisational effectiveness (left side of the pyramid) and internal efficiency (right side of the pyramid) (Kown et al., 2012). In this context, this model reveals the differences between groups of indicators that are outside the organisation (such as customer satisfaction, quality and on-time delivery) and internal business factors (such as productivity, cycle time and waste). The creation of an organisational

performance pyramid in the first level begins with the definition of organisational vision, which is then converted to the objectives of business units (Chenhall, 2005).

At the second level, business units try to set short-term goals such as profitability and cash flow, and long-term goals such as growth and improving market share (financial and marketing). Business operational systems are the bridge between high-level indicators and routine operational parameters (customer satisfaction, flexibility and productivity). Finally, four key performance indicators (quality, delivery, job cycle and waste) in departments and work centres are used daily (Graftona et al., 2010; Luo et al., 2012; Neely & Adams, 2002; Marr & Schiuma, 2003).

The main strength of the performance pyramid model is its effort to integrate the objectives of organisations with operational performance indicators. But this approach does not provide any mechanism for identifying key performance indicators, and there is no concept of continuous improvement in the model (Marr & Schiuma, 2003).

- **Balanced score card**

One of the most famous and well-known models of performance evaluation systems is balanced score card (BSC), proposed by Kaplan and Norton in 1992 and later expanded and improved by Teeratansirikod et al. (2013). The model suggests that in order to evaluate performance, every organisation should use a set of balanced indicators (Kaplan & Norton, 2005). This way, top managers of organisations can obtain a general idea of four aspects of the organisation, and

these aspects make it possible to answer the following four basic questions (Marr & Schiuma, 2003; Tangen, 2004; DeGeuser et al., 2009):

- 1) How is the status of stakeholders? (financial aspects)
- 2) In what areas should the organisation act well? (internal aspect of the business)
- 3) What are the customer's ideas about the organisation? (customer aspects)
- 4) How can we continue to improve and create value? (innovation and learning perspective)

BSC demonstrates financial indicators of the previous year's activities. In addition, it completes them by considering non-financial indicators of performance which are driving prerequisites of future indicators (Marr & Schiuma, 2003; Leung et al., 2006).

Kaplan and Norton (1992) believe that by using the information from the four aspects, the data increasing problem will decrease by limiting the used indicators. The managers will be forced to focus only on a limited number of indicators which are vital and critical. Moreover, using several different performance aspects prevents partial optimisation (DeGeuser et al., 2009).

The main disadvantage of this approach is that this system has been designed to provide an overall picture of the performance for top managers in organisations (Marr & Schiuma, 2003; Tangen, 2004). Thus, not only does it not address the

operational level, it is not even capable of it. The BSC framework has been developed as a tool to control and has no role in improvement (Franceschini et al., 2013).

BSC is a valuable model for evaluation and it offers critical areas to monitor and control (Neely et al., 2000), but it does not show how to introduce suitable indicators and make use of them after evaluation for better management of the organisation (Davis & Albright, 2004). Also, this model does not consider the competitors or the demands of all stakeholders in the organisation (Li, 2001).

2.6.4. Balanced score card and strategy evaluation

BSC is one of the strategic management tools for implementation of strategy and evaluation of organisational performance. BSC was introduced by Kaplan and Norton (1992) to overcome the inadequacy of the traditional management control system which depends mostly on accounting and tangible figures. According to Johnson et al. (2011), BSC enables managers to focus on organisational activities – both internal and external – and regard their importance to long-term and short-term goals from both financial and non-financial perspectives. The original BSC was designed to eliminate ambiguity and improve efficacy of organisations. Over time, this role has grown and BSC has become a tool for strategic communication and a performance measurement framework. This new role helps managers to monitor the strategy implementation process and articulate the organisation's vision. The BSC model went through three evolution stages, which were called generations. The first generation was introduced in 1992 to set the measures required for the organisation. This was followed by the second generation in 2000, which introduced the cause and

effect relationship into its strategy maps. Finally, the third generation focused on long-term planning and objectives. According to Lawrie et al. (2004), these changes were derived from both practitioners and the need for proper performance measures.

Dye (2003) defines the BSC as "a strategic performance management system that links performance to strategy using a multi-dimensional set of financial and non-financial performance measures. It focuses on better understanding the causal relationships and links within organizations and the levers that can be pulled to improve corporate governance".

Andersen et al. (2004) suggest that any quality control tool should be tied up with a modern strategic performance measurement tool such as the BSC to achieve effective quality management. Some managers claim that they cannot work with too many measures. On the other hand, financial measures are doing a great job in providing clear and definite results that all can interpret and understand. One of the major dilemmas in the BSC is the time dimension, as many researchers claim that this is not discussed in Kaplan and Norton's model of the BSC because different types of measures are measured at the same time.

2.7. Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the existing body of knowledge mainly focused on strategy implementation. It has been found that the most influential factors associated with strategy implementation in public sector organisations are organisational structure, leadership and organisational culture. The first section of this chapter provided a critical review of the concept of strategy and discussed the definitions of strategy, strategy evolution and approaches and finally strategy implementation and

management processes in public sector organisations. The second section focused on a discussion of organisational culture, its definitions, types and characteristics, and its relationship with strategy implementation in organisations. Section three provided a comprehensive study of organisational structure, definitions, types and the relationship between strategy and structure in public sector organisations. In section four, leadership theories and styles, particularly transformational and transactional leadership styles, were discussed. Finally, the chapter ended with a comprehensive discussion of organisational performance measure models and performance evaluation in public sector organisations.

Chapter 3

The United Arab Emirates

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will shed the light on the history of the United Arab Emirates and will provide brief information about its; geographical information, population, political system, local governments, and economy. In addition, it will give a broad picture about the seven emirates that form the union of the country. Finally, it will highlight the role of the executive council as the responsible body of monitoring and policy forming in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. Providing the historical background is essential to understand the unique formation of the country. Besides the federal government, each Emirate is ruled by a ruler and has its own form of local government that is in almost all the Emirates monitored by an Executive council.

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is located in the southeast of the Arabian Peninsula on the Arabian Gulf, formerly known as the Trucial States (sheikhdoms) or Trucial Oman. It is a federation of seven emirates, each with its own *Sheikh* or ruler, with a single national president (Europa Year Book 2009, 4640). Compared with other federations around the world, the UAE adopts a loose federal system (Bin Howaiden 2010), as will be illustrated later.

UAE is ranked among the world's wealthiest countries and is classified as a high-income developing economy by the IMF (United Arab Emirates, 2012). The UAE's per capita GDP is similar to that of some of the leading western European nations (CIA Fact Book, 2012).

3.2 Historical Background

The UAE was formed in 1971 as a federation of sheikhdoms, formerly British protectorates, known as the Trucial States, which were of importance mainly as staging posts on the trade route to India. British relations with the Trucial States began in 1820, when the British offered to protect the trade ships from pirates. Pirates used the Trucial States' shores as their harbour. (Europa Year Book 2009, 4640).

The British withdrew on December 1, 1971, and a federation of six of the Trucial States (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah and Umm al-Quwain) merged to form the UAE on the following day. They were joined in 1972 by state of Ras al-Khaimah (CIA Fact Book, 2012).

In 1946, Sheikh Zayed was appointed the ruler of Al Ain, and for the next 20 years, he worked to develop the city (The late president Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan, 2012). In 1952, the Trucial Council, composed of the rulers from the seven sheikhdoms, was established to encourage the adoption of common policies in administrative matters, which could possibly lead to a federation of these sheikhdoms. Petroleum, the basis of the area's modern prosperity, was first discovered in 1958 when deposits were located beneath the coastal waters of Abu Dhabi, the largest of sheikhdoms. Onshore petroleum was found in Abu Dhabi in 1960, and commercial exploitation of petroleum began in 1962, providing the state with greatly increased revenue (Europa Year Book 2009, 4641).

This oil discovery was the turning point for the sheikhdoms' economies and political statuses. This event was followed by the appointing of Sheikh Zayed as the ruler of

Abu Dhabi on August 6, 1966 (The late president Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan, 2012). Under the rule of Sheikh Zayed, Abu Dhabi was transformed with the help of the considerable income earned from the petroleum industry, which was allocated for public works and the provision of welfare services. In 1966, petroleum was discovered in neighbouring Dubai, the second largest emirate, which also underwent a subsequent rapid development (Europa Year Book 2009, 4642).

In January 1968, the UK announced its intention to withdraw British military forces from the area by 1971. In March 1968, the Trucial States joined nearby Bahrain and Qatar (also under British protection) in what was named the Federation of Arab Emirates. It was intended for the federation to become fully independent. However, the interests of Bahrain and Qatar proved to be incompatible with those of the Trucial States, and both seceded from the federation in August 1971 to become separate independent states. However, it was Sheikh Zayed, along with Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum, the ruler of Dubai, who took the initiative to call for the federation of these states. Thus, after a period of negotiations among the sheikhs of the Trucial States, the UAE, composed of six of these states (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah and Umm al-Quwain), was formed on the basis of an agreed upon federal constitution on December 2, 1971. The remaining sheikhdom, Ras al-Khaimah, joined the UAE in February 1972. Sheikh Zayed was appointed as the president of the union, and Sheikh Rashid was appointed as his vice president. Sheikh Rashid's eldest son, Sheikh Maktoum bin Rashid al-Maktoum, the crown prince of Dubai, became the prime minister in the federal Council of Ministers. A 40-member consultative assembly, the Federal National Council (FNC), was also inaugurated (UAE interact, 2012; Europa Year Book 2009, 4643-4).

In June 1996, legislation designed to make the provisional constitution permanent was endorsed by the FNC after its approval by the Supreme Council of Rulers. At the same time, Abu Dhabi was formally designated the capital of the UAE (Europa Year Book 2009, 4642).

Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan was elected president by the Supreme Council of Rulers on November 3, 2004, after the death of his father, Sheikh Zayed, who had held the post until his death on November 2, 2004. The Supreme Council meets at 5-year intervals to reaffirm the existing president or elect a new one (DPADM & DESA 2004).

3.3 Basic Information

3.3.1 Introduction

UAE is a federation of seven emirates with specified powers delegated to the federal government and other powers reserved to member emirates. The two main emirates are Abu Dhabi, whose vast hydrocarbons revenue funds the federation, and Dubai, whose entrepreneurialism generates much-needed economic dynamism. However, the UAE federal system is a loose and highly flexible one in that it offers limited power to the federal government and grants significant power to the member emirates in their own federal units. The constitution, which was finalised in 1996, specified that all powers not specifically allocated to federal institutions remain the prerogative of the individual emirates. Each of the seven emirates is governed by its own ruler. The central institutions of the UAE, regulated by the constitution, are ultimately

dependent on the power of the emirate-level traditional rulers (Bin Howaiden, 2010; UAE. Const., 1996).

3.3.2 Geographical Features

The UAE covers a land area of 83,600 sq km (77,700 sq km excluding the islands), of which 97% is desert. The country's terrain is flat, barren coastal plains merging into rolling sand dunes of vast desert wasteland and mountains in the east (CIA World Fact Book, 2012). The coastal areas, which are home to the bulk of the population, are hot and humid during the summer months (May-October), with temperatures of up to 46°C and humidity of up to 100%; the region experiences a mild winter (December-March), with temperatures between 14°C and 23°C. The average annual rainfall is 42 mm, but Ras al-Khaimah is more temperate, with 150 mm of average annual rainfall. (EIU 2008).

The UAE is bordered by Saudi Arabia (457 km) and Oman (410 km) and has a coastline of 1,318 km (CIA Fact Book, 2012).

3.3.3 Population

The UAE's population has been growing rapidly for decades, having increased from 1 million in 1980 to roughly 7.5 million in 2012, according to estimates from the Economist Intelligent Unit. This increase shows an average growth rate of 6.3% a year. The rate slowed during the 1990s when oil prices were low, but it regained its growth as the economy expanded and diversified, averaging 7.2% a year since 2001. The official census in 2005 substantially underestimated the UAE population (stating it at 4.1 million), in part, because it did not include illegal immigrants, almost

300,000 of whom applied for amnesty in 2007. However, a study in 2008 by Tanmia, the national employment agency, on behalf of the FNC, concluded that the population could have reached 5.6 million at the end of 2006. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit, at the end of 2007, the total population was 7.5 million, of which Emirati citizens represented only 19%. The bulk of the population has been composed of immigrant workers almost since the foundation of the federation. The economic boom of the past 5 years has brought in large numbers of expatriate workers, causing the UAE population to soar by at least 30% and decreasing the UAE nationals' representation to less than 19% of the total. Indians and Pakistanis form more than 50% of the population. Other groups include Sri Lankans, Filipinos, Iranians, Egyptians and Westerners (EIU, 2012; CIA Fact Book, 2012).

Islam is the official and prevailing religion in the UAE; Muslims comprise more than 96% of the population. Other religions include Christianity and Hinduism, which constitute approximately 4% of the population (CIA Fact Book, 2012). The official language is Arabic, although English is widely understood, and Hindi and Urdu are common languages among the immigrants (EIU 2012).

The structure of the UAE population is dominated by the expatriates because they make up more than four-fifths of the population. At the end of 2012, it was estimated that locals only comprised 15% of the total population. The local citizens form an even smaller proportion of the labour force, with approximately 8% employed and only 2% in the private-sector workforce. Dubai has the lowest proportion of Emirati citizens, who comprise approximately 5% of the population. The above-mentioned Tanmia study gave some of the first estimates of the breakdown of the immigrant

population from a government agency. Drawing from that data, we estimate that Indians are the largest group, accounting for approximately 36% of the population in 2012, followed by Pakistanis at 14%. There are also significant groups of other Asian nationalities, including Sri Lankans, Bangladeshis and Filipinos, who mainly work in the construction, manufacturing and services sectors. Despite their high profile, Westerners constitute only 5% of the population, with the remaining expatriates coming from mainly Iran or other Arab countries (mostly Egypt and Palestine). The number of Iranians is particularly difficult to determine, with estimates of their share of the national population ranging from 2% to 9%, partly because of political sensitivity and partly because many are only temporary residents who move between Iran and the UAE. Most Iranians in the UAE are based in Dubai, which has become the hub for Iranian commerce and finance due to sanctions on Iran and which has played host to Iranian immigrants since the late 19th century because as many as half of Dubai nationals are thought to originate from Iranian families (EIU, 2008).

Most UAE nationals are descendents from two tribal groupings: the Qawasim and the Bani Yas, which emerged as leading powers in the region in the 18th century. The Qawasim, mainly land and sea traders, held sway over what is today Ras al-Khaimah and Sharjah, whereas the Bani Yas, who were more agricultural and pastoral, lived in what is now Abu Dhabi and Dubai. There was substantial immigration from Arab tribes in southern Iran during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, particularly to Dubai (EIU, 2008).

3.4 UAE Political System

The 1971 interim constitution of the UAE, drafted with the establishment of the federation, was amended and finalised in 1996. The UAE's constitution established a federal government that assigns significant power to the emirates. Legal codes differ among the emirates. The government has executive, legislative and judicial branches, but the executive branch strongly dominates. There are no political parties and no popular elections. Although the governmental institutions are modern in form, the basis of the region's political power is traditional and hereditary, with the ruling family of each emirate representing its dominant tribe and region. Politics is largely a process of legitimising the claims of the ruling families and their factions to power, as well as merchants and religious leaders (UAE Const., 1996; Carnegie Endowment, 2008).

The constitution came into being to explain the main rules of the political and legal organisation of the state. The constitution also elaborated on the major social and economic pillars of the federation and stressed public rights, responsibilities and freedoms. Moreover, it designated the federal authorities, organised the issuance processes of federal legislation and outlined the competent authorities. The constitution describes five federal institutions: the Federal Supreme Council (FSC, executive branch), the president and the vice president, the Council of Ministers, the FNC (legislative branch) and the judiciary branch (DPADM & DESA 2004). There is no true separation between the executive and legislative branches in the UAE (Carnegie Endowment, 2008).

3.4.1 The Federal Supreme Council

The FSC is the highest constitutional authority in the UAE. It is also the highest of the legislative and executive bodies. The FSC is composed of the rulers of the seven emirates. The seven members of the FSC elect the president and vice president. (Library of Congress, 2007).

The FSC has the power to make policies and appoint the president, prime minister and other ministers and judges in the Federal Supreme Court. It also ratifies federal laws, although the president can amend them. The FSC meets formally once a year, but informal meetings are more frequent. All decisions must be approved by the emirs of Abu Dhabi and Dubai and by at least three of the other five emirates (Carnegie Endowment, 2008).

The posts of president and prime minister are de facto hereditary to the al-Nahyan and al-Maktoum ruling families of Abu Dhabi and Dubai, respectively (BMI, 2013a). By convention, the federal president is always the leader of Abu Dhabi, and Sheikh Khalifa was, accordingly, unanimously elected for a 5-year term by the FSC in 2004 shortly after becoming the new ruler of Abu Dhabi. Although the UAE has a full complement of institutions for the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government, in practice, important decisions are made by the ruling families of the emirates, particularly Abu Dhabi. Decision making is not transparent or accountable, leaving considerable scope for inefficiency because excessive red tape and instances of incompetence and corruption are hidden from public view and are rarely open to challenge (EIU 2008).

3.4.2 The Council of Ministers

The Council of Ministers (cabinet) is the federal government's executive body and headed by the prime minister. The post of prime minister (and of vice-president) has always been held by Dubai. The Council of Ministers is appointed by the Supreme Council of Rulers. By tradition, the ministries are divided between emirates based on their size and influence, with the most going to Abu Dhabi (including the foreign affairs and interior portfolios) and Dubai (including the finance and economy portfolios), but with all emirates represented with at least one position. The Council of Ministers initiates legislation, which is then ratified by the FSC. It also approves the federal budget and oversees the federal government. The Council of Ministers drafts decrees and various decisions. (EIU, 2012).

3.4.3 Legislature

The legislative branch is the unicameral Federal National Council Council(Al-Majlis Al-Watani Al-Itihadi), or the FNC. It consists of 40 members (eight each for Abu Dhabi and Dubai, six each for Sharjah and Ras al-Khaimah and four each for Fujairah, Ajman and Umm al-Quwain). Half of the FNC members are elected, with the other 20 appointed by the rulers of the seven emirates. The first FNC election was held on December 18-20, 2006. The Electoral College, a body of 6,689 Emiratis, including 1,189 women, was appointed by the rulers of the seven emirates. The appointed members of the Electoral College were the only eligible voters and candidates. Four hundred fifty-six candidates, including 65 women, ran for 20 contested FNC seats; one female from the emirate of Abu Dhabi won a seat (CIA Fact Book, 2012). In late September 2011, an FNC election, in which voting was

expanded from 6,600 voters to 129,274 voters (approximately 12% of the emirate population), was held for half of the FNC seats. The other half were appointed (CIA World Fact Book, 2012).

The FNC is an advisory body to the FSC. It has only a limited mandate, charged with 'examining, and amending, if necessary, all proposed federal legislation'. The FNC reviews legislation and proposes amendments to it, but it cannot change or veto it or initiate new laws. It may summon and question federal ministers regarding ministry performance, but there have been few examples of this action compared to its Kuwaiti counterpart (BMI, 2013a).

Although the FNC continues to be denied legislative powers, some of the appointed members, mainly from the northern emirates, are looking to be more assertive in their dealings with the executive branch (EIU 2012). Its role is purely consultative, and its powers are limited to reviewing and commenting on legislation referred to it by the Council of Ministers. As such, the parliament is largely a consultative body. The Council, however, does have the power to examine and amend proposed legislation and the power to summon and question any federal minister, as well as its own members. One of the main duties of the FNC is to discuss the annual budget. (Carnegie Endowment, 2008).

Domestic political risk is extremely low in the UAE. The government retains a strong grip on power, with the partially elected FNC having a limited impact on decision making. Each of the seven emirates enjoys considerable autonomy. The main expressions of dissent in recent years have come from migrant workers, who have complained of poor working and living conditions. Protests have decreased over the

past year, which probably reflects the tighter job market rather than any major improvement in conditions: residency is tied to employment, meaning foreigners who lose their jobs are unlikely to be allowed to remain in the country (BMI, 2012a).

3.4.4 The Judiciary

The Federal Supreme Court seats five judges who, at the request of individual emirates, adjudicate between them or between the emirates and the federal government and decide on the constitutionality of federal laws. In practice, the status of federal laws often requires the passage of enabling legislation in the individual emirates (Library of Congress, 2007).

3.4.5 Local Governments

The national constitution delineates a division of power between the federal government and the governments of each of the seven emirates. The central government is responsible for foreign policy, defence, education, public health, the communications infrastructure and immigration and territorial issues. Powers not given to the federal government are reserved in the constitution for the individual states of the UAE. For the past 30 years, the federal government has assumed additional responsibilities such as the judiciary system, places where local governments have been willing to relinquish power (UAE Const., 1996; Bin Howaiden, 2010, 34).

The degree of local governance varies in accordance with the size of the emirate and the size of the local community. In Abu Dhabi, there is a local parallel government to the federal government that includes a consultative council and a public

administration. The city of Abu Dhabi is divided into two municipalities that provide a variety of services including water, electricity, public works, finance and customs (Library of Congress, 2007).

The municipality of Al Ain within the emirate of Abu Dhabi also has a strong local government. In the smaller and less-developed emirates, the federal government tends to take a larger role in the provision of public services. The individual emirates are governed directly by their ruling families. Although political leaders in the emirates are not elected, citizens may express their concerns directly to their leaders via traditional mechanisms, such as the open *majlis*, or informal assembly (EIU, 2008).

3.5 Economy

The UAE remains heavily dependent on crude oil (IMF, 2012). UAE economy has the fifth largest gas reserve and holds approximately 10% of the oil reserve worldwide. The UAE government is working on diversifying the economy to reduce its dependency on oil by investing more in tourism, re-exports, telecommunications and aluminium productions. The GDP has shown a growth in the UAE from \$314.451 billion in 2008 to \$392.168 billion in 2012 (Country Profile | Country Watch United Arab Emirates, 2012). Abu Dhabi and Dubai account for 90% of the UAE's GDP (BMI, 2012a).

The UAE will continue to diversify away from oil but will also invest in increasing its oil output. Regarding economic diversification, much of the spending on large-scale infrastructure projects comes from Abu Dhabi (EIU, 2012).

The UAE has some of the best physical infrastructure in the Gulf region. Combined with its relatively open economy and low tariff regime, it has established itself as a major trade hub. Following several years of weak growth, the economy has been slowly regaining its momentum, and combined with its new 'safe-haven' status, this growth seems to have finally reached a positive level (BMI, 2012).

As the UAE developed into a major services hub in the Middle East, its dependency on oil exports declined markedly. Based on its well-developed hospitality and services sectors, tourism, transportation and logistics have been major factors in the post-2009 recovery. The UAE has also been benefiting from high oil prices and strong growth in Asia. As a result of its perceived safe-haven status and developed services sector, the country benefited from an increase in demand for property by expatriates and a surge in tourism in the wake of the turmoil in the Middle East and North Africa region that began last year (IMF, 2012).

During 2012, the UAE witnessed moderate economic growth at 3%, owing to slower growths in emerging-market economies in Asia and a decline in world trade. The UAE's monetary policy is constrained by the dirham's peg to the US dollar at a rate of Dh 3.67:\$1 USD (EIU, 2012).

The UAE was ranked 28th out of 183 countries in the annual Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) released by Transparency International through its 100 national chapters and an international secretariat in Berlin, with a score of 6.8 on a scale of 0-10 (10 being the least corrupt). The United States was ranked 24th. Qatar was the highest-ranked Gulf Cooperation Council country in 22nd (CPI, 2011).

The UAE was ranked 30th out of 187 countries surveyed for the UN's 'Human Development Report 2011, Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All.' The UAE was the top Arab country in the report (Human Development Report, 2011).

Whereas the UAE has a federal structure and wealth is shared between the emirates, each emirate manages its budget independently. Expatriates constitute 80% of the UAE's population and most are fully employed. Unemployment among nationals is high (14% in 2009) and concentrated among the youth and in the northern emirates (IMF, 2011).

3.6 The Seven Emirates

UAE federation consists of seven emirates: Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al Quwain, Ras al-Khaimah and Fujairah. Each emirate has its local government that helps the emirate's ruler to pursue his tasks, drive the business and monitor emirate affairs, ensuring that the local structure is aligned and correlated with the federal government.

Abu Dhabi

Abu Dhabi is the largest emirate, representing 86% of the land area of the UAE, mostly coastline, and approximately one-third of the population. Abu Dhabi is the federal capital of the UAE and the largest of the seven emirates. This emirate borders Saudi Arabia, the Sultanate of Oman and the Arabian Gulf. Its climate is tropical and semi-dry, with hot summers, warm winters and scant rainfall. Most importantly, Abu Dhabi produces 95% of the country's oil and gas and owns one of the largest sovereign wealth funds in the world, with more than \$300 billion in assets under

management (IMF, 2011, 4). It produces approximately 90% of the oil and uses the revenue to fund the other emirates, which, in turn, provide Abu Dhabi with a demographic and geographic collective strength that it would otherwise lack. This arrangement binds the federation together. In recognition of Abu Dhabi's hydrocarbon dominance (which has increased over time as Dubai and the other emirates continue to use up most of their much smaller reserves), the federal Ministry of Energy was substantially downgraded in the early 1990s and its powers were mostly transferred to the Abu Dhabi Supreme Petroleum Council (SPC). However, the duplication of official bodies has caused occasional problems in negotiations with operating companies. Headed by Sheikh Khalifa, the SPC approves policies for many Abu Dhabi oil companies that come under the umbrella of the wholly government-owned Abu Dhabi National Oil Company. The oil sector contributed 49.7% to the GDP in 2010, whereas the non-oil sector contributed 50.3% (Statistics Centre - Abu Dhabi/SCAD, 2011).

Transition of power in Abu Dhabi has been efficient. In November 2004, Sheikh Zayed, who, died. His eldest son, Sheikh Khalifa, succeeded him as ruler of Abu Dhabi and was elected president of the federation by the Supreme Council of Rulers within a few hours of Sheikh Zayed's death being confirmed. The smooth transition largely dispelled fears that inter-emirate rivalries might threaten to destabilise the federation.

Transition of power in Dubai has also been efficient. In January 2006, after the death of Sheikh Maktoum, its ruler since 1990, his younger brother, Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, became the emir of Dubai and prime minister of the UAE.

Abu Dhabi's Administrative Regions

Abu Dhabi is divided into three administrative regions: Abu Dhabi City, the Eastern Region with Al-Ain as its largest city and the Western Region with Madinat Zayed as its largest city. The regions are headed by the ruler's representatives and are administered by the respective municipalities: Municipality of Abu Dhabi City, Al Ain City Municipality and Western Region Municipality, which are in charge of the planning of the cities and their infrastructure. The Department of Municipal Affairs is the regulatory body that supervises the three regional municipal councils and municipal administrations.

Dubai

Dubai also has approximately one-third of the population of the UAE, although it accounts for only 5% of the country's territory, and more than one-quarter of the emirate is urbanised. As its oil production has fallen, Dubai has made the successful transition to an economy based on trade and services.

Dubai, the second largest emirate, has a more diversified economy, driven by re-export trade, services and real estate; it is highly leveraged with a gross debt-to-GDP ratio higher than 100% (IMF, 2011, 5). As a result, it has managed to retain a measure of independence from Abu Dhabi, and the marked difference between the two states has led to occasional friction and rivalry. In general, however, relations are cordial, with Abu Dhabi accepting (and usually supporting) Dubai's autonomous approach to economic policymaking.

In return, Dubai has assented to Abu Dhabi's leadership over political issues that affect the federation as a whole, such as defence and foreign policy. (As part of this understanding, Dubai disbanded its own military forces in the late 1990s.) The close personal relationship between the emir of Dubai and the increasingly influential crown prince of Abu Dhabi, Sheikh Mohammed bin Zayed al-Nahyan, has further strengthened ties between the two emirates.

Other Emirates

Although the federal government, led by Abu Dhabi, sets the UAE's approach to issues where a joint stance is required, the individual ruling families retain authority within their own emirates, a measure of autonomy that is closely guarded,. Each emirate also has its own civil service. The individual emirates are fully responsible for developments in civil aviation, oil, internal security, finance and investment and economic policy. There are naturally internal tensions within the ruling families in each of the emirates, and these sometimes come to the surface, particularly over the issue of succession. There was a brief crisis in Ras al-Khaimah in mid-2003 when the aging emir unexpectedly removed his eldest son as crown prince, thought to be because of unease over his modest support for political liberalisation, and replacing him with his younger brother. The move generated some popular protests, although opposition quickly fell away, partly because of the deployment of federal troops to protect the key buildings in the emirate; the emir's eldest son went into exile in Oman.

3.7 The Government of Abu Dhabi

3.7.1 Introduction

His Highness Sheikh Khalifa the Ruler of Abu Dhabi Emirate is assisted by the Executive Council, the governing body of the emirate. He is also assisted by the National Consultative Council, which is the legislative body of the emirate.

3.7.2 The National Consultative Council

The National Consultative Council represents the legislative body of the government of Abu Dhabi and it is part of the Abu Dhabi government's public legislative authority established through Law (2) of 1971 under the authority of Sheikh Zayed (Abu Dhabi Government b, 2012).

The council specialises in discussing bylaws and public subjects in addition to addressing questions to the executive council chairman or one of its members in order to enquire about matters under their jurisdiction (Bin Howaiden, 2010, 53).

The council was established, in addition to the governmental panel, with the aim of supporting Sheikh Khalifa in managing public affairs. The council specialises in three areas: (a) discussing bylaws and public topics, as well as putting questions to the executive council chairman and members; (b) getting acquainted with the international pacts and agreements with foreign bodies held by the emirate; and (c) receiving citizens' complaints and petitions (Government of Abu Dhabi b, 2012).

3.7.3 The executive council

The executive council is chaired by Sheikh Mohamed Bin Zayed Al Nahyan. The council supervises the government departments that are equivalent to ministries and have clearly specified mandates. They administer various areas of activities ranging from economic development to pensions, environment, health, food control, education, culture and heritage, among others. The executive council monitors the progress of government-sponsored projects, the development of services and the improvement of governmental performance in Abu Dhabi.

The members of the executive council are also chairmen of Abu Dhabi's government departments and authorities. The role of the executive council is central to Abu Dhabi's governmental structure. It consists of the general secretariat of the executive council, the executive affairs authority, the executive committee and the subcommittees. The general secretariat of the executive council is an administrative body entrusted to propose public policies and strategies to be decided on by the executive council, whereas the executive affairs authority provides strategic policy advice to the chairman of the executive council. The executive committee makes decisions on projects submitted to the executive council. The subcommittees include economic development, social development and infrastructure and environment (Abu Dhabi Government a, 2012).

The Executive Council acts as the local government/administration of Abu Dhabi and supports the ruler to oversee the emirate's mandates. The council holds many responsibilities; some are creating public policy, developing plans and overseeing project implementation.

3.7.4 The General Secretariat

The general secretariat works as the administrative body that supports the Executive Council and proposes strategic plans and policies. Its mission is ‘to develop Abu Dhabi’s strategic plans and policies and champion their effective execution, while providing the necessary support for the executive council to carry out its duties efficiently’ (Abu Dhabi Government, 2012).

As per the law (2) of 2006, one of the main duties of the general secretariat is to ‘track the performance of the departments, authorities, public organisations and government-sponsored projects and their equivalents in Abu Dhabi, check and evaluate their implementation of the approved policies and programs, report the findings to the executive council, as well communicate the issued directives in this concern.’ Based on this duty, the general secretariat developed a major guideline for the policies and strategies of both public and private sector organisations in Abu Dhabi to collaborate and coordinate their work towards achieving the vision of Sheikh Khalifa mentioned in the previous sections. This guideline was called the ‘Policy Agenda 2007-2008’. This was followed by different publications: ‘Plan Abu Dhabi 2030’, ‘Plan Al Ain 2030’, ‘Economic Vision 2030’ and ‘Towards Innovation Policy in Abu Dhabi’. To monitor and manage the strategies, a balanced scorecard was developed by the general secretariat, and the entities were asked to distribute this scorecard to their organisations at different levels (Abu Dhabi Government, 2012).

3.7.5 Policy Agenda 2007-2008¹

Public sector organisations in the UAE are experiencing great change because of the new government vision and to its call for excellence. The government of Abu Dhabi is aiming to be among the top five governments in the world. To achieve this, the government published, for the first time, the policy agenda for the emirate of Abu Dhabi in 2007. In this agenda, all the members of the executive council of Abu Dhabi “commit to overseeing the development and implementation of strategic policies and initiatives to work towards the vision for Abu Dhabi, to be held accountable for the performance of their departments and authorities and to work constructively across all portfolios to deliver an efficient, effective and coordinated government for the emirate of Abu Dhabi and its people”.

Under the supervision and the guidance of Sheikh Khalifa, a set of initiatives and key goals that demonstrate his vision of a secure society and a dynamic open economy were addressed in the ‘Policy Agenda 2007-2008’.

The agenda is regarded as the source of information for the government’s objectives, programs and policy directions in the public and private sector organisations.

‘Policy Agenda 2007-2008’ outlines the key goals and government initiatives in development across a range of authority and departmental portfolios in Abu Dhabi. It identifies the roles that many public and private entities will play to further social and

¹ This section is based on the Policy Agenda 2007-2008 published by the General Secretariat of the executive council of Abu Dhabi Government in 2009.

economic development of Abu Dhabi and identifies opportunities for the private sector to engage with the public sector.

Sheikh Khalifa set a comprehensive vision for significant growth and diversification for the emirate. However, it should be noted that this agenda is a living document. It articulates the vision of the government of Abu Dhabi at a given point in time, and the key initiatives that the government entities are implementing to achieve it. As its priorities and circumstances change, the policy measures will respond to take advantage of these developments and, in most instances, proactively seek to influence them.

The executive council manages the strategic coordination of policy across a range of portfolios and evaluates those efforts. It is the steward of efficient, inclusive and accountable government in the emirate. Its mission is to develop and oversee economic and social policies for the strategic benefit of Abu Dhabi.

The vision for Abu Dhabi consists of a secure society and a dynamic open economy based on the following pillars: (a) premium education, healthcare and infrastructure assets; (b) a large empowered private sector; (c) the creation of a sustainable knowledge-based economy; (d) an optimal transparent regulatory environment; (e) complete international and domestic security; (f) a continuation of strong and diverse international relationships; (g) emirate resource optimisation; (h) the maintenance of Abu Dhabi's values, culture and heritage; and (i) a significant and ongoing contribution to the federation of the UAE.

The Structures and Functions of Government

The Policy Agenda is divided into four priority areas, three of which will be overseen by a newly created committee as the structure of government evolves in Abu Dhabi. These issues include economic development, social and human resources, and infrastructure and environment. The fourth section covers whole-of-government issues that are relevant across all or most portfolios.

a. Economic Development

The private and public organisations in Abu Dhabi are working together to achieve the emir's vision of a dynamic open economy, characterised by a vibrant diversity and by transparency and sound governance.

b. Social and Human Resources

A major element of Abu Dhabi's plan describes a society characterised by the provision of world-class healthcare, education and other services, where individuals are valued and their unique skills and contributions are ethically leveraged towards achieving a better quality of life for all.

c. Infrastructure and Environment

The coordination between infrastructure and environment policies is part of a determined commitment to ensure that economic and industrial development in Abu

Dhabi is delivered in a sustainable way, with the highest standards of community safety and a protected natural environment.

Whole-of-Government Initiatives

There are a range of policy areas that will not fit within the confined structures of portfolios, agencies or departments. To be managed effectively, these issues require coordinated policy to be implemented consistently across multiple departments and agencies and warrant a dedicated, whole-of-government approach (The General Secretariat of the executive council - Abu Dhabi - Publications, 2009).

Chapter 4

Synthesis of the literature and development of the conceptual framework

4.1. Introduction

Review of the literature in Chapter 2 revealed that although much work has been undertaken to analyse and investigate strategy implementation in the private sector, until recently there has been little concern with the strategic management in public sector organisations. In studying strategic management in public sector organisations, the role of leadership is critical. It has been argued that the senior managers' personal goals, characteristics, and strategic awareness can significantly impact the implementation of strategy. The organisations also need to develop appropriate organisational structure to deliver the strategy effectively. It also has been discussed that organisational structure and strategy should be embedded in the organisational culture. In other words, the organisational structure is a foundation for implementing strategy effectively.

In this chapter, the challenges of strategy implementation in public sector organisations will be discussed. Following the discussion is the development of the conceptual model and synthesis of the relevant literature in order to provide support for research hypotheses. Accordingly, a conceptual framework of strategy implementation in public sector firms will be provided. Here, the literature, which was reviewed in chapters 2 and 3, will be synthesised in order to develop the

conceptual framework of the research. Then the research questions will be introduced. Third, the literature on strategic management in public sector organisations will be synthesised and a dynamic model of strategy implementation will be introduced. Finally, the research variables and research hypotheses will be discussed in detail.

4.2 Objectives of the study and the research questions

As it has been discussed in chapters 1 and 2, previous researches in the field of strategic management in the public sector suggest several significant issues that merit further investigation. The overall aim of this research is to explore senior managers' perception and attitudes and contribution to the strategic management process in general and strategy implementation in particular in public sector organisations in UAE. The research questions and the relevant research hypotheses have been developed after reviewing the literature. In this section, a brief overview of the research questions and objectives of the study and the relevant hypotheses are presented; however, the details of the questions, objectives, hypothesis, and the process of developing the conceptual framework of the research is presented in Chapter 4.

This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the main challenges in strategy implementation process in public organisations in UAE?

2. What are the senior managers' perceptions and attitudes of the strategy implementation and evaluation of strategy in public sector organisations?
3. What are the influential factors associated with the effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations, and what is their impact on organisational performance?

In order to answer to the research questions, four main propositions were developed. All of these propositions are separate but linked together alongside the research objectives.

Research objective 1: To investigate the relationship between strategy implementation and organisational performance in the public sector.

Research objective 2: To identify and investigate the relationship between types of structure associated with effective strategy implementation in the public sector.

Research objective 3: To investigate the role of strategic leadership in implementing strategy in the public sector.

Research objective 4: To investigate the role of organisational culture on implementing strategy successfully.

4.3. Challenges of implementing the strategy in public sectors

It has been argued that strategic management should be 'planted' in the public services because it is not rooted in the public sector (Gibbons and Connor, 2005). The

organisational culture should support the implementation of the strategy. However, public sector culture does not support the changes of strategy in organisation (Allio, 2005). Middle managers in organisations have an important role in the process of designing strategy and its success (Beer and Eisenstat, 2000). Middle and executive managers should be aware of the changes in organisation, objectives, policies, and mission. If they are unaware, they will resist the implementation of strategy in the organisation (Heifetz and Laurie, 2001; Allio, 2005). Sometimes a strategy which appears to be suitable might be not be applicable after designing the budget and calculating the exact cost of implementation; it may turn out that the organisation cannot afford it (Beer and Eisenstat, 2000). Failure to provide the necessary training and guidance to executive employees may be an obstacle in the rapid implementation of strategy in public sectors (Heifetz and Laurie, 2001). The recruitment and selection process of human resources and training employees before starting strategy implementation is very important. Employees who do not know how to deal with the changes may become problematic for the organisation (Johnson, 2004). Governmental and mainly public sector organisations should plan for designing an appropriate re-engineering process before starting to implement the strategy, as this process facilitated the implementation process. The company strives to eliminate the organisation's old high-cost methods and think of creative new models of operation (Thompson et al., 2006). Organisational culture should support the mission of

organisation, as it has a great effect on employee behaviour through the process of strategy implementation (Chatman and Cha, 2003; Collins, 2005; Florida and Goodnight, 2005).

Mankins and Steele (2005) stated that most companies' strategies promised just 63% of the financial performance. Kaplan and Norton (2005) attributed that 95% of companies' employees don't understand or are unaware of their company's strategy. According to Johnson (2004), 66% of corporate strategy is never implemented. The result of most studies indicates that there is a gap between implementing strategy to performance. Crittenden and Crittenden (2008) asserted that if a company neglects strategy implementation, it leads to poor performance both in the current execution and in future strategy formulation processes. They also pointed out the formulation-implementation-performance cycle and believed that they are consistently related to each other. Beer and Eisenstat (2000) identified six elements that lead to the failure of strategy implementation; they called these "*The six silent killers of strategy implementation*". They believed that managers who confront these killers and try to overcome them are successful and have a capable organisation. These silent killers are as follows: top-down or laissez-faire senior management style; unclear strategy and conflicting priorities; an ineffective senior management team; poor vertical

communication; poor coordination across functions, businesses, or borders; and inadequate down-the-line leadership skills and development (Collins, 2005).

4.4 Barriers of strategy implementation in public sectors

The success level of strategy implementation in governmental enterprises has been studied by a number of researchers. While they have identified some factors that affect its successful implementation (Allio, 2005; Kell et al., 2007), they do not mention the exact barriers. Some of them refer to allocating fixed resources (Jacobids, 2010) to implementation of strategy in firms, while others point to the lack of a systematic information system (Meier et al., 2006; Braithwait et al., 2010), organisational cultures (Van Der Maas, 2008), political problems (Meier et al., 2006), and even the leadership style of managers (Florida & Goodnight, 2005).

According to an empirical study by Heide et al. (2007), the main barrier of implementation of strategy is communication problems. When staff and employees are not aware of organisational goals and strategy initiatives, they don't know their responsibility in regard to strategy implementation. The leadership style of the firm failed to develop a suitable relationship with employees and make clear the objectives of the firm's strategy (Jacobs et al., 2013). Organisation managers should pay special attention to establishing good communication with their staff and try to omit this

barrier to their successful implementation of strategy (Dyson, 2004). The second important barrier, which is very common in large organisations and public sectors, deals with organisational factors such as unclear policies and inadequate information about each employee's responsibility. This is more common in matrix structure firms in which organizing and coordinating with different managers is sometimes difficult for employees.

The other important barrier, according to Heide et al., (2002) refers to public sector organisational structure. The main problem happens in organisations with vertical structures, where the vertical relationship lines are unsuccessful in communication. The middle managers play a key role in this kind of structure, especially in organisations with two or three shifts. Managers should be present in each shift and communicate the strategy, supplying information about the changes and sending employees to training classes, if necessary, to help them deal with the changes. In this chapter, the core elements of strategy implementation including organisational culture, organisational structure, and leadership will be discussed.

4.5 Organisational culture and strategy implementation

The integration of external and internal factors for establishing strategic management is crucial (Lopez et al., 2004). As no two individuals have the same culture, neither do any two organisations. All functional areas of the organisation are under the effect of

whole business culture. Strategic management occurs under the great effect of organisational culture and must be monitored via a strategic audit (David, 2003). As the strategy implementation is a challenging stage in the strategic management process, it needs to be supported by the culture (Mehta and R. Krishnan, 2004; Zain et al., 2011; Navanjo-Valencia et al., 2011; Dauber and Fink, 2012). An organisation's culture should play a supportive role in connecting people to a common purpose (Dodek et al., 2010). If it is not supportive, in the case of changing a firm's strategies, these changes won't be effective. Employees should have the chance to take care of the customers and have a high competitive spirits (Dodek et al., 2010). A supportive culture does not distinguish itself from the company's goals, problems, and competition (David, 2003).

Organisational culture helps to implement organisational strategies effectively. The people in the organisations should be motivated and enthusiastic about implementing strategies (Mehta and Krishnan, 2004; Dauber et al., 2012). If the value of organisational culture is not considered in establishing strategic management, it can raise problems such as communication problems, less coordination, barriers to adapting to changes, and weak relationships between different functional departments (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Sometimes there is some tension between organisation culture and strategy, but it should be managed correctly (Dodek et al.,

2010). Supportive organisational structure makes the strategic management process smooth and easy to manage (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004).

The success of strategies highly depends on individuals and organisational culture, and today the main effort of strategic management is to manage individual and organisational culture in order to support the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of strategies (Machtosh and Doherty, 2010).

Strategies should be constructed according to the organisation's culture, and there should be an emphasis on preservation (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Therefore, an organisation's culture should be identified and examined well so that any necessary changes in the culture will be easier. Sometimes, changing the culture of an organisation in order to implement a new strategy is more effective than changing the whole strategy (Sumeril et al., 2010).

The surface manifestations of the organisational culture consists of both internal and external factors (Fey and Denison, 2003; Pirayeh et al., 2011). Internal factors such as recruitment, staff, and turnover; and external factors including technology, competitors, organisational beliefs, and values should be compatible with the surface manifestation of culture. Some authors argue that in case of arising conflict, the organisation should act promptly to achieve strategy-culture fit. A strong culture helps to ensure successful implementation of strategy (David, 2003; Beugelsdijk et

al., 2009). Strong culture enhances employees' energy, encourages them to do their task in a better way, and it promotes strategy implementation.

In contrast, as the business environment is continually changing, the organisational strategies are dynamic. In such situations, the culture should be very flexible and employees should know how to deal with changes. Organisational culture should adapt to business demands. In case of changes, a flexible and dynamic culture supports the strategy. Organisations should train, promote employees, and increase their capabilities to deal with strategy challenges (David, 2003).

4.6 Strategy implementation and organisational structure

As it has been discussed in Chapter 2, the concept of organisation can be categorised into formal and informal organisations. In formal organisations, all activities are already designed and documented and have been established by top managers toward achievement of organisational objectives. Activities such as the relationship between employees and managers, organisational charts, job descriptions, each department's duty, and so on are well defined. In this kind of organisation, all rules and policies are formally written and managers can check and monitor and change them (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010). In informal organisations, due to meeting psychological and physical needs of organisational members, undocumented and unwritten relationships form between employees (Gulati and Puranam, 2009). These kinds of relationships

are spontaneous, and the interaction between employees leads to the formation of informal groups within organisations. Relationships in informal groups are very smooth and flexible, with their own norms and values. However, sometimes informal organisations which are developed by employees are in conflict with formal organisations (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010). The comparison of formal and informal organisations is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Comparison of formal and informal organisations

	Formal organisation	Informal organisation
Structure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Origin • Rationale • Characteristics 	Planned Rational Stable	Spontaneous Emotional Dynamic
Position terminology	Job	Role
Goals	Profitability or service to society	Member satisfaction
Influence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Base • Type • Flow 	Position Authority Top-down	Personality Power Bottom-up
Control mechanism	Threat of firing or demotion	Physical or social sanction
Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Channels • Networks 	Formal channels Well-defined, follow formal lines	Grapevine Poorly defined, cut across regular channels
Charting	Organisational chart	Sociogram

<p>Miscellaneous</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual included • Interpersonal relation • Leadership role • Basis for interaction • Basis for attachment 	<p>All individuals in work groups</p> <p>Prescribed by job description</p> <p>Assigned by organisation</p> <p>Functional duties or position</p> <p>Loyalty</p>	<p>Only those acceptable</p> <p>Arise spontaneously</p> <p>Result of membership</p> <p>Personal characteristics</p> <p>Cohesiveness</p>
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Source: adapted from Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010

It is clear that the relationship between structure and strategy is rather close.

However, it is difficult to determine which one leads which. Lynch (2006) suggests determination of whether strategy follows structure or structure follows strategy is uncertain. For example, the structure of the military decides its strategy, while the strategy of Apple decide its structure. During the past decades, strategy has a deep meaning in planning and managerial issues within organisations. Strategy is a set of actions and policies that demonstrates the main direction of an organisation in order to achieve the objectives of the organisation over a long-term period (Allio, 2005).

In general, strategic management is a set of managerial decisions and actions to realize and determine how companies can improve long-term performance (Popova and Sharpanskykh, 2012). Strategic management includes internal and external environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and evaluation and control. Strategic management is decision making by managers about

significant issues within firms and putting into effect the proper strategy (Jonker and Treur, 2003). Strategic management process describes an organisation's strategies (Karami, 2007). By this process, managers of organisations carefully choose a set of strategies which help them to accomplish better performances. It is a conscious, purposeful, and continuous process to determine and fix goals to cover present and future competitors (Waltera and Bruchb, 2010).

There are varieties of strategic management models (Tikkanen and Halinen, 2003). Strategy implementation has been the focus of researches in the strategy subject field (Porter, 2003; Waltera and Bruchb, 2010). Aranda and Motos (2006) called strategy implementation an administrative task because of the nature of these activities. In reviewing the literature and several models, it can be observed that a great number of theoretical and empirical studies about strategy implementation, such as Heide et al. (2002); Crittenden and Crittenden (2008); Waltera and Bruchb (2010); and Claver et al., (2012) indicate that different models have been tested to determine how and which factors help to improve the effectiveness of strategy implementation.

4.7 Leadership and strategy implementation

Leadership is an influential factor for implementing strategy in public sector organisations. Without top management support, the strategies cannot be implemented successfully. Leadership is an essential factor to fulfil goals and

missions in any organisation (Mills, 2005). It is a key factor for all activities in successful organisations. Each organisation's accomplishments and success depend on effective leadership. A lack of leadership makes any organisation move slowly and ruins its plans and strategies (Barling et al., 2011). Leaders show the path to success by supplying objectives and visions for group members (Avolio, 2009).

In this study, after reviewing the strategic management process and its three stages (formulation, implementation, and evaluation), the effect of three main factors (culture, structure, and leadership) in organisations on strategy implementation has been discussed.

Factors for successful implementation of strategy are organisational culture, budgeting, implementing and facilitating procedures, continuous improvement, installation and operation of information systems, motivating employees, and, finally, the application of internal leadership toward strategy (Van Buul, 2010). The absence of one of these items in an organisation can deter implementation of strategy.

All organisations are dependents in sets of internal or external factors that are continually changing. Changes occur because organisations want to cover opportunities or some special behaviour which has roots in environmental factors either external or internal (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

In the globalisation process, all organisations should make themselves ready to deal with environmental changes and different demands (Van Buul, 2010; Dechurch et al., 2011). Changing and implementing organisational strategy can help an organisation deal with these factors. In today's fast-growing world, an organisation's success or failure depends on the nature and particular activity of the firm (Hunter, 2007). Furthermore, organisational culture, values, leadership styles, management skills, and employees' attitudes are also important. According to Peleg (2012), leadership styles and managers' attitudes are the most important factors for implementation of strategies in public sector organisations.

4.8 Performance evaluation in public sector organisations

Managing organisational performance and measuring organisational performance have been critical factors in implementing strategies in public sector organisations. Perhaps the most important challenges and concerns of public sectors and government agencies are accountability, transparency of relationships, control costs, and paying for performance. The Balanced Score Card (BSC) system is currently one of the valuable performance measurement systems which help organisations to assess their performance. It is able to integrate strategies with performance (Marr and Schiuma, 2003; Tangen, 2004; Leung et al., 2006).

The Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) report about the status of performance management systems and government agencies worldwide in 2005 announced that public sector and governmental organisations have a high tendency to use the BSC system to evaluate organisational performance (DeGeuser et al., 2009).

Today, all organisations in both the public sector and the private sector with strategic management strive to use performance measurement tools to evaluate their performance (Graftona et al., 2010). Considering the different models and frameworks mentioned and according to most scholars in the field of performance evaluation, characteristics of a good performance evaluation system can be summarised as follows (David, 2003):

- Should support strategic objectives
- Should be balanced
- Should be against partial optimisation
- Should have a limited number of performance indicators
- Should be easy to access
- Should include a comprehensive performance indicator

It has been argued that using the BSC system to evaluate organisational performance in public sector organisations has many advantages (Neely et al., 2000; Li, 2001; David, 2003; DeGeuser et al., 2009). The benefits of using BSC are:

- It contributes to strategic planning and strategic management.
- It changes the written shape of strategic plans, which usually present in thick volumes, to a series of brief operational steps and makes it possible to view the results of its implementation on a daily basis (Drevetton, 2013).
- It is a framework that not only makes it possible to evaluate the exact performance, but also helps the strategic planners to know what to evaluate and what not to.
- It enables top managers to execute their strategic planning successfully.
- It forms a strong relationship between vision, long-term strategic objectives, and short-term operational goals (Franceschini et al., 2013).

4.9 Synthesis of the literature and conceptual model

In this section the factors associated with strategy implementation in public sector organisations are summarised, and the conceptual framework of the research is developed.

4.9.1. Factors associated with effective strategy implementation

In this study the concept of strategic management in general and strategy implementation in particular has been reviewed. Review of the literature suggests that the factors for successful implementation of strategy are organisational culture, budgeting, implementing and facilitating procedures, organisational structure, continuous improvement, installation and operation of information systems, motivating employees, and leadership (Van Buul, 2010). Therefore, this study is a direct response to the gap in literature.

Strategy implementation includes many key factors. It requires activities such as collecting and gathering support and commitment from people involved in effective leadership and also resources which will support the organisation's new plan (Kell et al., 2007).

- **Strategy implementation factor**

Before implementing a strategy, its resources should be completely analysed and reviewed by professional experts (Beer and Eisenstat, 2000). The success level of strategy implementation in governmental enterprises has been studied by a number of researchers, and they have found some factors that impact successful implementation (Liu, 2007; Benzvi, 2006; Mullen, 2011; Koseoglu et al., 2002). Therefore, reviewing the literature showed that the effects of culture (Zhou et al., 2010; Jacobs et al., 2013),

leadership, and structure (Marr and Schium, 2003; Florida and Goodnight, 2005) on strategy implementation in public sector organisations had not been studied empirically. Therefore one of the objectives of this study is to investigate the main challenges of strategy implementation in public sector organisations and to investigate the strategy implementation effect on organisational performance in the public sector. For achieving this objective, the following hypothesis has been developed:

H_1 : There is a significant relationship between effective strategy implementation and organisational performance in the public sector.

- **Structure factor**

It has been discussed in the literature review that a structure depends on an organisation's goals and is developed to operate and assist the organisation in achieving its objectives for future growth (Foss, 2003; Burton, 2006). It is clear that the relationship between structure and strategy is rather close. Lynch (2006) suggests that it is impossible to determine whether strategy follows structure or structure follows strategy. During the past decades strategy is deeply embedded in organisational planning and managerial issues. Strategy is a set of actions and policies that demonstrates the main direction of the organisation in order to achieve its objectives over the long term (Karami, 2007). Claver et al. (2012) called strategy

implementation an administrative task because of the nature of these activities. They argued that organisational structure determines the process of effective strategy implementation. In reviewing the literature, it can be observed that a great number of theoretical and empirical studies about structure and its effect on strategic management implementation focus on private organisations operating in a business environment (Heide et al., 2002; Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008). One of the objectives of this research is to investigate this linkage in public sector organisations in UAE. Therefore, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H_2 : There is a significant relationship between organisational structure and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations.

$H2a$: There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and formal organisational structure.

$H2b$: There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and informal organisational structure.

- **Leadership factor**

Leadership is an essential factor in fulfilling the goals and missions of any organisation (Mills, 2005). The organisation's accomplishments and success depend on effective leadership (Heide et al., 2002; Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008). A lack

of leadership slows down an organisation and ruins its plans and strategies (Mills, 2005). Leaders show the path to success by supplying objectives and visions for group members (Avolio, 2009; Collins 2001). According to Bass and Avolio (2009), one of the important factors during the organisational strategy implementation process is leadership style. Appropriate leadership style influences employees and other members of the organisation to go beyond written contact and encourages them to support organisational strategic plans (Edwards and Gill, 2012). As Koseoglu et al. (2009) mentioned, the absence of a proper leadership style in an organisation with a strategic management plan can negatively affect implementation of strategy. One of the objectives of this study is to investigate the role of transformational and transitional leadership styles in implementing organisational strategy. Therefore, the following hypotheses have been developed.

H3: There is a significant relationship between style of leadership and strategy implementation.

H3a: Effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transformational leadership.

H3b: Effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transactional leadership.

- **Culture factor**

The success of strategies depends strongly on individuals and firm culture. More specifically, in many organisations operating in multicultural environments, one of the main efforts of strategic management is to link the organisation's strategy to its culture (MacIntosh and Doherty, 2010). Therefore, the culture of the firm should be identified and well-examined, and it should be understood how to make changes. Sometimes, changing the culture of a firm in order to implement a new strategy is more effective than changing the strategy to suit the culture (Sumeril, et al., 2010). Organisational culture helps to effectively implement strategies (Zhou et al., 2011). As strategy implementation is a challenging stage of the strategic management process, it needs to be supported by culture (Choi and Scott, 2008). It also has been discussed that an organisation's culture plays a supportive role in connecting people to a common purpose (Dodek et al., 2010; Dodek et al., 2010). Reviewing the literature revealed that there are links between the organisational culture and strategy implementation in private organisations (Daivd, 2003; Machtosh and Doherty, 2010). Therefore one of the objectives of this study is to test this relationship in public sector organisations. For testing the relationship between the organisational culture and strategy implementation, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H4 : There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations.

H4a : Successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with open culture.

H4b : Successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with closed culture.

4.10 The research variables

In order to achieve the research objectives and test the research hypotheses, it was necessary to identify and operationalise the research variables. The research variables have been developed through reviewing and synthesising the literature. The detailed data dictionary including the measurement levels can be seen in Appendix 4.1.

Demographic profile of the respondents

This variable included the personal and managerial characteristics of the respondents. It includes: Marital Status, Gender, Nationality, Age Group, Years of Experience, Educational Level, and Management Training.

Organisational strategy audit

In this section, the general organisational factors related to strategy have been considered. For instance, mission statement, content of the mission, characteristics of

the organisational goals (SMART), time-scale of reviewing objectives and formal environmental scanning, monitoring performance, and organisational effectiveness are considered.

Organisational structure

To identify the type of organisational structure, the following factors have been used.

By assessing the answers to the questions in the questionnaire, it was possible to categorise the studied organisations' structure into two main groups of formally oriented and informally oriented structures.

- Work is considered routine.
- There is a clearly known way to do the major tasks.
- Organisation has highly stable and highly structured character.
- Work has low variety and frequent exceptions.
- People have loyalty to the organisation rather than to projects and teams.
- Communications from above consist of instructions and directions rather than information and advice.
- Organisation has high formalisation.
- Seldom is there an exchange of ideas or information with people doing other kind of jobs.
- Decisions are made above you and passed down.
- People rarely have to figure out for themselves what their jobs are for the day.
- Lines of authority are clear and precisely defined, and chain of command is clearly defined.
- Leadership tends to be autocratic rather than democratic in style.
- Job descriptions are written and up to date for each job.
- People do not understand each other's jobs and seldom do different tasks.
- A manual of policies and procedures is available to use when a problem arises.
- Team-working is not essential for doing the job.

Leadership

For the leadership variable, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was adapted. The idea was to identify the leadership style of the respondents. Overall the leadership style of the respondents have been categorised into transactional and transformational leadership styles.

Organisational culture

This research variable was developed to identify the organisational culture of the studied organisations. The questions in this section have been drawn from the literature to identify the predominant culture in the studied organisations.

Strategy implementation

This variable was designed to identify characteristics of a successful strategy implementation system in public sector organisations.

- How effective overall do your organisation's strategies seem to be?
- How effective are your organisation's strategies in terms of increasing employee motivation, satisfaction, and commitment to the organisation?
- To what extent do your organisation's strategies help all employees to develop their maximum potential?
- To what extent do your organisation's strategies appear to treat all departments fairly?
- To what extent do your organisation's strategies appear to adopt a long-term perspective (visionary perspective)?
- To what extent does a department's success depend upon other departments' performance?
- To what extent do your organisation's strategies seem designed in line with Abu Dhabi government strategy?
- To what extent are your organisation's strategies implemented within a scheduled time?
- To what extent has your organisation achieved its intended outcomes in the past three years?
- To what extent do people in your organisation have access to any required tools and resources to implement the strategy successfully?

Organisational performance

This variable has been designed to assess the organisational performance of the studied organisations using BSC. In order to measure firm performance, four variables based on BSC (Financial, Customer, Learning and Growth, Internal Business Process) have been used in this research. The factors assessing the organisational performance are as follows:

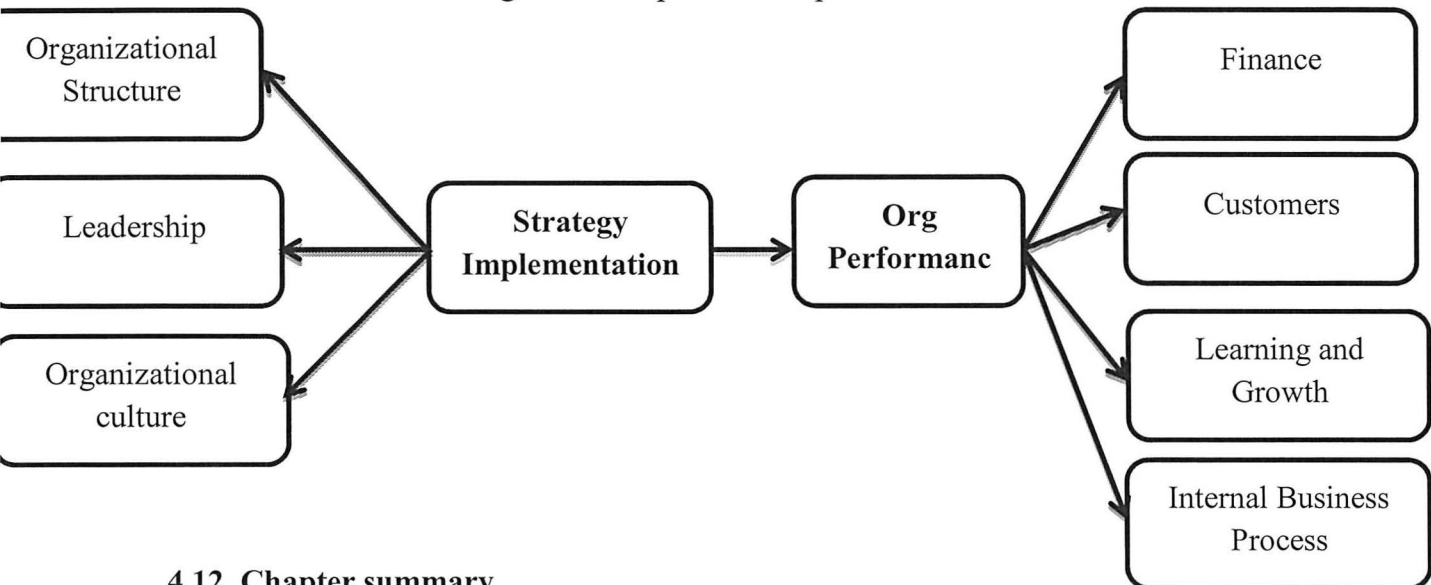
- On-time delivery of services with quality
- Public image and community involvement
- Employee motivation and satisfaction
- Reduced turnover rates
- Reduced costs per services
- Fund management
- Resource allocation
- Resource utilisation
- Communication between departments
- New services development success
- Research and development
- Improved outcomes for customers
- Develop employee competencies
- Employee skills, dedication, and alignment to achieve organisation goals
- Do you have the information and resources to do your job effectively?
- Organisation climate helps and motivates you to achieve organisational goals

4.11 Conceptual model

In order to answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives, the variables including organisational structure, leadership, organisational culture, strategy implementation, and organisational performance have been used in this research. The selected variables have been chosen after reviewing the literature in the strategy implementation subject field.

The relationship between the research variables is hypothesised in the research hypotheses. Figure 4.1 illustrates the conceptual framework of the research and the relationship between the research variables.

Figure 4.1 Proposed conceptual model



4.12. Chapter summary

The literature on strategy implementation has been synthesised in this chapter, and the inter-linkages between the main concepts in strategy implementation including structure, leadership, and culture have been discussed. In this chapter the main research variables have been identified and the research conceptual framework has been developed. This chapter also proposed the research hypotheses and the research model.

Chapter 5

Methodology of the Research

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology for the study. It sets out the various steps that are necessary in executing this study and achieving its objectives. It explains in detail all aspects of the research, with particular focus on all the key practical issues involved. The methodology of research consists of five major activity stages. First, to present the research approach within the literature, the chapter opens with a theoretical discussion on methodology and research in strategic management in public sector organizations. In this section, a detailed discussion on the methodology concept and research philosophy is followed by a discussion of research philosophies concerning the theories of positivism and interpretivism. Second, the research design and research process is delineated. In the third section, the sampling methods and data sources are explained. In the fourth section, data collection techniques, questionnaire construction and survey processes are described. In the fifth section, data analysis methods and statistical techniques employed are addressed. Finally, the chapter ends with the summary.

5.2. Definition of Methodology in Management

Perhaps before a discussion of the methodology of strategic management research in general and recent research in particular, it is useful to define research methodology. It has been argued that research methodology refers to the procedural

framework within which research is conducted (Curran & Blackburn, 2001; Remenyi et al., 1998; Saunders et al., 2008). It is an approach to a problem that can be implemented through a process. Accordingly, it has been argued (Boxter & Jack, 2008; Crandel et al., 2012), that methodology is a set of the general principles behind the research, whereas the methods are the practical techniques used to undertake such research. Thus, methodology provides a link between theory and technique. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) defined scientific methodology as a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. Such a system is neither unchangeable nor infallible. The rules are updated and procedures improved constantly; scientists look for new means of observations, analyses, logical inferences, and generalizations. The methodology of social science has evolved slowly (Blumberg et al, 2008; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Within this evolution, the continuous interchange of ideas, information and criticism made it possible to firmly establish, or institutionalise, commonly accepted rules and procedures and to develop corresponding methods and techniques. Methodology provides rules for communication. A major function of methodology is to facilitate communication between researchers who have shared or want to share common experiences. In addition, methodology provides rules for reasoning (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996).

5.2.1. Positivistic Approach to Research Methodology

One of the main first things to do when selecting the methodology for a particular study is deciding what approach is more appropriate for the study, positivism or interpretivism. It has been argued (May, 1997) that, the “aim of positivism is to collect and assemble data on the social world from which we can generalise and explain human behaviour through the set of our theories” (p. 10). To consider the importance of the positivistic approach in management studies, it is useful to review the nature of social science. All theories of organisations are based upon a philosophy of science and a theory of society (Burrell & Morgan, 1993; Karami, 2011). Smith argued that the purpose of science is to develop laws. To develop a scientific law, the researcher starts from the observation of a particular set of objects and looks for regularities. A scientific law, which is one of general assumptions of positivism, is a general statement that describes empirical regularities that occur in different places and at different times (Smith, 1998). Burrell and Morgan (1993) developed a scheme for analysing assumptions about the nature of social science and described three different types of assumptions. First, there are assumptions of an ontological nature that concern the very essence of the phenomena under investigation. Social scientists are faced with a basic ontological question of whether ‘reality’ is of an objective nature or the product of individual cognition. Ontology involves the study of theories of being, the questions we ask about what

truly exists (Gill & Johnson, 2010; Smith, 1998). Associated with this ontological issue, is a second set of assumptions of an epistemological nature about the basis of knowledge, about how a person might begin to understand the world and communicate this knowledge to other fellow human beings. Epistemology involves the study of theories of knowledge, the question we ask about how we know (Smith, 1998). These epistemological assumptions determine the polar opposite positions on the question of whether knowledge is something that can be acquired or is something that has to be personally experienced. Burrell and Morgan (1993) argued that there exists a third set of assumptions concerning human nature and in particular the relationship between human beings and their environment. This view tends to be one in which human beings and their experiences are regarded as products of the environment, a situation in which humans are conditioned by their external circumstances. The three sets of assumptions have direct implications of a methodological nature. Each one has important consequences for the way in which a researcher attempts to investigate and obtain “knowledge” about the social world. Different ontologies, epistemologies and models of human nature are likely to incline social scientists toward different methodologies (Saunders et al., 2008).

Positivism is a term that is heavily used in social sciences and philosophy (Barrat, 2011). In particular, positivist science requires empirical data that can be

observed and measured so that the various component parts can be compared for their relative frequency (Smith, 1998). It includes many approaches that apply scientific method to human affairs conceived as belonging to a natural order open to objective enquiry (Hollis, 1994). The driving idea of logical positivism is that, because claims to knowledge of the world can be justified only by experience, we are never entitled to assert the existence of anything beyond all possible experience (Hollis, 1994). Burrell and Morgan (1993) argued that most current descriptions of positivism referred to one or more of the ontological, epistemological and methodological dimensions of their scheme for analysing assumptions with regard to social science. They indicated that, we use the term 'positivist' to characterise epistemologies that seek to explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements (Burrell and Morgan, 1993). Positivist epistemology is essentially based on the traditional approaches that dominate research in the natural sciences. Positivist approaches, however, may differ in terms of the specifics (Burrell and Morgan, 1993; Mitchell and Jolley, 2012).

The epistemology of anti-positivism, on the other hand, takes various forms but is firmly set against the utility of a search for laws or underlying regularities in the world of social affairs (Bitekine, 2008; Hakom, 2003). For the anti-positivist, the

social world is essentially relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied (Saunders et al 2008; Baxter and Jack 2008; Karami, 2011). Anti-positivists, reject the privilege of the 'observer', which characterises positivist epistemology as a valid vantage point for understanding human activities (Burrell and Morgan, 1993). From this point of view, social science is seen as essentially a subjective rather than an objective enterprise.

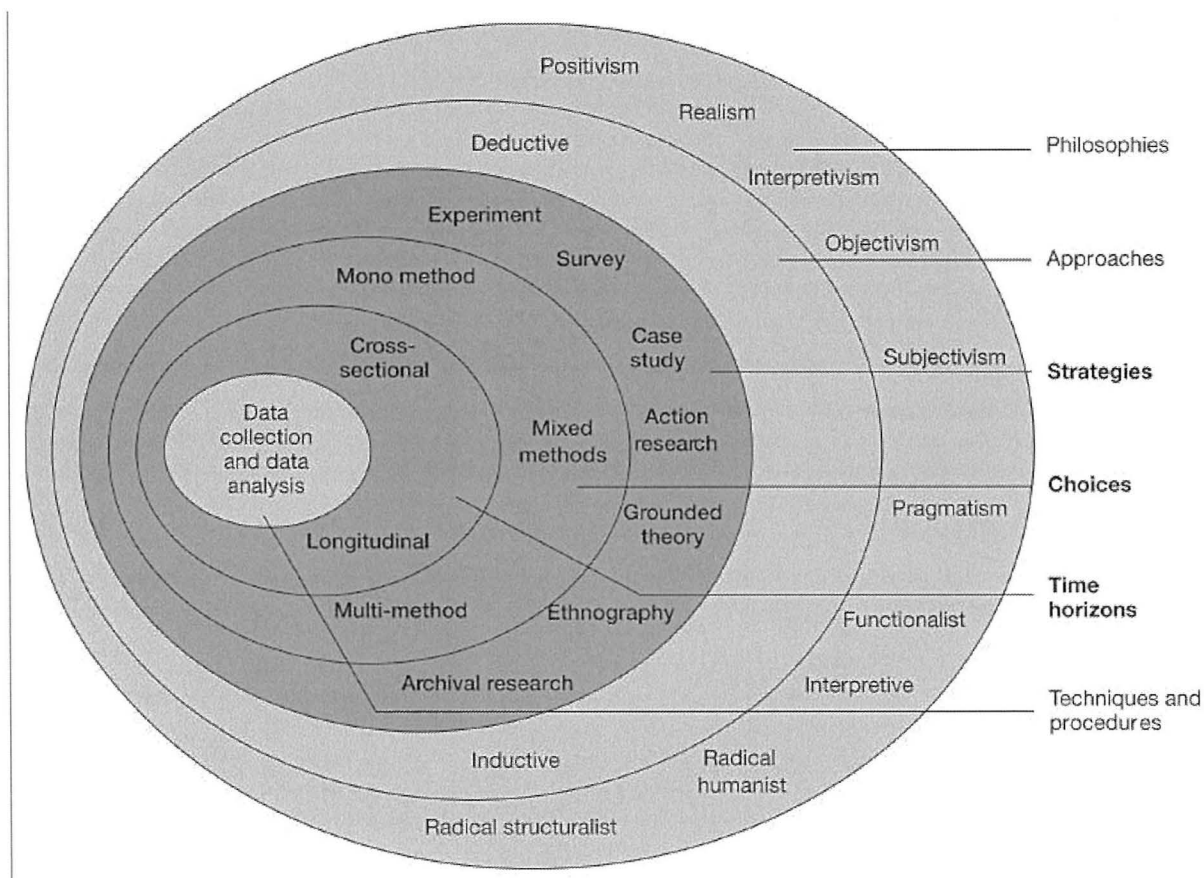
5.3. Research Philosophy

The main objective of research is to collect and interpret data systematically to find a reasonable answer to research questions (Williams 2005). Therefore, a researcher in the public sector management field attempts to find reasonable answers to specific research questions in a very systematic ways (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). The researcher should choose a proper method to collect the appropriate data and explain the meaningfulness of findings. Any research is a layered task that includes defining, clarifying, realizing, analysing and criticising (Bisbea & Malaguenob, 2012).

As discussed earlier, the researcher's viewpoint about the world is the base for adapting the research philosophy, identifying the research strategy and choosing

methods. Figure 5.1 illustrates the layers of the research methodology in management known as the research onion.

Figure 5.1. Research onion.



Source: Saunders et al., 2008, p.102

The two main philosophies in management research are positivism and interpretivism. Positivism originated in the natural sciences (Johnson, 2004). Researchers in the field of social science area have adapted the positivist philosophy. Positivists are concerned with sociology that is based on social facts and is a

scientific view (Karami, 2011). Social facts affect behaviours that are measurable, singular and objective. The researcher or investigator cannot change or influence them (Baxter and Jack, 2008). According to this philosophy, reality is independent of individuals and the researcher's objective is to develop theories through empirical studies such as observations and experiments (William, 2001).

Positivists attempt to discover relationships and how those relationships affect behaviours (Duckworth and Alwan, 2009, Gill and Johnson, 2010). Recently positivistic approaches have become dominant in management research. Positivist theories have become the foundation of anticipating, predicting and explaining the occurrence of social phenomena (Wheelen & Hunger, 2010). Usually, researchers employ quantitative methods to analyse data easily by numbers and statistics. However, under positivism, researchers are likely to use structured methodology, statistics, interviews and questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2008).

Interpretivist or anti-positivist philosophy is the opposite of the previous view. It was developed as a critique positivism (Blumberg et al., 2008) and argues that modes of social reality are embedded in our minds; however, they are subjective and multiple and the very act of investigating affects them. Interpretivism considers the micro-sociology aspects of a situation, thus it requires the observations of individuals in a society (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005).

According to interpretivists, there is a difference between individuals and objects. In contrast to the positivists, they argue that quantitative studies and statistics do not reveal the real meaning of human behaviours; thus, they do not consider sociology a science (Wheelen & Hunger, 2010). They are focus in-depth on individuals' actions, manners and interactions, providing an understanding of social phenomenon in a special context. Instead of using quantitative methods, interpretivism adopts a method that describes and explains the meaning of natural phenomenon (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). They favour the qualitative method, using unstructured interviews and observations. The main features of these two main philosophies are summarized in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1. Main Features of the Research Philosophies in Management Research

	Positivism	Interpretivism
Main features	Quantitative Objective Scientific Traditional	Qualitative Subjective Humanist Phenomenological
	Uses large samples Not a natural location Hypothesis testing Results with high reliability but low validity Results generalized from samples to population	Uses small samples Natural location Generating theories Findings with low reliability but high validity Results generalized from one setting to another similar setting

Source: Adapted from Karami, 2011

5.4. Research Approaches

Any research needs to identify and apply appropriate approaches which may or may not be revealed explicitly in the research design. It is very important to decide which approach is the most appropriate approach for the research (Crandell et al., 2012). Some approaches of research in the business and management field are explained in the following section (Barratt et al., 2011). In this section, the underpinning assumptions of the research approaches and their implications in current research are discussed.

5.4.1. Deductive or Inductive?

Deductive and inductive approaches are completely different, and understating these two approaches increases the efficiency of any research (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The deductive approach is well known in scientific research and involves developing a theory and testing it; it is associated with positivism. Inductive research is comparable to interpretivist methods and tries to build a theory (Blumberg et al., 2008). Bitektine (2008) explained deductive approach in five stages. At first, the deductive approach develops a hypothesis (mainly between two variables or concepts) using a theory. In the second stage, it describes the phenomenon on which the hypothesis is based and the ways of measuring the variables or concepts. The third step tests the hypotheses by collecting a variety of data; the fourth step examines

the outcome and discusses needed modifications. The final stage is modifying the theory in light of the findings, if necessary. Deductive research is known informally as the ‘top-down’ approach, meaning that it develops from the general to the specific, from theory to confirmation (Barratt et al., 2011). The findings and conclusions are based on the available facts (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005).

In contrast, the inductive method is much more flexible, because there is no need to collect data to test a predetermined theory. The researcher makes use of facts and tries to understand the context and meanings of events (Blumberg et al., 2008). Then, by developing hypothesis, the researchers define the theory as a research problem. The inductive approach is associated with the interpretivist paradigm and real life examples that require subjective reasoning from the researcher (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). According to Hakim (2003) and Bitektine (2008), there are significant differences between these two approaches, as shown in table 5.2.

This approach is also known informally as the ‘bottom-up’ approach, and moves from particular observations to theories; it is a generalization method. Saunders et al. (2008) stated that combining two approaches can lead to very reasonable and accurate results.

Table 5.2 Main Differences Between Deductive and Inductive Approaches

Deduction approach	Induction approach
<i>emphasises</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • scientific principles • move from theory to data • causal relationship between variables • quantitative data • a high structured approach • researcher independence from what is being researched • selecting samples of sufficient size to generalize conclusion • top-down approach 	<i>emphasises</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understanding of the meanings of facts and events • collection of qualitative data • a more flexible structure • researcher as part of research • less need to generalize • bottom-up approach

Source: adapted from Hakim, 2003

5.4.2 Quantitative or Qualitative?

Some researchers are willing to adopt the quantitative approach in their research questions by collecting quantitative data and using statistical methods to analyse them (Blumberg et al., 2008; Duckworth & Alwan, 2009). But others prefer to employ a qualitative approach and design a study to collect qualitative data and analyse them through interpretative methods (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). Many studies have applied both methods, a very common strategy in social science research (Barratt et al., 2011). Qualitative data is originally subjective because they are

obtained to understand behaviour and the reasons of behaviours. But the quantitative approach is objective, and the researcher is independent of the researched phenomenon (Hallebone & Priest, 2009; Mitchell & Jolley, 2012).

The quantitative approach is commonly used in social science, education and economics. It develops hypotheses and proves or disproves the hypotheses by mathematical and statistical instruments (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Effective quantitative research is repeatable by others and the results obtained should be the same which makes it generalizable (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). A comparison of the quantitative and qualitative research approaches is presented in Table 5.3.

5.4.3. Choosing the Research Methodology

In this research, a balanced approach of qualitative and quantitative methods has been used. Research into strategy implementation in public sector organizations should reflect the dynamics of change. In highly dynamic and uncertain environments, there is no single effective method of research. Hallebone and Priest (2009) argued that, although the qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches are different, it is wrong to consider them opposing methodologies. For some researchers, however, qualitative and quantitative research methods are simply

different ways of conducting the research, each one may be most appropriate to different kinds of research questions (Karami, 2011).

Table 5.3. Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods

	Qualitative	Quantitative
Objective/ purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides insight for generalizing ideas, setting research problems • To understand underlying reasons for current thought 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generalizing results from sample to population • Measuring various views in a chosen sample
Sample	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small numbers or samples • Non probability sampling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large numbers or samples representing the population • Probability sampling
Data collection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview/discussion • Observation • Indirect data collection • Participating 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire • Online questionnaire • Structured interviews
Data analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-statistical 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statistical
Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exploratory • Findings cannot be generalized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generalized result • Conclusive

Source: adapted from Blumberg et al., 2008

For instance, qualitative researchers may resort to some form of quantification in their work and use a survey; and to be successful, a quantitative researcher must integrate some qualitative knowledge into the survey's design and interpretation, or understand people's frame of reference (Oakshott, 2009). Different methods have

different advantages and disadvantages and can be mutually supportive. Qualitative research provides insights and understanding of the problem, whereas quantitative research seeks to quantify the data and, typically, employs some form of statistical analysis. While quantitative methods are necessary to test the validity and general applicability of research findings, the potential of in-depth quantitative studies decreases rapidly as the underlying conditions change in a dynamic environment (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005).

Research strategy implementation, therefore, requires the right balance between the qualitative and quantitative methods. In this research, the main approach is quantitative. However, the qualitative approach has been used to observe the phenomenon prior developing the data collection instrument. In public sector management research, the qualitative and quantitative methods have often been viewed as complementary rather than opposing with (Heide et al, 2002; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010). Therefore, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods has been used as a contingency approach in this research; however, the quantitative approach was the predominant research methodology.

5.5.Research Design/Strategy

Research design involves planning and the strategy and process of the research (Blumberg et al., 2008). Each design is different in terms of methods and processes

for the collection, measuring and analysis of data. Some designs are associated with the deductive approach and others with the inductive approach (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). However, the researcher chooses a strategy considering the nature of research, philosophy, questions, goals, resources and time (Crandell et al., 2012). All research designs are valuable; no one is superior to another (Saunders et.al. 2008). Researchers may make use of combinations of these strategies, such as using a survey as a part of case study (Hallebone and Priest, 2009).

The most applicable research designs in management field are as follows:

- experiments
- surveys
- case studies
- ethnographies
- archival research

Experimental research design. An experiment tests the hypothesis in cause-and-effect relationships (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009). It investigates the links between dependent and independent variables and whether the changes of independent variables affect dependent variables (Hakim, 2000). Also, an experiment strategy of research evaluates the size of changes and the significance of relationships between variables. It answers the why and how questions when used in exploratory or

explanatory research (Barratt et al., 2011). Researchers classify experiments into three main types.

Laboratory experiments. In laboratory experiments, the research process takes place in an artificial location not the natural location, for example, laboratory experiments in business and management fields can be conducted in classrooms (Crandell et al., 2012). In some fields such as engineering, psychology, and medicine, this kind of experiment can be the best choice because the researcher has the most control of the participants (Saunders et.al. 2008).

Field experiments. When the experiment is happening in its natural place, it is called a field experiment. Field experiments in business and management studies take place in natural locations such as office, shop, and factory (Hallebone and Priest, 2009). In this kind of research, the researchers has less control of the participants than in a laboratory experiment. On the other hand, it is more realistic than laboratory experiments due to the natural setting (Golicic & Davis, 2012).

Quasi-experiments. A quasi experiment is not a proper experiment but the researcher benefits from a naturally occurring situation. The researcher observes what is happening and is not be able to control or manipulate the situation (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). Also, the researcher has less control of the participants or the experimental conditions (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009).

Survey, Surveys are one of the most frequently used strategies in business and management studies (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). They answer the why, what, where, how much and how many questions. They are used in the deductive approach and descriptive research (Saunders et al., 2008). The reason for the popularity of survey among business management researchers is that it makes it possible to collect a large amount of data in the fastest and cheapest way. Using this strategy, the investigator can collect quantitative data and analyse it statistically (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). It allows access to information directly from people and organizations. On the other hand, the participants are aware that designing and finalizing is a very time consuming job by the researcher, therefore they are asked to try to answer very carefully (Barratt et al., 2011). The most widely used tools for collecting data using surveys are questionnaires, structured observations and structured interviews (Hallebone and Priest, 2009).

Recording the observations of participants' behaviours during a period is structured observation. Also, when the researcher asks standard questions face-to-face with participant, this is called a structured interview (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009). The most popular tool is using questionnaires in which individuals answer a series of questions that are sent by post or electronically (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). As it will be discussed later, there are some limitations to using questionnaires, for

example, the number of questions; if questionnaires are too long the participants will be bored and won't answer it completely (Barratt et al., 2011).

Case study. According to Golicic and Davis (2012), case study is a “strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple source of evidence”. A case study is different than a survey because the research takes place in context and if the researcher wants to understand the context in-depth the process will be interested in this kind of strategy (Yin, 2003). It mainly answers the why, what and how questions. The data collection method will be different from interviews, observations or documentary analyses (Barratt et al., 2011).

Ethnography. Ethnography is associated with the inductive approach. It describes and explains the social world. This strategy is not suitable if the researcher has limitations on time, because it is very time consuming (Blumberg et al., 2008). The process also is very flexible, because the researcher continually changes and improves the patterns of his or her observations. It has been said that the ethnographic strategy is very naturalistic (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). It means the researcher observes a phenomenon in its real context and there is no need to use data collection tools that may affect and or simplify the context. In addition, naturalistic methods are associated with the positivism paradigm because they employ scientific

methods (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Before deciding to apply this strategy, the researcher should ensure that there are certain groups who will answer the questions; this group covers the objectives of the research. Additionally, the researcher should be able to establish trust with participants (Gill and Johnson, 2010).

Archival research. Archival researchers use documents and administrative documents as a source of data (Golicic & Davis, 2012). The researchers evaluate, interpret and finally analyse the archived data. Archival researchers use the secondary data, because those data are collected for other purposes by organizations (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Because the data are collected from day-to-day activities and not for research purposes, the study demonstrates a part of reality (Hakim, 2000). One of the limitations of this strategy is that, sometimes, the existing data do not meet the research objectives and cannot answer the questions precisely. Therefore, the researcher must try to design his or her research in a way that to make the best use of existing data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

To sum up, this research employs a multi-method approach as the research strategy. The researcher has used case study design to identify the public sector organizations in Abu Dhabi and applied survey design to collect the required data. The details of the data collection process and questionnaire construction will be discussed later in this chapter.

5.5.1. Research Process

Developing an appropriate research process is a significant part of research methodology, because there is no overall consensus about how to conceptualise the research. The research processes considering the approach or strategy adapted must share basic and common fundamentals. It has been argued that (Battar et al., 2011; Blumberg et al, 2008; Sounders et al, 2008; Battar et al, 2011) the scientific research process is usually begins with theory and involves five sequential steps, as follow:

- Deducting a hypothesis (a testable proposition about the relationship between two or more events or concepts) from the theory.
- Expressing the hypothesis in operational terms (i.e., once indicating exactly how the variables are to be measured), which proposes a relationship between two specific variables.
- Testing this operational hypothesis. This will involve an experiment or some other form of empirical enquiry.
- Examining the specific outcome of the enquiry. It will either tend to confirm the theory or indicate the need for modification.
- If necessary, modifying the theory in the light of the findings. An attempt is then made to verify the revised theory by going back to the first step and repeating the whole cycle.

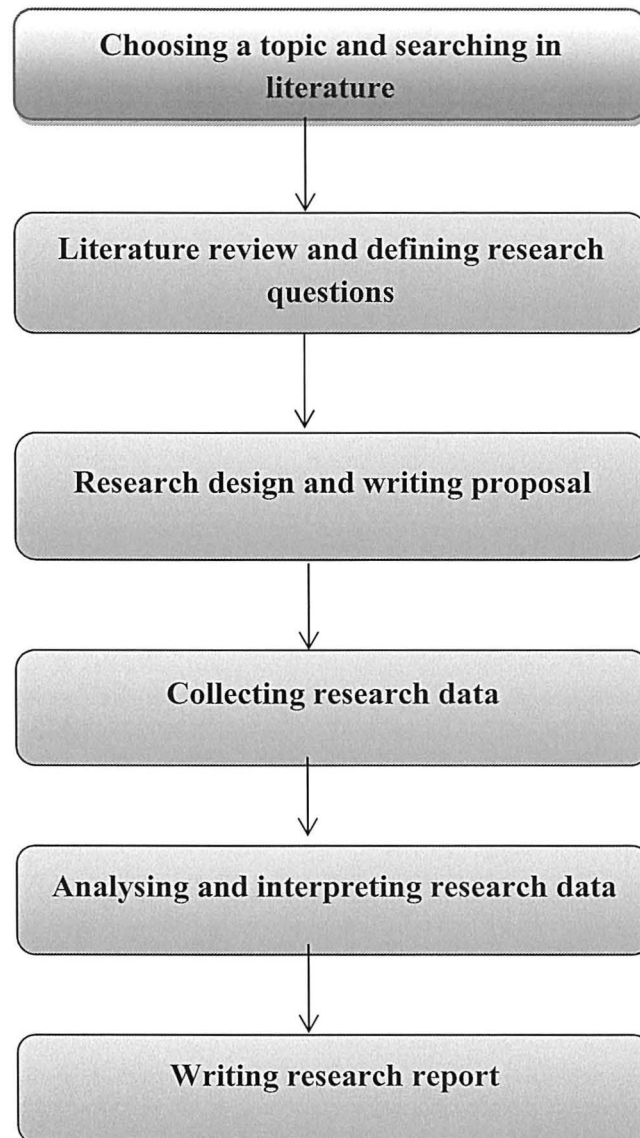
In this research, a scientific research process (Karami, 2011) has been applied.

The overview of the research process adapted in this research is shown in Figure 5.2.

Choosing the research topic is the starting point of any research. It can be general subject related to an academic discipline or the interested field of study of the researcher (Gill & Johnson, 2010; Yin, 2003). In this research, the topic has been chosen based on the preliminary review of the literature and practical challenges of implementation of strategy in UAE public sector organizations.

After choosing the topic, it is necessary to search for and review the literature on the selected topic (Golicic & Davis, 2012). The relevant information will give a broad picture of the topic and the findings of previous studies (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The existing body of literature gives an idea to researcher how to divide the topic into different areas. To study the literature, the researcher explores the secondary data from different sources such as books, articles, conference papers, professional journals, newspapers, media, internal documents of organizations, governmental reported statistics, e-resources and so on (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Figure 5.2. Overview of the research process.



Source: adapted from Karami, 2011

After synthesising and reviewing the literature, the researcher narrowed down the general topic to a particular research problem (Blumberg et al., 2008).

Usually after reviewing the existing literature, the researcher finds gaps and addresses

them. Also, academic papers include some suggestions for further studies in the relevant area (Golicic & Davis, 2012). The next step is to decide on research design, that is, to determine the paradigm or research approaches (Hallebone and Priest, 2009).

Data collection is the researcher's next step. The data collection methods are different; and according to the nature of study and the methodologies, they can be qualitative or quantitative. For example, the data can be collected via interviews or questionnaires (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

The important part of any research is analysing and interpreting the collected data. The data analysis method depends on the research paradigm (Yin, 2003; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). There are different data analysing methods depending on whether the qualitative or quantitative paradigm is employed

The last part of research includes writing the findings of research and reporting them. It is necessary to provide a draft and to start to write from the early stages of research. The report should be carefully outlined and divided into different sections (Hallebone & Priest, 2009).

5.6. Source of the Data and Sampling Methods

Sampling allows the researcher to reach conclusion about the undertaken social units by selecting sample unit that represent the population (Blumberg et al., 2008). A setting that includes all members of the social units is called a population (Gill & Johnson, 2010). The sample is the subset unit of the population, for instance, all students who own a Toyota in a university will play the sample role (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Sampling in business and management studies has many advantages for researchers (Golicic & Davis, 2012). Some of them include the economic advantages that reduce the cost of research. Other advantages include its high accuracy, because its quality is superior to the census method. Additionally, it makes the data collection period shorter (Blumberg et al., 2008).

Sampling techniques are divided into two main categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the study units are chosen randomly from the population, but in non-probability sampling, the researcher chooses the samples systematically and randomly (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

5.6.1 Probability Sampling

In probability sampling, each unit of the population has the same chance to be selected (Sakaran & Bougie, 2010). Therefore, the sample is a representative of

populations and there is an equal probability of being selected (Saunders et.al. 2008). Probability sampling or representative sampling is associated with the survey-based strategy. There are four methods for probability sampling (Oakshott, 2009). In simple random sampling, the researcher selects samples completely randomly from the sample frame. This is done by simply selecting random numbers (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Systematic sampling is very similar to simple random sampling, but the researcher adapts a systematic approach to selecting the numbers, for example, for selecting 1 to 100 samples from an organization's employee list, the researcher selects every tenth employee for study (2, 22, 32, 42,...) (Yin, 2003). Stratified random sampling is used when facing a nonuniform population; the researcher can divide the population into 2 or 3 strata, then randomly or systematically draw the samples from each strata (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009). Cluster sampling is also used in nonuniform populations; if the researcher wants to select the samples from a particular subset that are representative of that population, he or she will use this method. Before sampling, the population is divided randomly into groups called clusters. Then the researcher chooses a few clusters using simple random sampling and data is collected from the clusters (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

5.6.2. Nonprobability Sampling

In this method, the researcher purposefully selects some units of the population for study; it is also known as non-random sampling (Golicic & Davis, 2012). There are four different types of nonprobability sampling. In convenience sampling, the researcher selects the samples because it is easy to access them, for example, interviewing the people in the nearest shopping centre about a TV program. After obtaining the required sample size, the sample selection process will end (Golicic & Davis, 2012). In volunteer sampling, the researchers advertise for volunteers in the media or on bulletin boards of organizations. The process is similar to the random sampling method. The researcher selects the samples from the volunteers and can offer a reward for the participation (Oakshott, 2009). When it is difficult to get access to all members of a population such as an invisible social network, the researcher will use snowball sampling. In this case, the researcher makes contact with two or three members of a population, asks them to identify other members, and then may ask those to identify more members. In this method, the initial contact is very important for the researcher and it sometimes can prove very difficult (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009). Quota sampling is a non-random method very suitable for interview surveys. It is a type of stratified sampling, but the samples are not selected randomly. The researcher chooses the samples according to the

characteristics that he or she has in mind. In this technique, the researcher divides the population into groups and calculates quotas for groups (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In the next step, the researcher asks the individuals to complete an assignment which shows the numbers of cases in quota for collecting data. Finally, the data is collected to choose the complete samples (Blumberg et al., 2008).

5.6.3. Sampling Method for this Study

In this study, the sample was chosen by using the stratified random sampling method. The sample of this research includes the following organizations operating in the public sector in Abu Dhabi.

- Abu Dhabi Education Council
- Family Development Association
- Abu Dhabi Environment Authority
- Department of Economic Development
- Abu Dhabi Tourism Authority
- Abu Dhabi Emiratization Council
- Transportation Department
- Western Region Development Council
- Finance Department

Depending on the size of the organization, a representative sample of up to 300 questionnaires were sent to the organizations, and 157 useable questionnaires were returned to the researcher. Table 5.4 illustrates the organizations and the sample.

5.7.Data Collection Methods

To test the hypothesis and answer the research questions data is gathered. The source of the data can be primary or secondary. First-hand and original information that the researcher obtains is called primary data (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). Secondary data are second-hand and published data that has already been gathered by other researchers (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Individuals, focus groups, original documents and respondents are sources of primary data. Secondary sources include governmental published documents, organizations' archived data, media, websites, and the Internet (Oakshott, 2009).

Data collection sources are different and the data collection methods are variable in different settings. The main data collection method to gather primary data are interviews, questionnaires and observation methods (Oakshott, 2009). These methods are discussed below.

5.7.1 Interview

One of data collection methods most often used by researchers is the interview. The interview is a useful data collection method by which the researcher

can explore and come to understand the common feelings, attitudes and opinions of people (Crandell et al., 2012).

Karami (2011) defined interview as “a method for collecting primary data in which a sample of interviewees are asked questions to find out what they think, do or feel” (p. 315). An interview can be conducted in different ways such as face-to-face, by telephone, computer-assisted or through electronic media. Interviews can be structured or unstructured depending on the researcher’s strategies for asking questions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Table 5.4. The Organizations and the Sample of the Study

Name of the Organization	Sample Frequency	Received questionnaires	Sample Percent
Abu Dhabi Education Council	23	13	8.3
Family Development Association	79	49	31.2
Abu Dhabi Environment Authority	71	42	26.8
Department of Economic Development	8	3	1.9
Abu Dhabi Tourism Authority	17	9	5.7
Abu Dhabi Emiratization Council	21	8	5.1
Transportation Department	16	6	3.8
Western Region Development Council	27	6	3.8
Finance Department	38	21	13.4
Total	300	157	100.0

Unstructured interviews. In unstructured interviews, the researcher has not prepared or designed questions before the interview (Gill and Johnson, 2010). The questions are open-ended and usually the interview is one-to-one. This kind of interview is very time consuming; sometimes there are two interviewers to ensure that all issues are exactly noted, controlled and recorded (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). Depending on the topic and levels of respondents—for example, employees of different education levels—the variety of questions may be greater. The questions could be different, because the interviewer wants to get an in-depth understanding of respondents' opinions and thoughts (Oakshott, 2009). After the interview, an immediate review and the taking of note is necessary, because the interviewer may forget the important issues. In all kinds of interviews, the interviewer should ask the permission of the interviewee to record answers, at the end of the interview, the researcher should also express thanks and appreciation to the interviewee (Gill and Johnson, 2010).

Structured interview. This is a kind of interview in which the questions are closed and the set of questions are prepared with predetermined answers in mind (Oakshott, 2009). Sometimes there are open-ended questions as well to encourage the respondents to answer in his or her own thoughts and words (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In some cases, in addition to pre-prepared questions by interviewer, the

respondents are asked to add some questions of their own if they wish; this is called a semi-structured interview. In such a case, the interviewer can obtain detailed information about a particular subject or explore new issues. Structured interviews can be conducted personally, by telephone, electronic media and so on (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In large research projects, many interviewers are needed and structured interviews help the researcher ensure that the questions do not change and the gathered data are valid. Using unstructured interviews under such circumstances can lead to many problems (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005; Duckworth & Alwan, 2009).

In all kinds of interviews, the interviewer should not use unfamiliar or specialist words or phrases that may make it difficult for the interviewee to understand. Additionally, if the participants are likely to discuss very sensitive or confidential information the interviewer should not ask for permission to record (Oakshott, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The interview is a method that involves the gathering of data through direct verbal interaction with individuals. In this sense, it differs widely from the questionnaire. It is commonly agreed that interviewing is time consuming and costly; nevertheless, the process usually produces good response rates (Karami, 2011; Robson, 1997). Interviewing allows flexibility and adaptability in the process of eliciting information from people (Hakim, 2003; Robson 1993). Although the

interview allows more flexibility, such flexibility can lead to bias in the way questions are asked, prompts given, and answers recorded. Gibbs (2002) argued that the sources of bias lie in the personalities of both interviewer and interviewee. The interviewer's reactions to the respondents can create a significant effect and this can influence responses. The problem highlights the difficulties of ensuring validity and reliability in the interviewing process. In this research, prior to the field work, a series of interviews with the managers in public sector organizations in Abu Dhabi were conducted. The rationale for conducting these interviews was to get a clearer picture of the research context and identify key issues and challenges in the implementation of strategies in the public sector in Abu Dhabi.

5.7.2 Observation

Observation is a data collection method that does not involve asking questions of participants. Researchers observe people's behaviours and activities in natural locations such as a workplace or laboratory (Saunders et.al. 2008). Because most observations take place in natural locations, individuals' body language, emotions, behaviours, facial expressions, habits and all other activities are observed and recorded. The researcher is either a non-participant or a participant observer (Barratt et al., 2011; Mitchell & Jolley, 2012).

Non-participant observer. In this method, the researcher does not have any impact on participants during the observation process. The researcher is not an integral part of system as data are collected (Blumberg, 2008; Crandell et al., 2012). For example, the researcher will watch and record the behaviours and activities of employees and managers in an organization (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). By taking notes and recording activities for several days, the researcher generalizes observations about how managers and employees behave (Saunders et.al. 2008). By analysing and interpreting the data systematically, the researcher finalizes the findings. Because the researcher has to be physically present at the observation location, this method is very time consuming (Golicic & Davis, 2012).

Participant observer. In this method, the researcher has an active role and becomes a part of a team at the research location. For example, to find out about the organizational culture, the researcher enters the organization as an employee (Mitchell and Jolley, 2012).

Observational methods may also be used when persons are unwilling to express themselves verbally (Bitektine, 2008; Gibbs, 2002; Karami, 2011). This is not to imply that observation is an easy or trouble-free option. There is a major issue concerning the extent to which an observer affects the situation under observation. There is also the very practical problem with observation in that it also tends to be

time consuming (Saunders et al, 2008). Based on the literature, there very few footprints of observation as a data collection method in management studies. Therefore, in this research observation has not been used as a data collection instrument.

5.7.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is the most widely used data collection instrument in management research. A questionnaire is a set of prepared questions with predetermined possible answers to elicit a particular kind of information from participants (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The questionnaire is a very common research instrument and widely used for data collection in survey methods (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Questionnaires can be distributed in a variety of methods. These methods are discussed in detail below.

Postal questionnaire: The postal questionnaire is the most the common and easiest method of sending questionnaires to participants. In this case, a cover letter with the questionnaire should be sent to the samples (Blumberg, 2008). This is the easiest way of distributing questionnaires, but it is not the cheapest or the fastest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). It is a very suitable instrument when there is a need to

cover a large geographic area (Saunders et.al. 2008). The samples will answer the questions in a convenient place such as the office or home and will return the questionnaires by mail (Golicic & Davis, 2012). Also, in most cases, the free post envelopes are sent with the questionnaires. In the large samples, getting the postal addresses, printing, signing, folding, stamping and sealing is costly and very time consuming. One of the disadvantages of this method is the low response rate (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005; Mitchell & Jolley, 2012).

Telephone questionnaire. The telephone questionnaire is also is a very common method to collect data in management research. Compared with face-to-face interviews, it is cheaper and faster (Gill & Johnson, 2010). But if the calls are international and there are a lot of questions that require relatively complicated responses the cost of the calls will be very high. Obtaining the desired numbers of samples sometimes is difficult, and the method requires a large number of samples to contact, which be time consuming to gather (Oakshott, 2009)

On-line questionnaire: Recently, this web-based instrument has become of the best and fastest ways to distribute questionnaires. Survey Monkey is one of the Internet-based tools that enables researchers to design questionnaires and email the link to samples (Golicic & Davis, 2012). This software conducts preliminary analysis of the collected data and produces descriptive statistics, graphs and tables. The data

can be exported to statistical software such as an SPSS spreadsheet and some other software (Oakshott, 2009).

Face-to-face questionnaire. It is possible to present questionnaires to samples in workplaces, the street, shopping centres, at home or any other place (Gill & Johnson, 2010). This is also very time consuming and expensive. Sometimes it requires travel to particular locations, but the response rate is very high (Crandell et al., 2012). Also, the face-to-face method is useful when there are complicated or sensitive questions, for which participants may need further explanation. It is very important to be aware personal safety issues when the interviewer presents the questionnaire at participants' homes (Golicic & Davis, 2012).

5.7.4. Selection of Data Collection Techniques

As discussed earlier, data collection methods have been grouped into three categories: observational methods, questionnaire surveys, and interviews (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). This study required collection of quantitative and qualitative data to facilitate comparison and hypothesis testing. The data had to be collected from a population in public sector organizations in Abu Dhabi. Therefore, it was suggested that a mail questionnaire survey and a follow-up a face-to-face questionnaire were the most appropriate data collection methods (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). The mail questionnaire was the main research instrument in this study. The survey was selected

as the data collection method because it was deemed superior compared to the other two methods. Observational methods are suitable when the phenomena of interest can be observed, relevant events occur within reasonable time and past events are irrelevant. In this research, many variables could not be observed. This made the observational method inadequate for the research. However, although the main data collection method was survey method, during the interviews the researcher did make observations in the organizations visited. In this research, in which secondary data such as the annual reports of the companies, company documents, or published materials were available, they provided additional information. Both questionnaires and interviews are powerful instruments for collecting primary data. For collecting quantitative data in management research, mail questionnaire is an effective instrument.

There were various significant reasons for selecting the mail survey as the main research instrument in this study. First, abundant information can be gathered through a structured questionnaire. Meanwhile, the data obtained can be complex if the questionnaire has been designed appropriately. Because the required information for this research not only involves challenges in the implementation of strategies in public sector organizations, but also include several organizations' characteristics, this tool would be the most useful for gathering information in an effective way.

Second, the topic of this research is sensitive. Other methods may encounter problems during data collection process and fail to gather enough quality information. In addition, the accuracy of the data can be ensured and the interview bias be can controlled by mail survey. Third, because of the large sample size, the information-gathering process can be very efficient if working under a limited time. Finally, owing to financial constraints, the mail questionnaire was the most appropriate way and economical instrument to conduct the survey.

5.8. Questionnaire Construction

Regardless of the form of administration, a questionnaire is characterised by three specific limitations (Malhotra, 1999). First, it must translate the information needed into a set of specific questions that the respondents can answer. Second, a questionnaire must uplift, motivate, and encourage the respondents to become involved in the interview, cooperate, and complete the questionnaire. Third, a questionnaire can be a potential source of response error. So a questionnaire should minimise response error. The researcher needs to be careful about the way questions are presented. In the present research, the questionnaire was structured in six steps.

The first step involved a decision about the information that was needed. It is useful list all the items concerning the information required. The conceptual framework of the research (see chapter 4) was the main guideline to list what needed

to be added to the questionnaire. Therefore, the data dictionary was used to include the subject areas in the questionnaire. These are as follows:

- demographic profile of the respondents and the organizations
- strategy implementation process
- organizational culture
- organizational structure
- leadership
- organizational performance

The second step was considering data collection alternatives. It was necessary to decide whether a survey was the best way of obtaining the information? Because primary quantitative data was needed, the researcher concluded that using mail and face-to-face questionnaires would be the most efficient method of collecting data. The third step was refining the questions and considering how the questions would be analysed. The fourth step was structuring the questionnaire. This consisted of considering the order of the questions and preparing prompts in case the respondents did not provide the necessary information freely.

Finally, the fifth was revising the questionnaire and finalising it.

The foundation of all questionnaires is the question. Survey questions may concern facts, opinions, attitudes or respondents' motivation or their level of familiarity with a certain subject (Karami, 2011). Most questions, however, can be

classified in either of two general categories: factual questions and questions about subjective experience (Sounders et al., 2008). Factual questions are designed to elicit objective information from the respondents regarding their background, environments, habits, and the like. Factual questions, which have been asked in this study's questionnaire, include such items as gender, age, education, experience and organisational position of senior managers (See Appendix 5.1, Research questionnaire). In contrast, questions about subjective experiences involve the respondent's beliefs, feelings, and opinions (Crandel et al., 2012). The main body of this study's questionnaire investigated senior managers' attitudes and perceptions about the challenges of strategy implementation in the studied organizations. Although the answers to subjective questions were more sensitive to changes in wording, emphasis, and sequence than answer to factual questions, different methods and scaling of the questions such as the Likert scale have been used for increasing the validity of the questions.

5.8.1. Types of Questions

A mail questionnaire is a self-administrated, so the questions must be simple and detailed instructions must be provided to help the respondents to answer the questions. Questions can be either open-ended or close-ended. The type of question chosen has implications for the type of evidence that can be obtained and therefore on

the method of analysis of the evidence (Bitektine, 2008). Because open-ended questions require the respondents to be articulate and willing to spend time on providing full answers to the questions, the researcher decided to use close-ended questions throughout the questionnaire. Close-ended questions are difficult to design but the collection and analysis of evidence made the task of the respondents easier. In the next section, the types of the close-ended questions have were used in this research are discussed.

5.8.2. Measurement Consideration and Formats of the Close-Ended Questions

Questionnaire responses can be quantified by assigning numbers to the responses according to a given set of rules. It has been argued (Hakim, 2003; Gil and Johnson, 2010) that level of measurement describes the degree of accuracy and detail in a variable's possible value. Measurement can be made at three levels: nominal, ordinal and continuous (interval and ratio).

Nominal level. Nominal scales, the least sophisticated modes of measurement, are used to place variables into categories with respect to some characteristics. In this research some of variables such as gender, and respondents' managerial positions and educational qualification s were measured by nominal scale. For example, numbers were assigned to categories, '1' for male and '2' for female.

Ordinal and interval levels. Ordinal scales were used when respondents were asked for responses in the form of rank ordering. In an ordinal scale, the evidence is put into categories, and the numbers assigned indicate the ordering of the categories (Karami, 2011).

Question 7. Please indicate your highest level of educational qualification:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary school | <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Higher Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> Doctorate |

For measuring the research variables, including organizational structure, culture, leadership and performance, the respondents were asked to rate the degree of emphasis or importance of each of the variables using a 5-point Likert scale.

Organizational structure. Overall, the organizational structure questions have been developed in a way to enable the researcher to identify two main types of organizational structure namely flat structure and hierarchical structure. For measuring the organizational structure, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with statements by choosing the responses that most clearly represented their view. Table 5.5 provides an extract from the questionnaire.

Table 5.5. Organizational Structure Extract from the Questionnaire

Statement	Strongly Agree	agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Agree
Your work would be considered routine.					
There is a clearly known way to do the major tasks you encounter.					
Your organization has highly stable and highly structured character.					
Your work has low variety and frequent exceptions.					
In your organization, people have loyalty to the organization rather than projects and teams.					

Leadership. For assessing the leadership styles of the respondents the Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been adapted. The respondents were asked to rate the leadership indicators from ‘not at all’ to ‘frequently if not always’ which is a 5-point Likert scale. Table 5.6 provides an extract from the questionnaire.

Table 5.6. Leadership Extract from the Questionnaire

Question	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
I talk about my most important values and beliefs.					
I seek different perspectives when solving problems.					
I talk optimistically about the future.					
I instil pride in others for being associated with me.					

Organizational culture. The next main research variable to measure was the organizational culture. Again, a 5-point Likert scale measured this variable. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with each of the

statements by choosing the response that most clearly represented their views. Table 5.7 provides an extract from the questionnaire.

Table 5.7. Organizational Culture: Extract from the Questionnaire

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
The organisation is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share what they have and know.					
The organisation is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to do and say what they should and take risks.					
The organisation is very result- and competition-oriented. What it is concerned with most is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.					

Strategy implementation. This section measures the success of strategy implementation in the studied organizations. The respondents were asked to rate the strategy implementation factors by choosing the response that best described their perceptions. Table 5.8 provides an extract from the questionnaire.

Table 5.8. Strategy Implementation: Extract from the Questionnaire

Statement	Poor	Satisfactor y	Average	Above average	Excellent
How effective overall do your organisation's strategies seem to be?					
How effective are your organisation's strategies in terms of increasing employee motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the organisation?					
To what extent do your organisation's strategies help all employees to develop					

their maximum potential?					
To what extent do your organisation's strategies appear to treat all departments fairly?					

Organisational performance. The balanced score card (BSC) has been used to assess the organisational performance of the studied organizations. Table 5.9 provides an extract from the questionnaire.

Table 5.9. Organizational Performance: Extract from the Questionnaire

Performance categories	Importance to long term success				
	Poor	Satis- factory	Average	Above average	Excellent
Customer					
On time delivery of services					
Public image and community involvement					
Defect rates and quality of services					
Employee motivation and satisfaction					
Developed employee competencies					
Reduced turnover rates					

The format of the theoretical construct measurement is based on previous studies, which mainly used 5- or 7-point Likert scale. In the present study, for the acceptance of statistical analysis, the 5-point Likert scale was used. Table 5.10 illustrates the measurement for each construct used in this research for each part of questionnaire.

Table 5.10. Construct and Measurement

Construct	Measurement
Organizational structure	5-point Likert scale
Organizational culture	5-point Likert scale
Leadership	5-point Likert scale
Strategic implementation	5-point Likert scale
Performance	5-point Likert scale

5.8.3. Pilot Study

To evaluate validity, the questionnaire should be pre-tested or a short pilot study should be conducted (Hair et al., 2006). Pilot studies help researchers to be sure of the appropriateness and to rectify any ambiguities (Saunders et al., 2007). According to Davies (2007), pilot studies are related to administrative and organisational problems associated with the whole study and the respondents. The aim of the pilot study is to find out possible defects, inadequacies, ambiguities and problems concerning the research, so that they can be addressed before actual data collection occurs. Researchers may make use of pilot studies to test the language and substance of their questions. Davies (2007) proposed that the more structured the questionnaire, the stricter the piloting process should be.

Participants were contacted by the researcher with an information letter that included consent forms. If respondents agreed to participate in this pilot, they received a questionnaire in a prepaid envelope and were asked to send it back within a month. In total 20 out of 30 questionnaires sent were collected. Designing an effective questionnaire that will yield appropriate data is a long process. An important part of this processes it to test the questionnaire on a group of people similar to the intended sample. The questionnaire was revised several times before it was ready to send to the organizations. There were several rounds of discussions between the researcher and supervisor. Further discussions were held with statistical consultants and other researchers in doctoral research workshops. The questionnaire was revised after each round of discussion. More importantly, the questionnaire was tested on senior managers in public sector organizations. Following a number of minor adjustments to the format of the questionnaire, it was ready to send to the respondents.

5.9 Ethical Issues

It has been discussed that in designing a survey research, the researcher should perceive the norms of the society because the relationship between the researcher and the respondents involves a series of ethical issues. The major issue in most survey research is the treatment of participants. Malhotra and Birks (2000)

suggested that the rights of the respondents and the responsibilities of the respondents must be taken into serious consideration in the beginning. They also emphasized that the researcher should design the study in such a way that there is no risk of violating the respondents' right to safety, privacy, or choice. The researcher also has no right to put the anonymity of the respondents in danger. Long questionnaires should be avoided because the respondents may feel bored and answer casually. Overly sensitive questions should also be avoided. The researcher must not bias the questionnaire in a desired direction. Finally, when making analysis, ethical issues should be considered carefully. Whether to discard the respondents who answered casually should be pondered over. Furthermore, the researcher should make honest conclusions and recommendations without involving personal biases.

Ethical issues were taken seriously in designing this survey research. The questionnaires were given to participants in the selected organizations with stamped return envelopes. They were administered anonymously so that the confidentiality of the respondents was protected. The respondents were informed that the questionnaire was for the purpose of academic research for the fulfilment of a doctorate program and that the obtained information would be available only to the researcher. Informing respondents of the purpose and nature of the study gains their trust and

makes them more willing to respond to questions candidly and truthfully, which help to reduce the risk of nonresponse errors and response biases.

In this study, the length of the questionnaire was moderate so that the respondents only needed to take about 15 minutes to complete it. Overly-sensitive questions that would invade the privacy of the respondents were avoided because respondents might hesitate to give honest responses, which would influence the quality of the research greatly. Finally, in this research, the data obtained was examined carefully. When reviewing the questionnaires, a few respondents with unsatisfactory data were identified, and these respondents were discarded or not included in analyses. Furthermore, conclusions and recommendations were made honestly without involving the researcher's personal bias.

5.10. Data Analysis Plan

Researchers who choose the positivist approach collect qualitative data. After collecting data from samples, the next step is to testing the hypothesis (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Before starting the analysis, the researcher should ensure that the data are complete, accurate and suitable. The quantitative data is analysed using statistical software such as Excel, Minitab, SPSS or Lisrel. Lisrel and SPSS are widely used in

business and management studies (Mitchell and Jolley, 2012). Each software has its own process that the researcher should learn how to use. To illustrate the results the researcher used descriptive and inferential statistics (Crandell et al., 2012). Descriptive statistics measure central tendencies such as mode, average, mean, median and standard deviation and present a broad picture of the data. Inferential statistics are the outcome of statistical tests, testing hypotheses and linking the findings to the samples or populations (Duckworth & Alwan, 2009).

5.10.1. Preliminary Analysis

To analyse the data and consequently test the hypothesis, the collected data was summarised using statistical graphs such as bar charts and histograms. In addition, various descriptive statistics including means, medians, modes, standard deviations, coefficients of skewness and kurtosis were calculated. The main reason of such analysis was to get a clear picture of how the different variables were distributed. The results suggested skewed and non-normal distributions. Regarding the reliability of the data, reliability analyses on measurements were conducted. Reliability refers to the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if measurements are made repeatedly (Wilson, 1995). The coefficient alpha is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale item (Burns, 2000; Malhotra, 1999).

Using statistical instruments for analysis data helps readers and researchers understand the results very easily. In the present study, the descriptive analyses were used. This consisted of calculating mean, standard deviations widely using charts and histograms. Testing hypotheses were accomplished using structural equation models and the calculation was conducted by Lisrel version 9.1 software. The results of the study and details of the statistical analysis are presented in chapter 6

5.10.2. Reliability of the Data

The reliability and structure of questions can be measured by Cronbach α , which shows the degree of the identity of the questions and the structure of questionnaire. Therefore, in case of high reliability, the Cronbach's alpha should be more than 0.7, it means that high reliability exists and if Cronbach's alpha is smaller than 0.3, it can be understood that there is low reliability (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

According to research data shown in Table 3.1, the Cronbach's alpha for all of the 76 questions is 0.96, which shows the high reliability of the research model. In addition, the Cronbach's alpha for the organizational structure related variables is 0.79, organizational culture is 0.88, leadership is 0.94, strategy implementation is 0.94 and for firm performance 0.95; finance, 0.92; customers, 0.87; learning and growth, 0.94; internal business process, 0.92. This demonstrates that all main sections of questionnaire scored high reliability. The results of the Cronbach's alpha

for the variables of strategic implementation and firm performance are illustrated in

Table 5.11

Table 5.11 Reliability of the Variables in this Research

Measured item	Cronbach α
Organizational structure	0.79
Leadership	0.88
Organizational culture	0.94
Finance	0.92
Customers	0.87
Learning and growth	0.94
Internal business process	0.92
Strategy implementation	0.94
Firm performance	0.95
Total	0.96

Source: survey data

As the table shows, the Cronbach α of all the measured variables including organizational structure, organizational culture, leadership, strategy implementation, finance, customers, learning and growth internal business process and firm performance is greater than 0.7. The results indicated that the reliability of the questionnaire and the inner identity of the questionnaire structure were acceptable. The high reliability of the research questionnaire shows that statistics analysis is feasible.

5.11. Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed a number of alternative approaches to the design of an appropriate methodology to meet the specific objectives of this study including qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, research processes, data collection methods and data analysis techniques. The chapter discussed the research methods, strategies and sampling methods of previous studies in strategic management area. Then it introduced the two major philosophies of research: positivism and interpretivism. It also reviewed the difference between research approaches and designs in the business management field. The discussion then focused on the data collection techniques and questionnaire construction. In addition, this chapter discussed the ethical issues and the data analysis plan.

Chapter 6

Descriptive Data

6.1.Introduction

This chapter reports the descriptive findings of data to create a clear picture of the data. First, the demographic profiles of participants will be explored. In the second section, the data regarding the organisational culture, organisational structure, leadership, strategic implementation will be reported.

6.2. Demographic Profile

This section presents the demographic information and characteristics of participants in this research study, such as their age, gender, position, education, and work experience. Nine organisations were invited to complete the questionnaire. Out of the 300 questionnaires that were sent out, 160 were received and 157 of these were usable. The response rate was 53%, and 52% was the usable response rate. The personal and demographic characteristics of the respondents, such as their age, gender, marital status, years of experience, education, and management training, are illustrated in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Profile of the Participants

Education Level	Secondary School	Diploma	Higher Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's	PhD	Total
N	2	4	7	86	42	16	157
P	1.3	2.5	4.5	54.8	26.8	10.2	100

Age	<25 years	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	>=65	Total
N	2	49	64	27	12	3	157
P	1.3	31.2	40.8	17.2	7.6	1.9	100
Work Experience	0-5 years	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	>=26	Total
N	16	38	38	32	9	24	157
P	10.2	24.2	24.2	20.4	5.7	15.3	100
Position	General manager	Executive manager	Director manager	Deputy director	Head of selection	Head of unit	Total
N	1	11	41	15	50	39	157
P	0.6	7.0	26.1	9.6	31.8	24.8	100
Marital status	Single		Married		Divorced	Widowed	Total
N	36		111		8	2	157
P	22.9		70.7		5.1	1.3	100
Gender	Male		Female			Total	
N	82		75			118	
P	52.2		47.8			100	

Note: N: Number of Respondents; P: Percentage

6.2.1 Gender of Participants

In the beginning, the analysis of data began with analysing the gender of the participants. The demographic information gained from our research showed that of 157 participants, 52% were male (N=82), and 47% (N=75) were female. There was a balance between female and male employees holding managerial positions in the

studied organisations. Table 6.2 shows the frequency of the gender of the respondents.

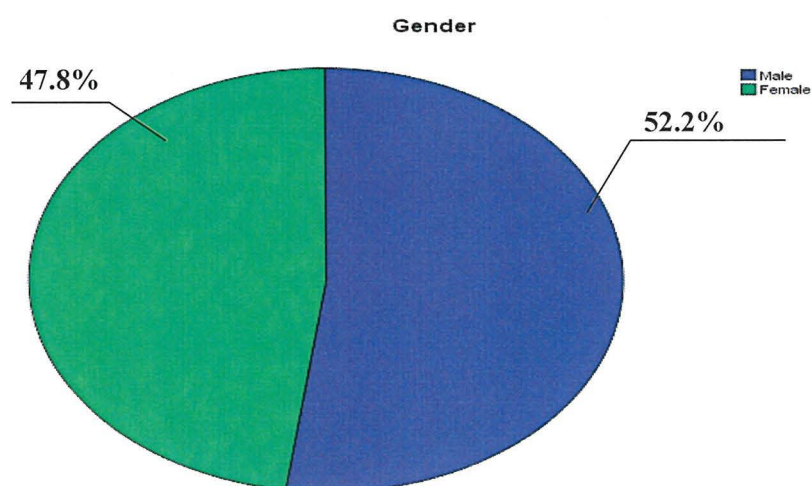
Table 6.2: Gender of Participants

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Male	82	52.2	52.2
Female	75	47.8	100.0
Total	157	100.0	

Source: Survey Data

Figure 6.1 provides a pie chart of the gender of the respondents.

Figure 6.1: Gender of Participants



6.2.2 Marital Status of Participants

A comparison of the marital status and the gender of participants using a cross table (Table 6.3) showed that the majority of participants (N=111) were married; 37 of 111 participants were female, and 74 participants were male. Thirty-six of 111 participants were single; 6 of

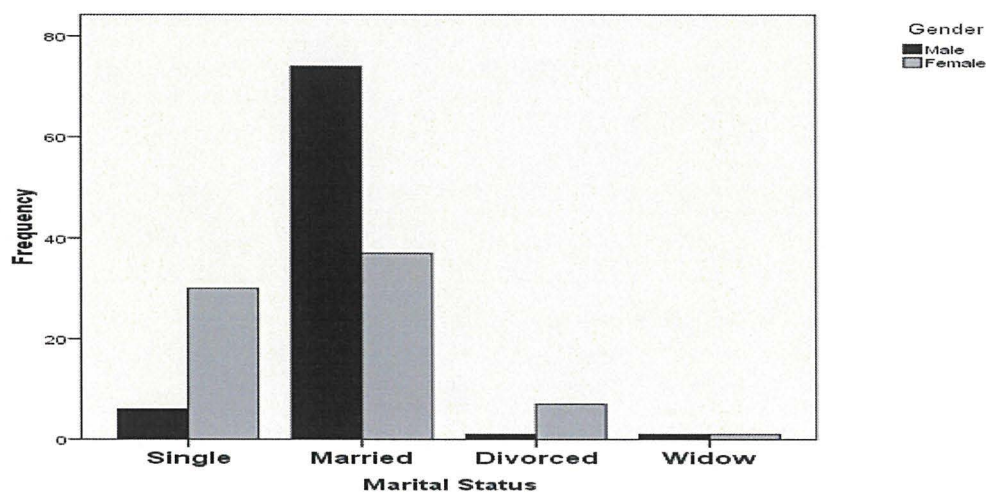
Table 6.3: Marital Status * Gender

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Marital Status	Single	6	30	36
	Married	74	37	111
	Divorced	1	7	8
	Widowed	1	1	2
Total		82	75	157

Source: Survey Data

males, and 30 were females. A few participants were divorced (male: N=1; female: N=7) and widowed (male: N=1; female: N=1). Table 6.3 illustrates the marital status and gender demographic information.

Figure 6.2: Marital Status * Gender



6.2.3 Age of Participant

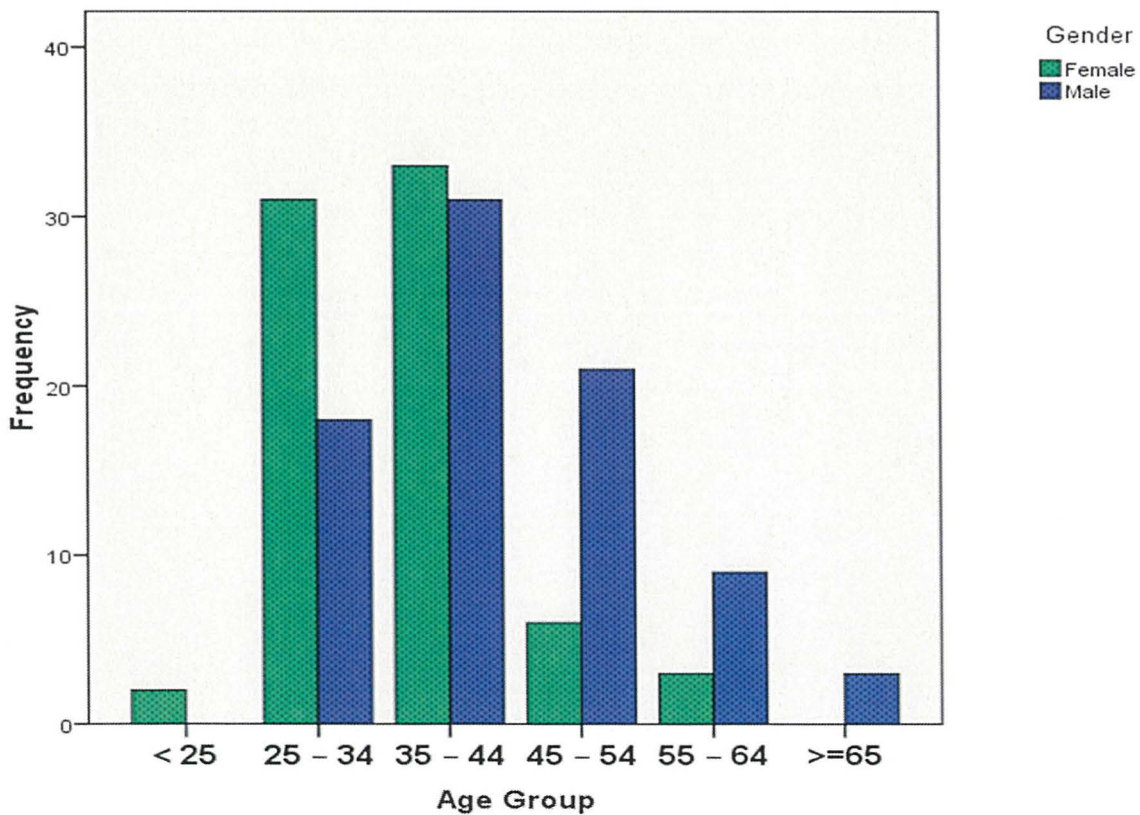
Our data analysis found that most of the participants were considered middle aged, as they were between 35-44 (male=31, female=33). The second largest category was the age group from 25-44 (N=49), which consisted of 18 males and 31 females. Accordingly, 27 participants were from 45-54 years old. Twelve participants (male=9; female=3) were between 55-64, while two females reported ages under 25 years old, and three males were older than 65 years.

Table 6.4: Cross Table of Age of Participants* Gender

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Age Group	<25	0	2	2
	25–34	18	31	49
	35–44	31	33	64
	45–54	21	6	27
	55–64	9	3	12
	>=65	3	0	3
Total		82	75	157

Source: Survey Data

Figure 6.3: Age of participants



6.2.4 Work experience

On the questionnaire, the work experience section was designed with five categories, and the participants were asked to select one of the categories based on their amount of work experience. Table 6.5 shows the results of their responses; 10.2% of participants had less than 5 years of experience. The greatest number of participants (24%) had between 6-10 years of working experience, and the same percentage had from 11-15 years. Twenty percent of the participants reported their years' experience as between 16-20. Still fewer respondents had 21-25 years in the workplace (5.7%), while 15.3% had more than 26 years of experience.

Table 6.5: Work Experience of Participants

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
<=5 years	16	10.2	10.2
6–10	38	24.2	34.4
11–15	38	24.2	58.6
16–20	32	20.4	79.0
21–25	9	5.7	84.7
>=26	24	15.3	100.0
Total	157	100.0	

Source: Survey Data

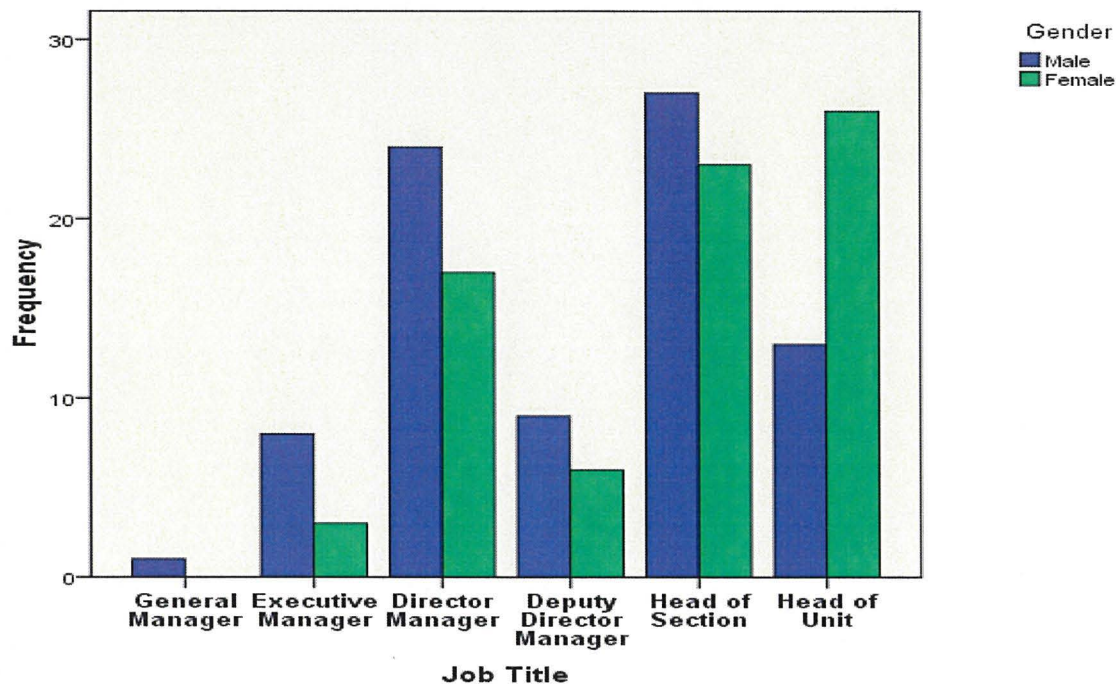
6.2.5 Position of Participants in their Organisations

Table 6.6 presents the organisational positions of the respondents. As shown in Figure 6.4, the majority of participants (N=50) were heads of their sections (27 males and 23 females). The second and third dominant positions were Director Manager and Head of Unit at 41 (male=24; female=17) and 39 (male=13; female=26) participants, respectively. Also, a few respondents were General Managers (N=1), Executive Managers (N=11) and Deputy Director Managers (N=15).

Table 6.6: Cross Table of Participant Positions by Gender

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Job Title	General Manager	1	0	1
	Executive Manager	8	3	11
	Director Manager	24	17	41
	Deputy Director Manager	9	6	15
	Head of Section	27	23	50
	Head of Unit	13	26	39
Total		82	75	157

Source: Survey Data

Figure 6.4: Managerial Positions of Participants in their Organisations by**Gender**

6.2.6 Education level

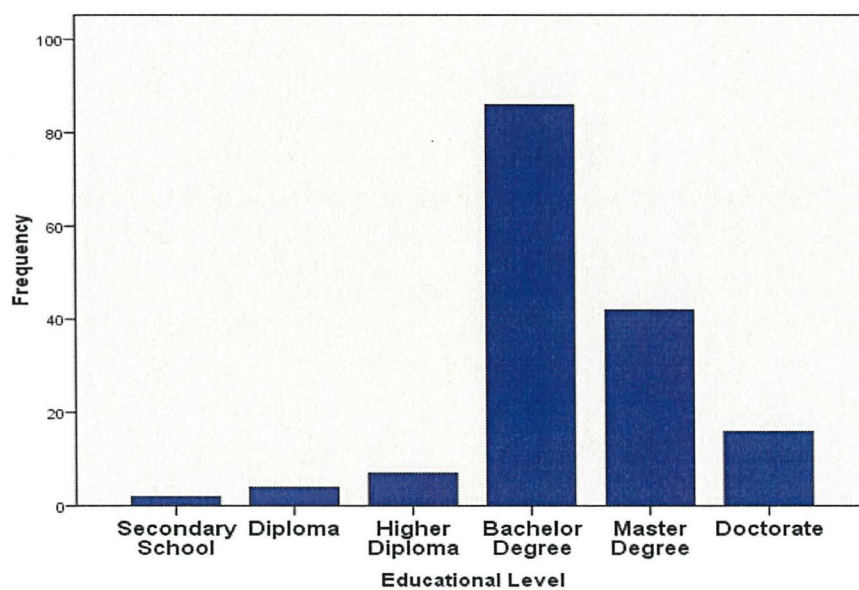
The participants were asked to select one of five categories (from secondary school to post PhD) based on their academic degrees. The response rates are shown in Table 6.6 and Figure 6.5. The majority of participants had undergraduate degrees; 54% (N=86) participants had a bachelor's, 26% (N=42) held a master's and 10% (N=16) had a PhD. Just 1.3% of respondents (N=2) had a secondary school education, 2.5% (N=4) a diploma, and 4.5% (N=7) a higher diploma degree. In all, 96.2% of the participants had academic qualifications.

Table 6.7: Education Level

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Secondary School	2	1.3	1.3
Diploma	4	2.5	3.8
Higher Diploma	7	4.5	8.3
Bachelor's	86	54.8	63.1
Master's	42	26.8	89.8
Doctorate	16	10.2	100.0
Total	157	100.0	

Source: Survey Data

Figure 6.5: Participant education level



6.3. Descriptive Statistics Analysis

The aim of a descriptive statistics analysis is to illustrate the main features of the distributed data, which are reflected by the mean and the standard deviation. This section will apply a descriptive statistics analysis for the following five research variables to reveal their basic distribution features: organisational culture, leadership, organisational structure, strategic implementation, and performance.

6.3.1 Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Strategic Implementation

To measure strategic implementation, three variables (organisational structure, leadership and organisational culture) were used in this study. Based on a literature review and the theoretical background, organisational structure and leadership were chosen. The results of the descriptive statistics analysis for organisational structure that were obtained using SPSS 19 are illustrated in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Strategy Implementation

Factor	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organisational structure	16	3.00	0.34
Leadership	20	4.21	0.44
Organisational culture	24	3.69	0.54

Source: Survey Data

As can be seen in Table 6.8, leadership had the highest mean (4.21); after that, organisational culture and organisational structure were next with means of 3.69 and 3.00, respectively. These results suggested that the role of leadership was more significant than the roles of the other variables.

- **Organisational Structure**

The first item for measuring strategic implementation was organisational structure, which was measured by 16 questions. According to a literature review, the structure of an organisation can be formal or informal (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2010). Therefore, this part of our questionnaire consisted of two groups of questions; the first 8 questions measured formal structure, and the 8 remaining questions assessed informal structure. The results of the descriptive analysis of formal and informal types of organisational structures are shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Strategy Implementation

	Factor	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organisational Structure	Formal structure	8	3.42	0.31
	Informal structure	8	2.98	0.44

A formal structure had a higher mean (3.42) than an informal structure. This result indicated that in this study, most organisations had a formal rather than an informal structure.

The participants were asked to select the position of their organisations in each question using a Likert-type scale with five answer choices from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. After collecting data, the frequency and percentage of frequency of all answers were measured via a descriptive analysis using SPSS 19. The mean answers for every question were also calculated. The results of our descriptive statistics analyses for organisational structure are shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Descriptive Analysis for Organisational Structure

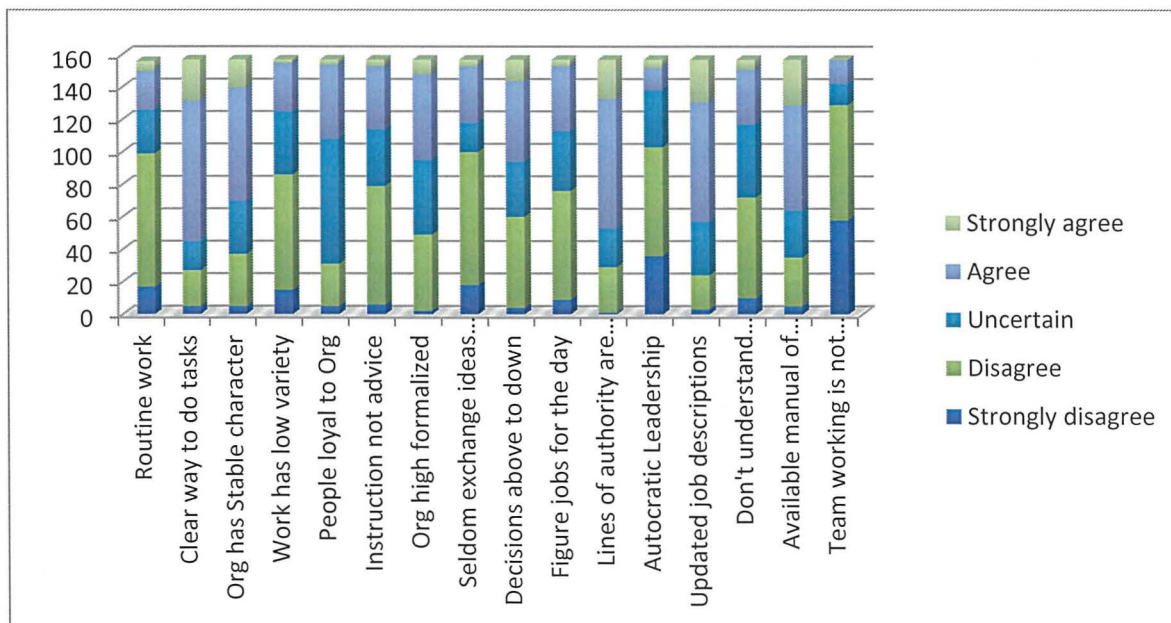
N	Strategic Implementation	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total		Mean
		f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	
1	Routine work	17	8.6	82	41.6	27	13.7	24	12.2	6	3	157	100	2.49
2	Clear way to do tasks	5	3.2	22	14.0	18	11.5	87	55.4	25	15.9	157	100	3.67
3	Org. has stable character	5	3.2	32	20.4	33	21.02	70	44.6	17	10.8	157	100	3.39
4	Work has low variety	15	9.6	71	45.2	39	24.8	30	19.1	2	1.3	157	100	2.57
5	People loyal to org.	5	3.2	26	16.6	77	49	46	29.3	3	1.9	157	100	3.10
6	Instruction not advice	6	3.8	73	46.5	35	22.3	39	24.8	4	2.5	157	100	2.76
7	Org. highly formalized	2	0.01	47	29.9	46	29.3	53	33.8	9	5.7	157	100	3.33
8	Seldom exchange ideas with others	18	11.5	82	52.2	18	11.5	35	22.3	4	2.5	157	100	2.52
9	Decisions made by leadership	4	2.5	56	35.7	34	21.7	50	31.8	13	8.3	157	100	3.08
10	Figure jobs for the day	9	5.7	67	42.7	37	23.6	40	25.5	4	2.5	157	100	2.76
11	Lines of authority are clear	1	8	28	17.8	24	15.3	80	51	24	15.3	157	100	3.62

12	Autocratic leadership	36	22.9	67	42.7	35	22.3	14	8.9	5	3.2	157	100	2.27
13	Updated job descriptions	3	1.9	21	13.4	33	21	74	47.1	26	16.6	157	100	3.63
14	Do not understand other's jobs	10	6.4	62	39.5	45	28.7	34	21.7	6	3.8	157	100	2.77
15	Available manual of policies and procedures	5	3.2	30	19.1	29	18.5	65	41.4	28	17.8	157	100	3.52
16	Teamwork is not essential	58	36.9	71	45.2	13	8.3	15	9.6	0	0	157	100	2.45

Source: Survey Data

For an organisational structure, the means for all items were higher than or near the average. Also, the frequency and percentage of frequency values for each item were in the range of “disagree” and “agree.” Therefore, the participants in the survey reported a combination of formal and informal organisational structure.

Figure 6.6: Bar Chart of the Organisational Structure



According to the results of our data analysis and the answers of participants (Table 6.10 and Figure 6.6), most organisations had a clear way to do major tasks, a highly stable character, an extensive structure, and a high degree of formalization. Decisions were made at the top and passed down to subordinates. Lines of authority were clear and precisely defined, as was the chain of command. Job descriptions were written and kept up to date for each job. A manual of policies and procedures was available and was used when a problem arose. Therefore, based on the results of this analysis, most organisations had a formal rather than an informal structure.

• Leadership

The second item for measuring strategic implementation was leadership, which was assessed via 20 questions. In this section, the leadership questions were divided into two groups to determine the effect of transformational and transactional leadership on strategic implementation. The first 10 questions measured transformational leadership, and the remaining 10 questions assessed transactional leadership.

The results of our descriptive analysis of both formal and informal forms of organisational structure are shown in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Leadership

	Factor	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Leadership	Transformational	10	4.37	0.51
	Transactional	10	4.07	0.46

As shown in Table 6.11, transformational leadership had a higher mean (4.37) compared with transactional leadership (4.07). This result indicated that in this study, the style of leadership in most of the organisations was transactional.

For every question, the participants were asked to select the position of their firm from one of five answer choices that used a Likert-type scale (from 1=Not at all to 5=Frequently, if not always). After collecting data, the frequency, percentage of frequency and mean of all answers were calculated through descriptive analysis using SPSS 19. The results of our descriptive statistics analyses for leadership are shown in Table 6.12.

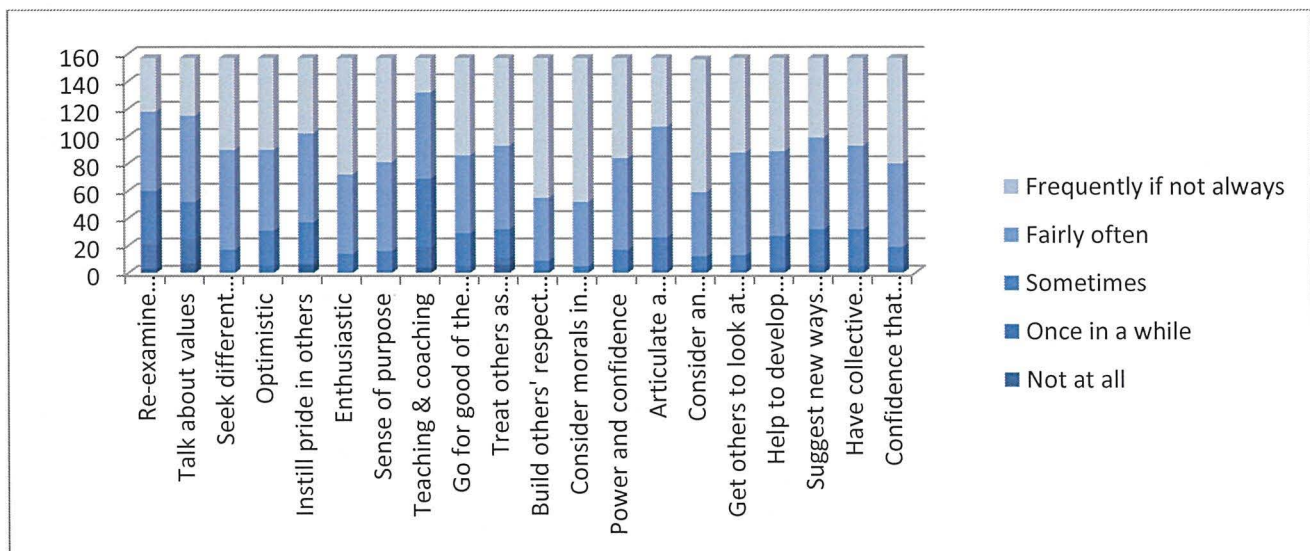
Table 6.12: Descriptive Analysis for Leadership

	Strategic implementation	Not at all		Once in a while		Sometimes		Fairly often		Frequently, if not always		Total		
N	Leadership	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	F	%F	f	%F	f	%F	Mean
1	Re-examine assumptions	3	1.9	18	11.5	39	24.2	58	36.9	39	24.8	157	100	3.73
2	Talk about values	7	4.5	18	11.5	27	17.2	63	40.1	42	26.8	157	100	3.73
3	Seek different perspectives	0	0	1	0.6	16	10.2	73	46.5	67	42.7	157	100	4.31
4	Be optimistic	0	0	5	3.2	26	16.6	59	37.6	67	42.7	157	100	4.20
5	Instil pride in others	6	3.8	1	0.6	30	19.1	65	41.4	55	35	157	100	4.05
6	Act enthusiastic	0	0	1	0.6	13	8.3	58	36.9	85	54.1	157	100	4.46
7	Have a sense of purpose	0	0	2	1.3	14	8.9	65	41.4	76	48.8	157	100	4.37
8	Teach and coach others	4	2.5	15	9.6	50	31.8	63	40.1	25	15.9	157	100	3.57
9	Promote the good of the group	1	6	4	2.5	24	15.3	57	36.3	71	45.2	157	100	4.25
10	Treat others as individuals	6	3.8	5	3.2	21	13.4	61	38.9	64	40.8	157	100	4.10
11	Build others' respect for me	1	0.6	1	0.6	7	4.5	46	29.3	102	65.0	157	100	4.57
12	Consider morals in decisions	0	0	1	6	4	2.5	47	29.9	105	66.9	157	100	4.63
13	Have power and confidence	0	0	1	0.6	16	10.2	67	42.7	73	46.5	157	100	4.36
14	Articulate a compelling vision	0	0	2	1.3	24	15.3	81	51.6	50	31.8	157	100	4.14
15	Consider an individual's abilities	0	0	2	1.3	10	6.4	47	29.9	97	61.8	157	100	4.53
16	Get others to look at problems from different angles	0	0	2	1.3	11	7.0	75	47.8	69	43.9	157	100	4.34
17	Help others develop strengths	0	0	4	2.5	23	14.6	62	39.5	68	43.3	157	100	4.24
18	Suggest new ways to do tasks	0	0	6	3.8	26	16.6	67	42.7	58	36.9	157	100	4.13
19	Have a collective sense of mission	0	0	5	3.2	27	17.2	61	38.9	64	40.8	157	100	4.17
20	Build confidence that goals will be achieved	0	0	5	3.2	14	8.9	61	38.9	77	49	157	100	4.34

Source: survey data

As shown in Table 6.12, the values of the means for all items were higher than average. Also, the frequency and percentage of frequency values for every item were high on the scale of *fairly often* and *frequently, if not always*. Therefore, it could be concluded that the leadership in our investigated organisations was more transformational.

Figure 6.7: Bar Chart of Leadership



According to Figure 6.7, the leaders of most of the organisations sought different perspectives when solving problems and also talked enthusiastically about what needed to be accomplished. They treated others as individuals rather than just members of a group and also acted in ways that built other's respect. They considered the moral and ethical consequences of decisions and perceived individuals as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from each other. Most

of the time, leaders suggested new ways of looking at how to complete assignments and emphasized the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

- **Organisational culture**

The third variable for measuring strategic implementation was organisational culture. Based on our literature review and the theoretical background of this research study, culture is one of the main variables that has an important role in implementing strategy. According to Quinn's Model (1993), there are four types of culture: Adhocratic, Bureaucratic, Adaptive, and Entrepreneurial culture. In this study, the organisational culture was measured based on Quinn's Model. The section on organisational culture consisted of 24 questions. The questions were designed using a Likert-type scale with answer choices ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree; participants were asked to select an answer based on their firms. After collecting data, the frequency, percentage of frequency and mean of all answers were measured with a descriptive analysis using SPSS 19. The means of each question's answers were determined as well. The results of the descriptive statistics analyses for organisational culture are illustrated in Tables 6.13 and 6.14.

Table 6.13: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Organisational Culture

	Factor	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organisational Culture	Bureaucratic	6	3.70	0.33
	Adhocratic	6	3.75	0.42
	Adoptive	6	3.40	0.35
	Entrepreneurial	6	3.92	0.36

Table 6.13 shows that the four variables were nearly all at the same level;

Bureaucratic (3.70), Adhocratic (3.75), Adoptive (3.40), and Entrepreneurial (3.92).

This result indicated that in this research sample, organisational culture was very

flexible but the dominant culture type is Entrepreneurial (3.92).

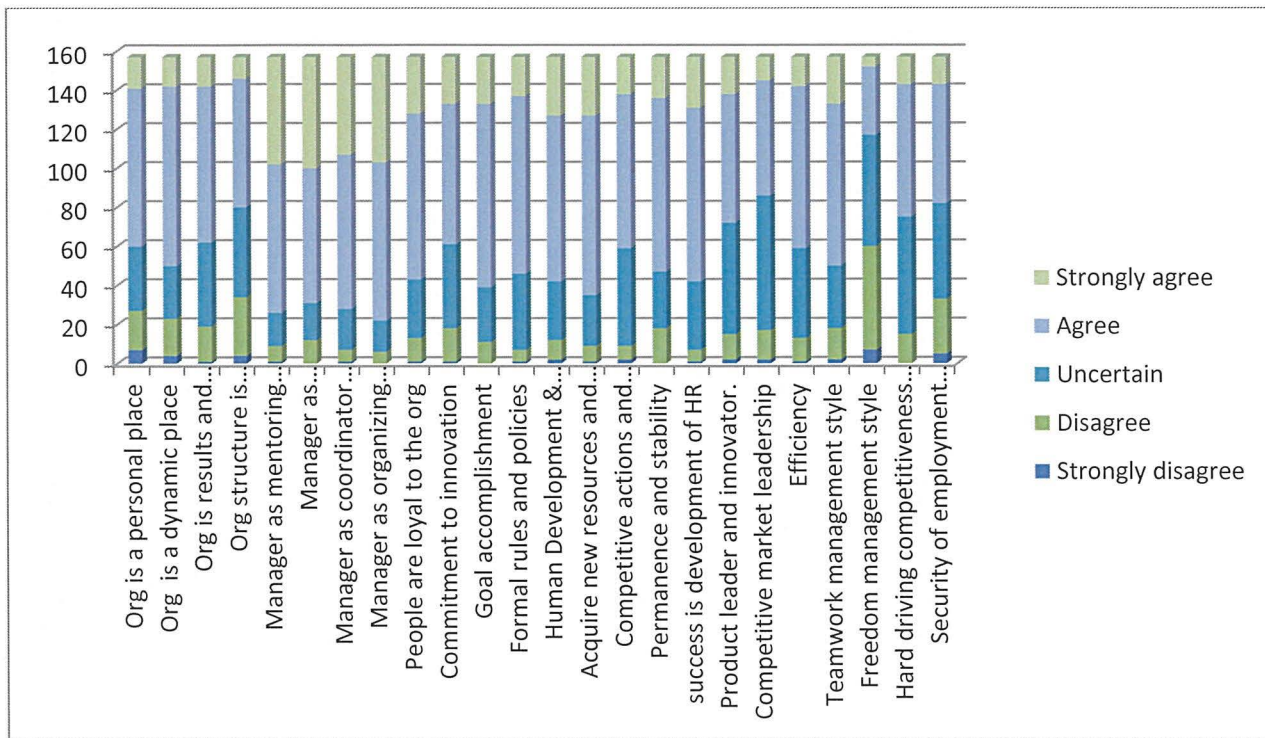
Table 6.14: Descriptive Analysis for Organisational Culture

	Strategic implementation	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total		
N	Organisational culture	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	Mean
1	Org. is a personal place	7	4.5	20	12.7	33	21	81	51.6	16	10.2	157	100	3.50
2	Org. is a dynamic place	4	2.5	19	12.1	27	17.2	92	58.6	15	9.6	157	100	3.61
3	Org. is results-oriented and competitive	1	0.6	18	11.5	43	27.4	80	51	15	9.6	157	100	3.57
4	Org. structure is controlled/formalized	4	2.5	30	19.1	46	28.7	66	42.0	11	7	157	100	3.32
5	Manager sets a mentoring example	1	0.6	8	5.1	17	10.8	76	48.8	55	35.0	157	100	4.12
6	Manager sets an entrepreneurship example	0	0	12	7.6	19	12.1	69	43.9	57	36.3	157	100	4.09
7	Manager sets a coordinator example	1	0.6	6	3.8	21	13.4	79	50.3	50	31.8	157	100	4.09
8	Manager sets an organizing example	0	0	6	3.8	16	10.2	81	51.6	54	34.4	157	100	4.17

9	People are loyal to the org.	1	0.6	12	7.6	30	19.1	85	54.1	29	18.5	157	100	3.82
10	Org. has a commitment to innovation	1	0.6	17	10.8	43	27.4	72	45.9	24	15.3	157	100	3.64
11	Org. accomplishes goals	0	0	11	7	28	17.8	94	59.9	24	15.3	157	100	3.83
12	Org. has formal rules and policies	1	0.6	6	3.8	39	24.8	91	58	20	12.7	157	100	3.78
13	Org encourages human development and participation	2	1.3	10	6.4	30	19.1	85	54.1	30	19.1	157	100	3.83
14	Org. acquires new resources and challenges	1	0.6	8	5.1	26	16.6	92	58.6	30	19.1	157	100	3.90
15	Org promotes competitive actions and achievement	2	1.3	7	4.5	50	31.8	79	50.3	19	12.1	157	100	3.68
16	Org. has permanence and stability	0	0	18	11.5	29	18.5	89	56.7	21	13.4	157	100	3.72
17	Success is in the development of HR	1	0.6	6	3.8	35	22.3	89	56.7	26	16.6	157	100	3.82
18	Org. is a product leader and innovator	2	1.3	13	8.3	57	36.3	66	42	19	12.1	157	100	3.55
19	Org. has competitive market leadership	2	1.3	15	9.6	69	43.3	59	37.6	12	7.6	157	100	3.41
20	Org. is efficient	1	6	12	7.6	46	29.3	83	52.9	15	9.6	157	100	3.63
21	Management encourages teamwork	2	1.3	16	10.2	32	20.4	83	52.9	24	15.3	157	100	3.71
22	Management encourages freedom	7	4.5	53	33.8	57	36.3	35	22.3	5	3.2	157	100	2.86
23	Management promotes hard driving competitiveness	0	0	15	9.6	60	38.2	68	43.3	14	8.9	157	100	3.52
24	Management offers security of employment	5	3.2	28	17.8	49	31.2	61	38.9	14	8.9	157	100	3.33

Source: Survey Data

The results of our descriptive analysis for organisational culture demonstrated that the mean was higher than the average for all items. Additionally, the frequency and percentage of frequency values for every items were high on the chosen scales of *agree* and *strongly agree*. Therefore, the means for almost all items for organisational variables were above average.

Figure 6.8: Bar Chart of Leadership

According to the results of our data analysis and the answers of participants (Table 6.14 and Figure 6.8), most of the organisations were dynamic and entrepreneurial places. People were willing to do and say what they should and to take risks. The organisations were very result and competitive-oriented and also were controlled, formalized and structured places. Formal procedures generally governed what people did. The managers of the organisations were considered to be mentors and facilitators as well as examples of entrepreneurship, innovation and risk taking. The management styles in the organisations were characterized by hard

driving competitiveness, high demands, accomplishment, security of employment, conformity, and steadiness in relationships.

6.3.2 Descriptive statistics analysis of firm performance

To assess firm performance, four variables based on the Balance Score Card (BSC) were used in this study: Finance, customers, learning and growth, and internal business process. The results of the descriptive statistical analysis of firm performance are shown in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Firm Performance

Factor	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Finance	4	3.58	0.38
Customers	4	3.60	0.57
Learning and Growth	4	3.66	0.65
Internal Business Process	4	3.54	0.43

Source: Survey Data

All levels of BSC were had higher means. Since the means of all dimension of BSC had no significant differences; Finance (3.58), Customer (3.60), Learning and Growth (3.66), and Internal Business Process (3.54). These results conclude that firm performance in this study was determined to be at an appropriate level.

- **Finance**

The first item for measuring firm performance based on BSC is the financial level, which consists of four questions. The participants were asked to choose one of five answer choices regarding their firm's performance (from poor to excellent). After collecting the data, the values of mean, frequency and percentage of frequency of all answers were measured through descriptive analysis using SPSS 19. The results of our descriptive statistics analyses for the financial element of BSC are shown in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Finance

Firm Performance		Poor		Satisfactory		Average		Above average		Excellent		Total		Mean
N	Finance	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	
1	Cost-per-service reduction	6	3	17	8.6	62	31.5	43	21.8	27	13.7	157	100	3.44
2	Fund management	6	3	13	6.6	50	25.4	50	25.4	37	18.8	157	100	3.63
3	Resource allocation	8	4.1	13	6.6	42	21.3	59	29.9	34	17.3	157	100	3.63
4	Resource utilization	7	3.6	15	7.6	36	18.3	56	28.4	41	20.8	157	100	3.70

Source: Survey Data

As shown in Table 6.16, all items scored higher than the average. Also, the frequency and percentage of frequency for every item were high in the range of average and above average. Therefore, it could be concluded that finances in the investigated firms were healthy.

- **Customers**

Customers were the second item of BSC for measuring firm performance, which was assessed using four questions. The participants were asked to choose one of five responses (ranging from poor to excellent) regarding their firm's performance that appeared under the questions in a Likert-type format. After collecting the data, the frequency, percentage of frequency and mean of all answers were determined through descriptive analysis using SPSS 19. The results are showing Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Customers

N	Firm Performance Customers	Poor		Satisfactory		Average		Above average		Excellent		Total		Mean
		f	%F	f	%F	F	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	
1	On time delivery of services with quality	3	1.5	14	7.1	41	20.8	59	29.9	39	19.8	157	100	3.75
2	Public image and community involvement	4	2	13	6.6	36	18.3	59	29.9	45	22.8	157	100	3.82
3	Employee motivation and satisfaction	15	7.6	16	8.1	33	16.8	59	29.9	34	17.3	157	100	3.52
4	Reduced turnover rates	15	7.6	20	10.2	54	27.4	46	23.4	22	11.2	157	100	3.25

Source: Survey Data

The mean values for all items concerned with customers were higher than average. Also, the frequency and percentage of frequency for every item were high in the range of average, above average and excellent. Therefore, the customers' satisfaction of the investigated organisations was in good condition.

- **Learning and growth**

The third item used to measure firm performance based on the Balance Score Card (BSC) was learning and growth. This variable had four questions for assessing firm performance. Participants were asked to choose one of five responses from 1=poor to 5=excellent according to their firm performance in a Likert-type format. The results of the data analysis are shown in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18: Learning and growth

N	Firm Performance	Poor		Satisfactory		Average		Above average		Excellent		Total		Mean
		f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	
1	Develop employee competencies	3	1.5	16	8.1	41	20.8	55	27.9	42	21.3	157	100	3.75
2	Encourage employee skills	7	3.6	15	7.6	31	15.7	69	35	35	17.8	157	100	3.70
3	Offer resources to do the job effectively	12	6.1	15	7.6	29	14.7	64	32.5	37	18.8	157	100	3.63
4	Provide a motivating climate	15	7.6	12	6.1	35	17.8	56	28.4	39	19.8	157	100	3.59

Source: Survey Data

According to the mean value, all items performed better than average. The frequency and percentage of frequency scores for every item were also high in the range of average and above average. Therefore, learning and growth in these investigated firms were high.

- **Internal business process**

The fourth item for measuring firm performance based on the BSC was the internal business process. This variable contains four questions to measure firm performance. The participants were asked to select one of the five answer choices that ranged from 1=poor to 5=excellent according to their firm's performance. The results of our data analysis are shown in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19: Internal business process

Firm Performance	Poor		Satisfactory		Average		Above average		Excellent		Total		
Internal Process	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	f	%F	Mean
Communication between departments	13	6.6	22	11.2	35	17.8	50	25.4	37	18.8	157	100	3.48
Success in developing new services	8	4.1	23	11.7	37	18.8	57	28.9	32	15.7	157	100	3.51
Research and development	14	7.1	13	6.6	47	23.9	49	25.8	34	17.3	157	100	3.48
Improved outcomes for customers	5	2.4	18	9.1	32	16.2	59	29.9	43	21.8	157	100	3.75

Source: Survey Data

Our descriptive analysis for the internal business process revealed that the means for all items were higher than average. The frequency and percentage of frequency scores for every item were high in the range of average, above average and excellent. Therefore, the internal business processes of the investigated firms were in suitable condition.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter the data have been analysed using SPSS version 19.1 to present the descriptive statistics, such as frequency, percentage of frequency, mean, and standard deviation, etc. These results helped to identify the main variables results and the type of leadership, culture, and structure in the organizations. It also concluded that the performance in those organizations was at appropriate level.

Chapter 7

Data Analysis

7.1. Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of data and hypotheses tests. In the first section, the data regarding the organizational culture, organizational structure, leadership, strategic implementation will be analysed using correlation analysis. Then the chapter will focus on analysing firm performance and strategy implementation. The strategy implementation and effects on firm performance will be discussed in details using SEM modelling. Finally, the chapter will end with a summary.

7.2. Correlation analysis

As previously mentioned, the aim of this study was to analyse the impact of strategy implementation on a firm's performance. There were four main variables involved in this research: organizational structure, leadership, organizational culture, and organizational performance.

(1) Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and Organizational Structure

In this study, organizational structure included both formal and informal structure. The results of the correlation analysis between formal and informal structure and strategy implementation are shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Correlation Coefficients of Strategy Implementation and Formal and Informal Structure

		Strategic Implementation
Formal Structure	Pearson Correlation	0.864 ^{**}
	Sig.	0.000
	N	157
Informal Structure	Pearson Correlation	0.697 ^{**}
	Sig.	0.000
	N	157

^{**}: Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level.

According to these results, the relationship between strategic implementation and formal and informal structure was positively correlated at the level of 0.01. The correlation between formal structure and strategic implementation (0.86) was stronger than the correlation between informal structure and strategic implementation (0.69). However, the relationship between strategy implementation and formal and informal structure was significantly correlated.

(2) Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and Transformational and Transactional Leadership

The results of the correlation analysis of leadership and strategy implementation are illustrated in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and Transformational and Transactional Leadership

		Strategy Implementation
Transformational leadership	Pearson Correlation	0.902**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Transactional leadership	Pearson Correlation	0.684**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157

** : Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level.

According to this analysis, transformational and transactional leadership had a significantly positive correlation with strategy implementation. The correlation between transformational leadership and strategy implementation (0.90) was stronger than the correlation between transactional leadership and strategy implementation (0.68). However, the relationship between strategy implementation and transformational and transactional leadership was significantly correlated.

(3) Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and Organizational Culture (Entrepreneurial, Adhocratic, Bureaucratic, Adoptive).

The results of the correlation analysis between the strategy implementation and organizational culture (Entrepreneurial, Adhocratic, Bureaucratic, and Adoptive) are shown in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and Organizational Culture (Entrepreneurial, Adhocratic, Bureaucratic, and Adoptive)

		Strategy Implementation
Entrepreneurial Culture	Pearson Correlation	0.704**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Adoptive Culture	Pearson Correlation	0.726**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Adhocracy Culture	Pearson Correlation	0.638**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Bureaucratic Culture	Pearson Correlation	0.72**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157

** : Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level.

According to these results; entrepreneurial, adoptive, adhocratic and bureaucratic culture were significantly and positively correlated with strategic implementation. The interesting finding was that the type of culture was associated with types of leadership. For instance, managers who argued that they preferred transactional leadership in the public sector were more willing to work in a more bureaucratic cultural environment.

(4) Correlation Analysis of Strategy Implementation and BSC Factors: Finance, Customers, Learning and Growth, and the Internal Business Process

In this study, organizational performance indicators included finance, customers, learning and growth, and the internal business process. Table 7.4 shows the correlation analysis results among finance, customers, learning and growth, and the internal business process.

Table 7.4: Correlation Coefficients of Strategy Implementation Performance

Indicator (Finance, Customers, Learning and Growth, and the Internal Business Process)

		Strategy implementation
Finance	Pearson Correlation	0.841**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	156
Customers	Pearson Correlation	0.705**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Learning and Growth	Pearson Correlation	0.674**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157
Internal Business Process	Pearson Correlation	0.736**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	157

**: Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level.

According to the results of this correlation analysis, the relationships among strategic implementation and finance, customers, learning and growth, and the internal business process were significantly positively correlated at the level of 0.01.

(5) Correlation Analysis of Strategic Implementation and Firm Performance

Table 7.5 provides correlations of the constructs and the research variables. The correlation matrix offered initial support for the hypothesis that firm performance is strongly related to strategy implementation. Strategy implementation correlated positively with firm performance at a significance level of 0.01. The dimensions of strategic implementation (namely organizational structure, leadership and organizational culture) also were positively correlated with strategic implementation at a significance level of 0.01.

Table 7.5: Correlations Analysis Results

	Mean	Standard deviation	Strategic implementation	Organizational structure	Leadership	Organizational culture	Firm performance	Age	Professional training	Years of experience
Strategic implementation	3.62	0.38	1							
Organizational structure	3.00	0.34	0.245**	1						
Leadership	4.21	0.44	0.519**	0.057	1					
Organizational culture	3.69	0.54	0.797**	0.217**	0.283**	1				
Firm performance	3.33	0.52	0.787**	0.007	0.229**	0.605**	1			
Age	3.04	0.49s	0.137*	0.158*	0.204*	0.06*	0.107*	1		
Professional training	2.86	0.383	0.30*	0.89*	0.183*	0.52*	0.67*	0.66*	1	
Years of experience	3.33	0.538	0.119**	0.210**	0.215**	0.059**	0.082	0.75**	0.112**	1

** : Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* : Correlation was significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

7.3 Factor Analysis

According to Biedenbach and Müller, (2011, p. 23), “The validity analysis aims to test the coinciding degree of the measurement content to the research objectives.” Generally, a factor analysis is applied when conducting a validity analysis. In this survey, the Bartlett’s Sphericity test and Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measures were applied before the factor analysis to determine whether the research variables were suitable for factor analysis. According to Biedenbach and Müller (2011), if the value of significance in Bartlett’s test is <0.001 and KMO is greater than 0.5, then the variable is suitable for factor analysis. In this study, the values of significance of the Bartlett test ($0.000 < 0.001$) and KMO ($0.84 > 0.5$) revealed that the collected data were well correlated and a factor analysis is feasible (Table 7.6).

Table 7.6: Bartlett and KMO Test Results

Test		Value
KMO		0.84
Bartlett Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	546.429
	df	21
	Sig.	0.000

Source: survey data

As seen in Table 7.7, the results of our factor analysis indicated that all 76 variables in our study had significant and high factor loading (FL) values ($FL > 0.6$).

Table 7.7: Summary of Variables and Factor Loadings

Strategy Implementation	Factor Loading	Strategy Implementation	Factor Loading	Performance	Factor Loading
Organizational structure		Organizational culture		Finance	
<i>OS1</i>	0.80	<i>OC1</i>	0.80	<i>F1</i>	0.83
<i>OS2</i>	0.83	<i>OC2</i>	0.81	<i>F2</i>	0.87
<i>OS3</i>	0.81	<i>OC3</i>	0.73	<i>F3</i>	0.86
<i>OS4</i>	0.78	<i>OC4</i>	0.78	<i>F4</i>	0.89
<i>OS5</i>	0.77	<i>OC5</i>	0.88	Customers	
<i>OS6</i>	0.83	<i>OC 6</i>	0.84	<i>C1</i>	0.88
<i>OS7</i>	0.88	<i>OC7</i>	0.79	<i>C2</i>	0.81
<i>OS8</i>	0.71	<i>OC8</i>	0.85	<i>C3</i>	0.83
<i>OS9</i>	0.78	<i>OC9</i>	0.83	<i>C4</i>	0.76
<i>OS10</i>	0.75	<i>OC10</i>	0.84	Learning and growth	
<i>OS11</i>	0.79	<i>OC11</i>	0.81	<i>LG1</i>	0.83
<i>OS12</i>	0.75	<i>OC12</i>	0.80	<i>LG2</i>	0.87
<i>OS13</i>	0.79	<i>OC13</i>	0.79	<i>LG3</i>	0.85
<i>OS14</i>	0.75	<i>OC14</i>	0.83	<i>LG4</i>	0.82
<i>OS15</i>	0.83	<i>OC15</i>	0.75	Internal business process	
<i>OS16</i>	0.77	<i>OC16</i>	0.82	<i>IP1</i>	0.79
Leadership		<i>OC17</i>	0.76	<i>IP2</i>	0.86
<i>LE1</i>	0.72	<i>OC18</i>	0.83	<i>IP3</i>	0.83
<i>LE2</i>	0.75	<i>OC19</i>	0.73	<i>IP4</i>	0.89
<i>LE3</i>	0.69	<i>OC20</i>	0.73		
<i>LE4</i>	0.80	<i>OC21</i>	0.81		
<i>LE5</i>	0.70	<i>OC22</i>	0.79		
<i>LE6</i>	0.84	<i>OC23</i>	0.81		
<i>LE7</i>	0.77	<i>OC24</i>	0.78		
<i>LE8</i>	0.58				
<i>LE9</i>	0.79				
<i>LE10</i>	0.76				
<i>LE11</i>	0.78				
<i>LE12</i>	0.79				
<i>LE13</i>	0.81				
<i>LE14</i>	0.74				
<i>LE15</i>	0.73				
<i>LE16</i>	0.83				

<i>LE17</i>	0.80
<i>LE18</i>	0.75
<i>LE19</i>	0.79
<i>LE20</i>	0.74

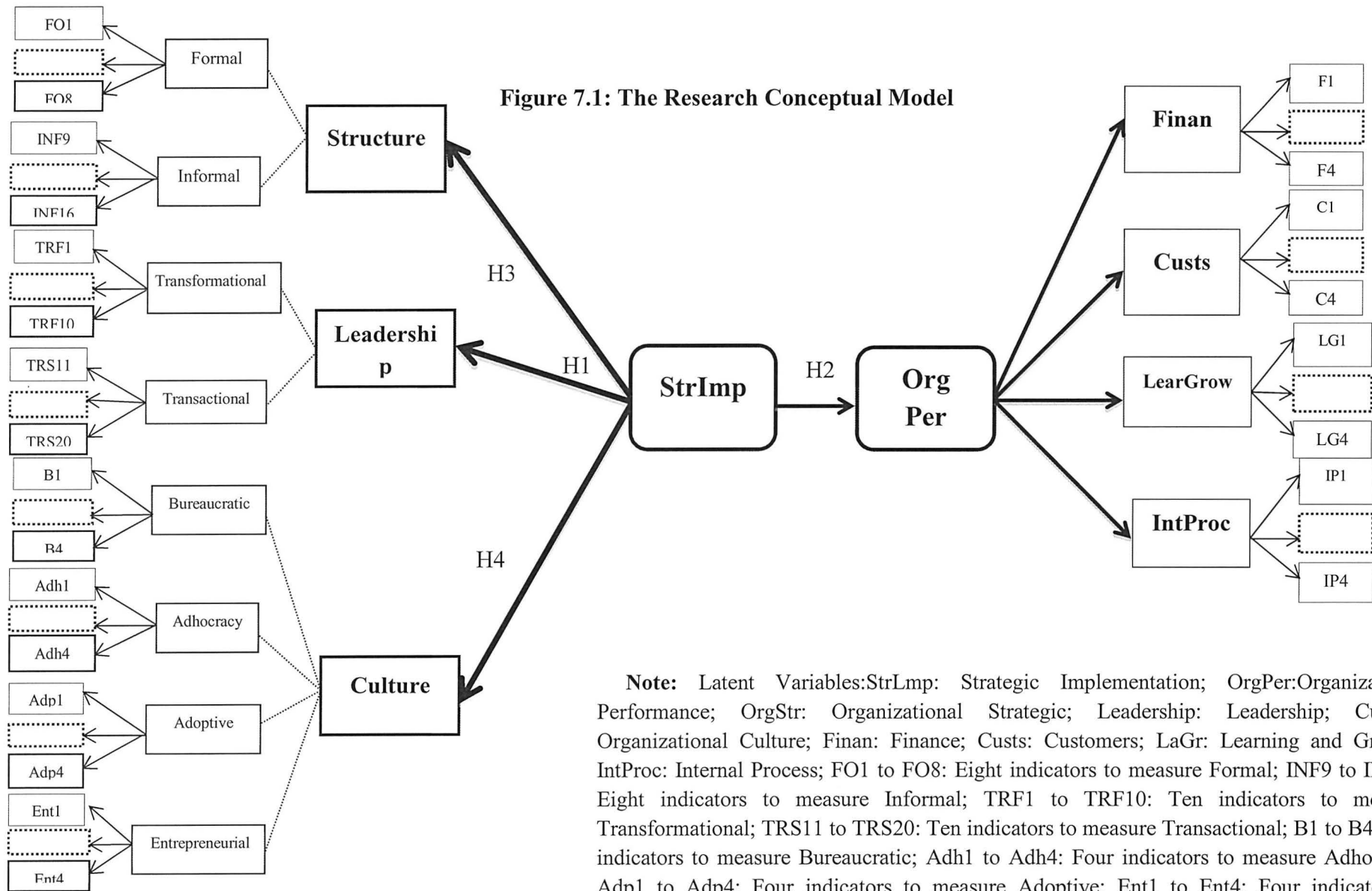
Source: Survey Data

7.4 Analysing Data and Testing the Hypothesis

The aim of this research was to analyse the relationship between strategic implementation and firm performance and the impact of organizational structure, leadership and organizational culture on strategic implementation, as well as the effect of four Balance Score Card variables (finance, customers, learning and growth, and the internal business process) on effective strategy implementation. The research hypotheses were tested by applying Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) methodology. Lisrel 9.1 package software was used to test and analyse the relationships among variables in this research model.

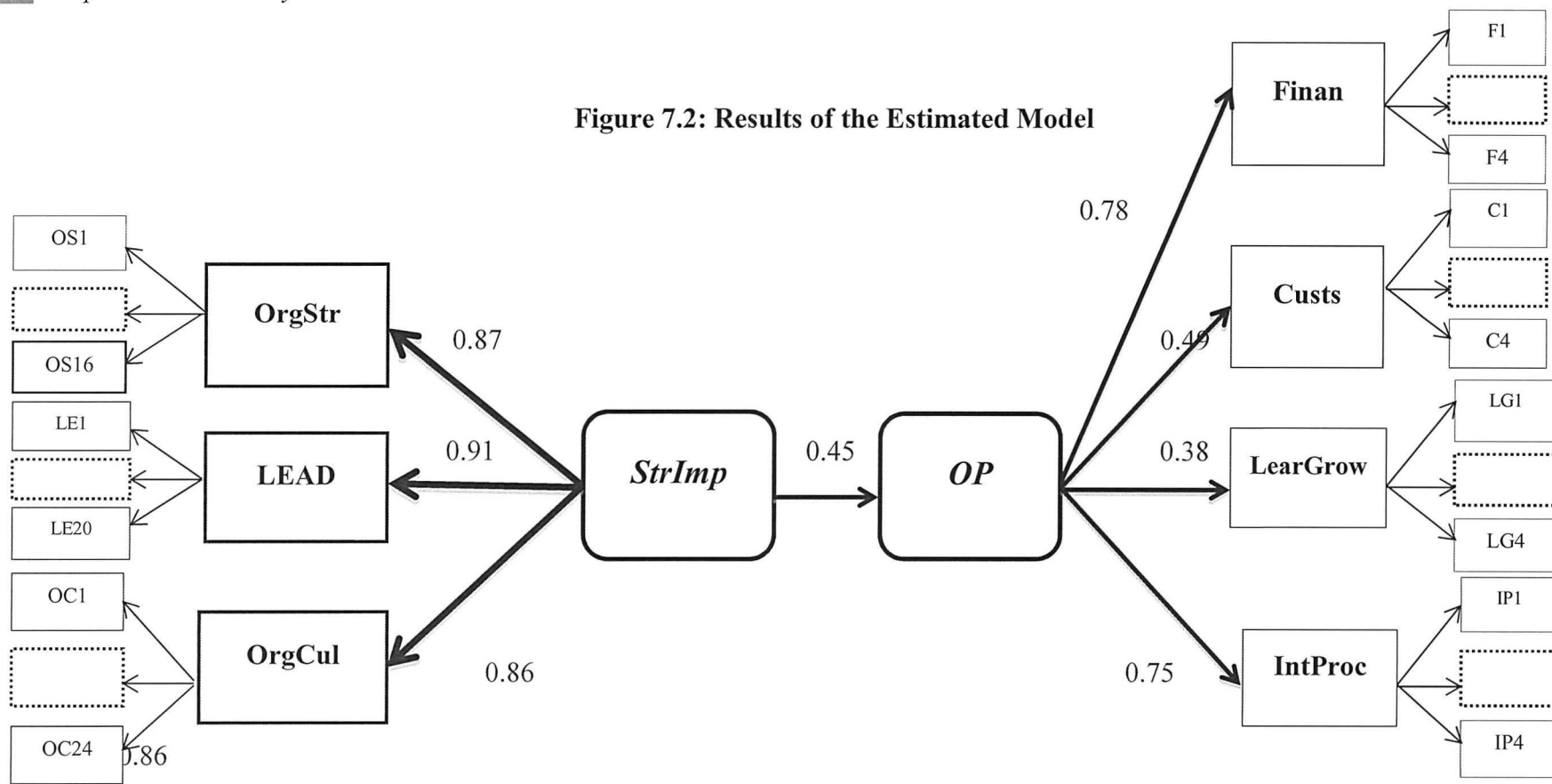
As the structural model in Figure 7.1 depicts, there were two latent variables: strategic implementation and firm performance. Seven items were designed to measure these latent variables: organizational structure, leadership, organizational culture, finance, customers, learning and growth, and the internal business process. There were indicators to measure each item. This study had eight hypotheses that are indicated on the structural model. The results of all path coefficient and T-values are illustrated in Figure 7.1.

According to Figure 7.2, the results from testing the research conceptual model with the SEM demonstrated that all path coefficients and t-values of the research variables used to measure strategic implementation and firm performance were positive and significant. In order to test the hypotheses, the t-values and path coefficients need to be considered. If the t-value is estimated at more than 2 with an acceptable p-value ($p < 0.05$), then it could be concluded to support the determined hypothesis. The results of our SEM analysis are shown in Figure 7.2 and Table 7.8.



Note: Latent Variables: StrLmp: Strategic Implementation; OrgPer: Organizational Performance; OrgStr: Organizational Strategic; Leadership: Leadership; Culture: Organizational Culture; Finan: Finance; Custs: Customers; LaGr: Learning and Growth; IntProc: Internal Process; FO1 to FO8: Eight indicators to measure Formal; INF9 to INF16: Eight indicators to measure Informal; TRF1 to TRF10: Ten indicators to measure Transformational; TRS11 to TRS20: Ten indicators to measure Transactional; B1 to B4: Four indicators to measure Bureaucratic; Adh1 to Adh4: Four indicators to measure Adhocracy; Adp1 to Adp4: Four indicators to measure Adoptive; Ent1 to Ent4: Four indicators to measure Entrepreneurial culture.

Figure 7.2: Results of the Estimated Model



Note: Latent Variables: *StrImp*: Strategic Implementation; *FM*: Firm Performance; *OrgStr*: Organizational Strategic; *LEAD*: Leadership; *OrgCul*: Organizational Culture; *Finan*: Finance; *Custs*: Customers; *LaGr*: Learning and Growth; *IntProc*: Internal Process; OS1 to OS16: Sixteen indicators to measure *OrgStr*; LE1 to LE20: Twenty indicators to measure *LEAD*; OS1 to OS24: Twenty-four indicators to measure *OrgCul*; F1 to F4: Four indicators to measure *Finan*; C1 to C4: four indicators to measure *Custs*; LG1 to LG4: Four indicators to measure *LearGrow*; IP1 to IP4: Four indicators to measure *IntProc*.

Table 7.8: Results of SEM Analysis

Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	t-value	p-value	Test Results
H1: StrImp → FM	0.45	3.02	***	Accepted
H2: StrImp → OrgStr	0.49	*	***	Accepted
OrgStr → Formal	0.68	3.13	***	-
OrgStr → Informal	0.52	2.33	***	-
H3: StrImp → LEAD	0.38	2.12	***	Accepted
LEAD → TRF	0.83	6.85	***	-
LEAD → TRS	0.75	6.52	***	-
H4: StrImp → OrgCul	0.75	3.62	***	Accepted
→ OrgCulBure	0.73	13.68	***	-
→ OrgCul Adh	0.77	13.75	***	-
→ OrgCulAdp	0.64	11.26	***	-
→ OrgCul Entr	0.88	13.77	***	-
Finan → FM	0.78	*	***	-
Custs → FM	0.87	12.03	***	-
LearGrow → FM	0.91	15.56	***	-
IntPro → FM	0.86	14.24	***	-

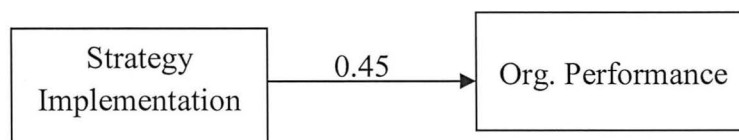
*: The item value compared by other items was assigned as 1. ***: The probability of getting the t-value was less than 0.001.

StrLmp: Strategic Implementation; FM: Firm Performance; OrgStr: Organizational Strategic; LEAD: Leadership; OrgCul: Organizational Culture; Finan: Finance; Custs: Customers; LaGr: Learning and Growth; IntProc: Internal Process; TRF: Transformational; TRS: Transactional; Bure: Bureaucratic; Adh: Adhocracy; Adp: Adhocracy; Entr: Entrepreneurial.

H1: There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and organizational performance

Hypothesis 1 states that there is a significant relationship between strategic implementation and a firm's performance; according to the path coefficient ($\beta=0.45$) and t-value ($t=3.02$), it can be inferred that there is a positive, strong and significant linkage between strategic implementation and firm performance. Therefore, the first hypothesis was accepted.

Figure 7.3: Coefficient of H1



Considering the path coefficient of two variables ($\beta=0.78$) and the t-value ($t=12.34$) as well as the relationship between financial management and firm performance, it was concluded that there was a positive and significant relationship between the two variables. There was also a relationship between customers and organizational performance. Based upon its path coefficient ($\beta=0.87$) and t-value ($t=12.03$), customers' perspective had a positive influence on firm performance.

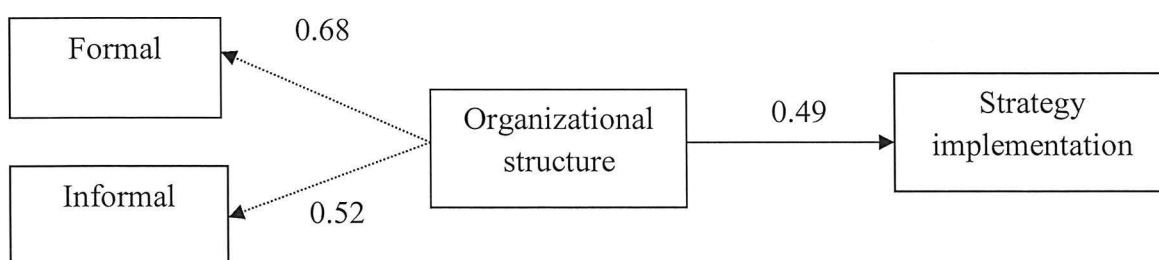
For hypothesis 1, there was a significant relationship between learning and growth and organizational performance according to the path coefficient ($\beta=0.91$) and t-value

($t=15.56$). Therefore, a positive, strong and significant linkage between learning and growth and organizational performance existed. Considering the path coefficients of the two variables ($\beta=0.86$) and the t-value ($t=14.24$), as well as the relationship between the internal business process and organizational performance, it was determined that there was a positive and significant relationship between these two variables.

H₂: There is a significant relationship between organizational structure and successful strategy implementation in public sector organizations.

Based upon the path coefficient of two variables ($\beta=0.49$), the t-value ($t=2.19$) and the relationship between organizational structure and strategic implementation, there was a positive and significant relationship between them. Therefore, H2 was accepted as well.

Figure 7.4: Coefficients of H2



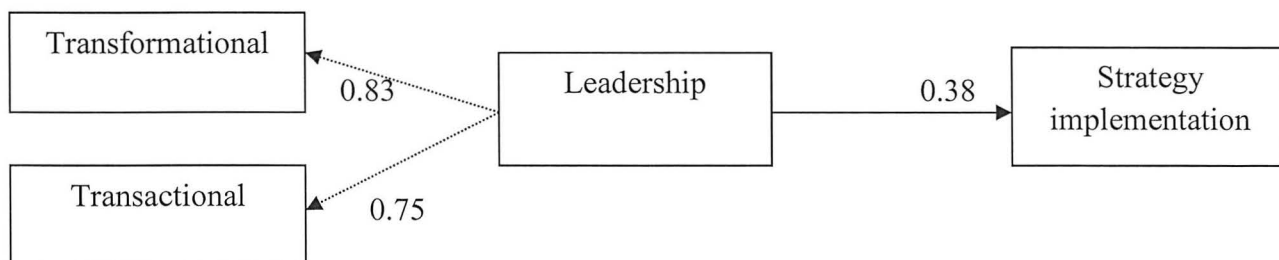
As can be seen in Figure 7.4, there was a significant and positive relationship between organizational structure and formal structure ($\beta=0.68$, t-value: $t=3.13$). Therefore, the *H2a*, which proposed that there is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and

formal organizational structure, was accepted. It was also found that unsuccessful strategy implementation was associated with an informal organizational structure. Therefore, the hypothesis $H2b$, which proposed that there is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and informal organizational structure, was also accepted ($\beta=0.52$, t-value: $t=2.33$). Overall, the results of this estimated model indicated that the structure of organizations was more formal than informal in this study.

$H3$: There is a significant relationship between the style of leadership and strategy implementation

For hypothesis 3, the path coefficient ($\beta=0.38$) and t-value ($t=2.12$) indicated that leadership had a positive influence on strategic implementation. Therefore, $H3$ was supported.

Figure 7.5: Coefficient of $H3$



According to Figure 7.5, there was a significant and positive relationship between leadership and transformational leadership ($\beta=0.83$, t-value: $t=6.85$). This result confirmed that as

proposed in hypothesis *H3a*, effective strategy implementation in public sector organizations is significantly associated with transformational leadership. An association has also been found between ineffective strategy implementation and a transactional leadership style (*H3b* $\beta=0.75$, t-value: $t=6.52$). The results of the estimated model indicated that the style of leadership in organizations was more transformational than transactional. The general finding of the study was that in public sector organizations, employing a transformational leadership style strongly supports the implementation of strategy.

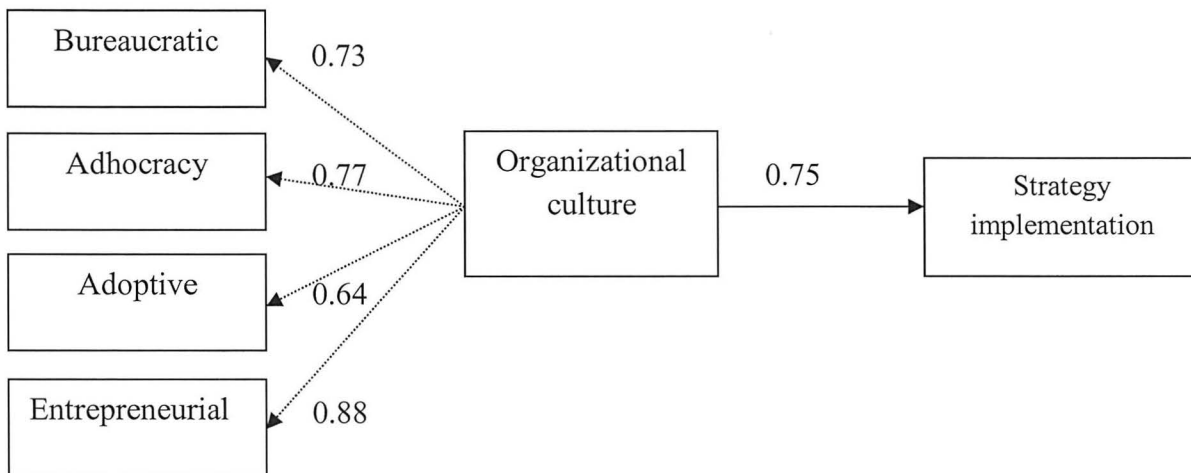
H4 : There is a significant relationship between organizational culture and successful strategy implementation in public sector organizations.

H4a : Successful strategy implementation in public sector organizations is significantly associated with open culture.

H4b : Successful strategy implementation in public sector organizations is significantly associated with closed culture.

For hypothesis 4, according to the path coefficient ($\beta=0.75$) and t-value ($t=3.62$), there was a positive, strong and significant linkage between organizational culture and strategic implementation. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis was accepted.

Figure 7.6: Coefficients of H4



As seen in Figure 7.6, there was a significant and positive relationship among effective strategy implementation and the organizational culture types bureaucratic ($\beta=0.73$, t-value: $t=13.68$), adhocracy ($\beta=0.77$, t-value: $t=13.75$) adoptive ($\beta=0.64$, t-value: $t=11.26$), and entrepreneurial culture ($\beta=0.88$, t-value: $t=13.77$). The result from the estimated model indicated that the culture of organizations in this research was a more entrepreneurial culture. As proposed in *H4a*, successful strategy implementation in public sector organizations is significantly associated with open culture. Where the predominant culture of the organization was a closed culture (*H4b*), the strategies were not implemented successfully.

7.5 Model Fit Statistics

According to Bollen (1989), a number of indices should be applied, such as the goodness of fit index (GFI), the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), the normed fit index (NFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI), to analyse the model fit. The chi-square (χ^2) test and the normed-chi-square test (χ^2/df) were also used. If the chi-square/df value is less than 3, it can be concluded that the data have a good fit. Based on the model, this study's value was acceptable at 2.03 (Table 7.9). The GFI index should be greater than 0.70 in complex models (Judge & Hulin, 1993).

The RMSEA index is used to estimate the fit of the research model to the covariance/correlation matrix. If the value of RMSEA falls below 0.08, it represents a good estimation. In addition, NFI and CFI indices were applied (Bentler and Bonett 1980, Bentler 1990) to evaluate the research model of its best fits to the data. These indices should be higher than 0.90, but the lowest acceptable value for this index in a complex model is 0.80. According to the described criteria for each index, all of the values were acceptable based on model fit statistics, and they support the validity of the research model according to the empirical data as shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Summary of Model Fit Statistics

Model Fit Summary	Values
CMIN	534.022
DF	262
CFI	0.99
GFI	0.99
NFI	0.97
RMSEA	0.00
CMIN/DF	2.03

Source: survey data

7.6 Summary

In this chapter, the data have been analysed using SPSS and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) by Lisrel 9.1 software. The correlations between the research variables were calculated. Finally, the research hypotheses were tested by Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using Lisrel version 9.1 software.

Chapter 8

Findings and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings that were presented through descriptive and statistical data analysis in Chapter Six. In the first section, the respondent's personal information reviews and discuss the gender and age distribution, education level, and working experience of responders and also to illustrate the relationship between gender and managerial positions in the sample. The second part serves as a discussion regarding research variables such as organisational structure, leadership, and organisational culture. The third section interprets the research hypothesis and the relationship between variables based on the literature review and empirical studies. The last section presents the summary of the chapter.

8.2 Respondents' Personal Characteristics

8.2.1 Gender. In this survey, the ratio of females to males was 5:6. This indicates that the number of males was greater than the number of females. Therefore, it demonstrated that most of the manager positions in the sample organisations were held by males rather than females. This might be a culture-specific issue in which traditionally managerial jobs are seen as suitable for men in the UAE. Also, most of the females were viewed as primarily responsible for doing home management, while

males were responsible for non-domestic tasks. Women are seen as more skilful than men in areas such as nutrition and health care, as opposed to men, who have more authority in areas such as finance (Damaske, 2004; Haveman & Beresford, 2012). The 'gender essentialism' theory leads to the male primacy approach, in which it is stressed that men, rather than women, are naturally fit for authority (Cohen, 2004; Kim, 2007).

8.2.2 Age. Based on the statistics, 31% of respondents were 25–34 years old and 41% were 35–44 years old. As can be seen, 74% of responders are in these two age groups. Therefore, the employees working here are comparatively middle-aged.

8.2.3 Education level. According to the statistics, 55% of the responders have a bachelor's degree and 27% have a master's degree. As a whole, 82% of the responders fall into one of these two levels of education, which shows that higher education is a requirement in managerial positions.

8.2.4 Work experience. Around 59% of the responders have a work experience of less than 15 years and 20% have a work experience of between 16–20 years. Therefore, regarding management positions, work experience is one of the main requirements when recruiting and promoting managers in public sector organisations.

8.2.5 Gender vs. position. As can be seen in the data regarding the relationship between gender and managerial positions in the sample, 53% of males hold managerial positions and 45% of managerial positions are held by females. Therefore, the rate of male responders who occupy managerial positions is greater than the rate of female responders. In the UAE, most females are traditionally responsible for home activities and are seen as housewives or in other caring jobs such as nursing. Even if they can find a job that is suitable and fitted to them, it is often a low status or low paid job. For example, banking or teaching are jobs that women can hold, and yet they do not hold managerial or administrative positions like men. Although in recent years most women have earned high education degrees and are eligible to hold more and more managerial positions in comparison with past decades, the female share in managerial positions is small.

The theory of gender essentialism leads to the male primacy approach, in which it is stressed that men are naturally better fitted for authority than women (Cohen, 2004; Kim, 2007). Based on Coronel et al. (2009), the corporate culture has created some barriers to the advancement of women in holding managerial positions. As Whitehead (2001) stated, the problems that women are faced with in managerial positions are due to organisational cultures that create various obstacles, resistance, and conflicts. Since women have to keep, improve, and develop their authority, they

must overcome these obstacles and stresses in the job environment. For this reason, they are required to have political skills to confront and manage their problems. Coronel et al. (2009) believed that tensions and high competition may have a negative impact on women's career advancement and their perception of their chances of development. Despite the ability and progress of women in management positions, some organisational obstacles hinder the women's advancement, and it may still require organisational intervention.

8.3 Organisational Culture in the UAE

The average score for the four types of organisational culture, based on Quinn (1993), ranked from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', are bureaucratic (3.70), adhocracy (3.75), adoptive (3.40), and entrepreneurial (3.92). What the evidence shows is that the dominant culture in UAE public sector organisations is the entrepreneurial culture. Adhocracy, bureaucratic, and adoptive cultures are in the next ranks. Since the average scores of bureaucratic and adhocracy are so close, it can therefore be concluded that either can be the predominant culture following entrepreneurial. The Quinn model of organisational culture explains the interactions that have an effect on efficiency in organisations. According to this model, the managerial system is based on cultural values. Quinn (1993) identified four main

cultures according to the theory of ‘competing values’, which was shown in Figure 6.1.

According to the competing values framework, the different types of culture cannot coexist in an organisation at the same time. Quinn et al. (1996), on the other hand, asserted that there is no limitation to the coexistence of these four cultures in organisations, just as long as it depends on value, i.e., one has a lesser value and the other is more dominant in comparison with other cultures.

Quinn and Robert (2011) investigated which culture is suitable for different types of organisations. Based on their studies, the satisfactory cultures for government organisations and financial organisations are hierarchy quadrant, and hierarchical and market quadrants respectively. Quinn and Robert (2011) mentioned that it cannot be said which culture is right or wrong, because any organisation selects and develops a dominant culture that is more adopted to the organisation.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) investigated which types of cultures are selected by organisations. The result of their study in over 80 organisations demonstrated that the type of dominant culture selected depends on the competing values framework. If organisations do not have any type of culture, they will face too many problems. For example, if the organisation does not have a market culture, it will face difficulties in getting employees to initiate the work. If the organisation lacks a clan culture, it

might suffer in transformational work, and also fail to adapt to uncertain environments if they do not have an adhocracy culture. The hierarchy culture will manage the organisation's daily routine performance and avoid anarchy; therefore without a hierarchy culture the organisation will face difficulties (Quinn, 1993). According to Minguzzi and Passaco (2001) and Covin and Slevin (2007), entrepreneurial culture is selected in organisations that require a high degree of motivation, innovation, and creativity to support the firm's activities. A few studies have investigated the culture environment in large firms (Brooks, 2008). According to Gupta and Cawthon (1996), 'effective small organisations must have an organisational design and culture enabling them in responding to challenges created by changing technologies and markets'. Wallach (1993) categorised the culture of organisations as bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive. Based on Wallach's definition, organisations that select a bureaucratic culture are stable, usually mature, power-oriented, established, regulated, ordered, structured, procedural, and hierarchical. While an innovative culture focuses on creativity, challenges, and innovation, and provides a challenging work environment, it is well-known to be an entrepreneurial culture as well, because it emphasises ambitious, stimulation, and risk taking. Because of the nature of the organisations operating in a very changeable environment, they need a high degree of creativity, flexibility, and innovation. An

entrepreneurial culture is an appropriate culture for such organisations (Ghobadian & Gallear, 1996).

In this study, the reasons for the dominant open culture of the studied organisations in the UAE are that the organisations are under pressure, in facing strong competitors, to provide for the customers' needs and demands, as well as to remain compatible with the government's policies. Therefore, they have to develop new products and services strategically to remain operating in turbulent and complex environments and an open entrepreneurial culture provides these features.

8.4 Organisational Structure

The average scores for the two types of organisational structure, listed from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', are formal structure (3.42) and informal structure (2.98). According to Buchanan and Huczynski (2010), in a formal organisation all activities are already designed and documented and have been established by top managers with the aim of achieving organisational objectives. In this kind of organisation, all rules and policies are formally written and managers can check, monitor, and change them.

In informal organisations, undocumented and unwritten relationships are formed between employees. These kinds of relationships are spontaneous and the

interaction between employees is based on them, which leads to forming informal groups within these organisations. According to Buchanan and Huczynski (2010), relationships in informal groups are very smooth and flexible, with their own norms and values.

The organisation's size is considered a main contingency for the bureaucratic theory of structural differentiation, centralisation, specialisation, and formalisation. Most research on organisational structure argues that small organisations require simple structures and large organisations best fit a bureaucratic structure where task independence is a minor contingency (Gulti & Puranam, 2009). In organic theory, when an organisation faces task uncertainty, a mechanistic structure is the appropriate one, and requires less centralisation, specialisation, and formalisation.

In this study, the reason that public sector organisations in Abu Dhabi have a formal structure is that the structure depends on the organisation's goals and is developed in an organisation to operate and assist in achieving its objectives in the future for organisational growth. This finding has been supported by other research confirming that a machine structure is a more appropriate structure for organisations operating in an unchanging environment. The nature of the macro and business environment in the UAE requires organisations to adapt a professional hierarchical structure.

8.5 Leadership

The average score for the two types of leadership listed from ‘not at all’ to ‘frequently if not always’, are transformational leadership (4.37) and transactional leadership (4.07). Traditional theories consider the roles of successful leaders and their personalities regarding leadership, but the newest approaches, such as transactional and transformational theories, cover the follower’s role and the nature of leadership (Bolden et al., 2003). The latest findings in the leadership field focus on two main leadership styles, namely transformational and transactional (D’Alessio, 2008).

According to Peleg (2012), transactional leadership is a kind of exchange relationship between the leader and employees or followers in which they influence each other, and both superior and subordinates gain different levels of values and rewards from each other. In addition, transactional leadership creates some levels of dependency between leaders and employees and they are aware of these dependencies (Hunter, 2007; Yammarino et al., 2012). In this style of leadership, leaders have a high impact on followers, and followers have a greater tendency to do exactly what the leader wants and desires to be carried out. Successful transactional leaders should be keenly aware of followers’ expectations and needs and try to fulfil them regularly (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006)

Benzvi (2006) noted that transactional leaders are as important as other leaders such as charismatic or transformational leaders. This kind of leader has to deal with performance and rewards, and manages and monitors routine tasks in organisations (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transformational leadership is a kind of relationship where the leader encourages the followers to reach a superb level of achievement, which mainly is the success of the organisation and fulfilment of the group objectives (Benzin, 2006). According to Peleg (2012), a transformational leader is a leader who pays attention to followers' creativity, tries to impact and change followers' personal beliefs, and encourages them to the highest level of performance (Bass, 1985; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). Evans (2001) asserted that considering personal values, trust, respect, and commitment to promises are the main features of transformational leaders, which is what makes this different from the transactional leadership style.

According to Yammarino et al. (2012), for transformational leaders, followers' satisfaction and the fulfilment of their personal desires is given the same importance as organisational success and goals. The meaning of charismatic leadership is very close to that of transformational leadership (Babcock-Robinson & Strickland, 2010).

The result demonstrated that transformational leadership has a higher score than transactional. The findings of this research show that in UAE public sector organisations transformational leadership style is becoming more effective than in the past. Organisations should be able cope with macro environmental changes. Visionary or transformational leadership helps them to cope with strategic changes. More importantly, transformational leadership supports an effective strategy implementation process.

8.6 Impact of Strategic Implementation on Firm Performance

The first set of hypotheses explores the relationship between strategic implementation and organisational performance. From the result of Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis of the path coefficient ($\beta=0.46$) and t-value ($t=3.02$), it can be inferred that there is a positive, strong, and significant linkage between strategic implementation and firm performance. Regarding the first hypothesis, considering the path coefficient of two variables ($\beta=0.78$) and t-value ($t=12.34$) in the relationship between finance and firm performance, it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between them. Also, there is a relationship between customer satisfaction and organisational performance. From its path coefficient ($\beta=0.87$) and t-value ($t=12.03$), it can be inferred that

customer perspective positively influences organisational performance in public sector organisations in the UAE.

Since the relationship between strategy implementation and firm performance has not been investigated by previous empirical studies, the finding of this study is novel. Most previous empirical studies have investigated the relationship between strategic planning and organisational performance and found that the strategic decision failed due to ineffective implementation. The result of this study reveals that strategy implementation has a key role in enhancing the performance of public sector organisations.

In the past two decades, strategy formulation rather than strategic implementation has been considered an important factor in the strategic management process, but recently scholars and researchers have begun to pay more attention to strategic implementation. The results of their studies indicate that strategy implementation is a key factor for any business to have superior performance (Flood et al., 2001; Veetil, 2008; Jooste & Fourie; 2009). Also, Flood et al. (2001) mentioned that most of the problems in the strategic management field depend on strategic implementation rather than strategy formulation and the high rate of business failure is due to poor strategy implementation.

Veettil (2008) investigated strategy formulation and implementation in manufacturing organisations and their impact on performance. The result of the study reveals that there is a positive relationship between strategy implementation planning and organisational performance. Ibrahim et al. (2012) explored the relationship between strategy implementation and the performance of manufacturing firms in Indonesia employing a moderately formality structure. The result of their study showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between strategy implementation and the performance of manufacturing firms. Also, the finding demonstrated that there is a moderating effect of formalised structure on the relationship between strategy implementation and organisational performance.

The result of this research reveals that there is a positive and significant relationship between strategic implementation and firm performance; therefore the finding of this hypothesis is supported by previous studies (Veettil, 2008; Ibrahim et al., 2012).

8.7 Impact of Organisational Structure on Strategic Implementation

Regarding the second hypothesis, the result of Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis considering the path coefficient of two variable ($\beta=0.49$) and t-value ($t=2.19$), the relationship between organisational structure and strategic implementation, it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant

relationship between them. As can be viewed in Figure 6.11, there is a significant and positive relationship between organisational structure and both formal structure ($\beta=0.68$, t-value: $t=3.13$) and informal structure ($\beta=0.52$, t-value: $t=2.33$). The result of the estimated model indicates that the structure of the organisation in this research is more formal, rather than informal.

Strategy implementation suffers from a general lack of academic attention regarding investigating the relationship between organisational structure and strategy implementation; therefore the result of this study is important because it indicates that organisational structure helps organisations to implement their strategy effectively.

Gottschalk (2008) asserted that any failure in implementing strategy leads to lost opportunities. Also, if the organisation fails to implement its strategies, it cannot maintain its priorities, goals, and objectives. A study of over 200 senior managers by Olsun et al. (2005) demonstrated that the organisation's strategy needs to be matched to its organisational structure. According to Olsun et al. (2005) and Gottschalk (2008), there are three structural dimensions that are the key factors in strategy implementation. These are formalisation, centralisation, and specialisation.

Formalisation describes how tasks and work are based on rules, methods, and procedure (Jonker & Treur, 2003). In organisations that follow a formalisation

structure, documentation and standardisation are applied (Damanpour & Aravind, 2012).

Centralisation refers to the degree and type of decision making that is at the top or across an organisation (Fleischmann, 2011). Specialisation 'describes the degree to which labour is divided and tasks are assigned to specific departments and positions' (Damanpour & Aravind, 2012). In this organisational structure, vertical and horizontal components are used. In horizontal specialisation, the roles, responsibilities, and tasks is determined and their scope is defined (Burton, 2006). Olson et al. (2005) stated that any organisation selects the appropriate structure for implementing new strategies based on its goals.

8.8 Impact of Leadership on Strategic Implementation

For Hypothesis 3, the result of Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis showed that there is a relationship between leadership style and strategic implementation. In terms of path coefficient ($\beta=0.38$) and t-value ($t=2.12$), it can be inferred that leadership positively influences strategic implementation. Also, there is a significant and positive relationship between transformational leadership ($\beta=0.83$, t-value: $t=6.85$) and transactional leadership ($\beta=0.75$, t-value: $t=6.52$). The result of the estimated model indicates that the style of leadership in organisations is more transformational rather than transactional.

Leadership is widely considered a major driver of effective implementation of strategies (Collins, 2001; Bossidy & Charan, 2002; Thompson & Strickland, 2003; Freedman & Tregoe, 2003; Kaplan & Norton, 2004; Hrebiniak, 2005; Pearce & Robinson, 2007; Jooste & Fourie, 2009). In reviewing the literature and empirical studies, it can be concluded that, with lack of leadership, organisations are faced with major barriers in implementation strategy efficiently (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000; Kaplan & Norton, 2004; Hrebiniak, 2005; Jooste & Fourie, 2009).

Jooste and Fourie (2009) investigated the role of strategic leadership in effective strategy implementation in perceptions of South African strategic leaders. The result of their study showed that strategic leadership has a significant and positive effect on strategy implementation. Mapetere et al. (2012) studied the strategic role of leadership in strategy implementation in Zimbabwe's state-owned enterprises. The aim of their study was to explore the relationship between active leadership and strategic implementation. The result of the study indicated that low leadership engagement in strategy implementation leads to only partial success of the strategy. Also, the study concluded that leadership should be involved in any strategy program. Studies that have been conducted in leadership and strategic implementation demonstrate that leaders should know when their behaviour needs to change based on the organisations' goals and strategies. This includes how to use power, and how to

find more useful ways to describe organisational changes to employees and use their skills and abilities (Svetlik, 2005; Thach et al., 2007; Mapetere et al., 2012).

According to Larkin and Larkin (1996), leaders should find the appropriate and efficient way to communicate with employees and present the current situation and changes to them in the early stage of any strategy implementation. Also, Smith et al. (1995) asserted that 'the absence of effective communication systems hinders the creation of new meaning and acceptance, hence strategy implementers fail to recognise the need for change'. Therefore, based on the result of our hypotheses, there is a positive relationship between leadership and strategy implementation, supported by previous empirical studies.

8.9 Impact of Organisational Culture on Strategic Implementation

The fourth hypothesis explores the relationship between organisational culture and strategic implementation. The result of Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between organisational culture and strategic implementation, its path ($\beta=0.75$) and t-value ($t=3.62$). It can be inferred that organisational culture positively influences strategic implementation.

Although studies that have investigated the relationship between organisational culture and strategy implementation are limited and did not pay much attention, these past studies demonstrated the relationship between organisational culture, performance, and its effectiveness (Fey & Denison, 2003; Lopez et al, 2004; Pirayeh et al., 2011; Naranjo-Valencia, 2011, Ahmadi et al., 2012). The findings of this study provide empirical evidence for the research hypotheses and demonstrate that there is a positive and significant relationship between organisational culture and strategy implementation, which is in line with the previous studies (Aktas et al., 2011; Naranjo-Valencia, 2011; Ahmadi et al., 2012).

A study by Alvesson (1990) showed that culture is one of the effective tools for organisations to achieve performance. Mehta and Kirshnan (2004) demonstrated that a strong culture has a great effect and helps charismatic and transformational leaders. As Mantere (2000), Van Der Maas (2008), and Van Buul (2010) have stated, organisational culture has a positive effect on an organisation's strategy. Also, Bates et al. (1995) stated that organisational culture and strategy are essentially synonymous, just as Green (1988) mentioned that strategy is a product of organisational culture. As Van Buul (2010) asserted, 'a fundamental part of managing strategy implementation process should take into account organisational culture as a powerful aspect of status'.

Ahmadi et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between organisational culture and strategy implementation and concluded that there are relations among all typologies and dimensions of organisational culture and strategy implementation. The result of this finding indicated that flexibility of cultures has a key role in strategy implementation and that there is a significant and positive relationship between formation and structural factors in strategy implementation. The finding of the research hypothesis reveals that there is a positive relationship between organisational culture and strategy implementation, which is supported by previous empirical studies.

8.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the major finding of the research has been discussed. Firstly, it has been discussed that, regarding the respondents' personal characteristics such as age, gender, work experience, education level, and so on in the sample, the percentage of male responders holding managerial positions is higher than that of female, because it is traditionally believed that men are more suitable for managerial jobs. However, nowadays women can hold managerial positions, and the evidence showed that their performance was satisfactory, but still the rate of increase in the number of women managers is low.

Second, the main research variables in the sample have been reviewed and which factors had a high score has been determined and discussed in terms of the reasons, based on the literature review and empirical studies. In the public sector in the UAE, the organisational structure is formal, the style of leadership is transformational, and the type of culture is entrepreneurial.

Third, the relationship between variables has been discussed. The relationship between strategic implementation and performance is significant and positive and this means that strategic implementation is positively correlated with organisational performance. The findings are supported by the finding of previous studies.

Fourth, the organisational structure has a positive and significant impact on firm strategic implementation. Because the result of the analysis showed that formal structure has a stronger effect than informal structure, this finding is in accordance with the literature.

Fifth, the relationship between leadership and strategic implementation is positively correlated. Leadership has a positive and significant effect on strategic implementation. The result indicated that transformational leadership has a stronger effect on strategic implementation and it showed that the style of leadership in UAE public sector organisations is transformational rather than transactional.

Sixth, the overall organisational culture is positively correlated with strategic implementation, but among the types of cultures, entrepreneurial culture has a stronger and more significant impact on strategic implementation.

Chapter 9

Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

Chapter nine interprets the major findings of the research, which have been presented in the previous chapters. It provides a detailed explanation and theoretical foundations in support of the research's main hypotheses in terms of organisational structure, leadership, culture, strategic implementation and performance.

Moreover, it explores the research's theoretical contributions and policy implementations for management practices. In addition, the limitations of the research have been discussed as well as some suggestions for further academic studies have been given.

9.2 Major findings

The main objective of this study was to investigate challenges of strategy implementation in public sector organisations in Abu Dhabi. In order to measure strategic implementation three variables, which are organisational structure, leadership and organisational culture, have been used in this research. In order to measure performance, four variables based on BSC (financial, customer, learning and growth, internal business process) have been used in this research. The dependent

variable is organisational performance and the independent variable is strategy implementation. The major findings of this study after analysing the variables are as follows:

- The most challenging issues in implementing strategy are structure, leadership and organisational culture.
- There is a significant relationship between effective strategy implementation and organisational performance in the public sector. The organisations that implement strategies successfully are performing better than the organisations that are struggling with implementing strategies successfully.
- There is a significant relationship between organisational structure and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations. There is a significant relationship between strategy implementation and formal organisational structure.
- There is a significant relationship between style of leadership and strategy implementation. Effective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transformational leadership, and ineffective strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with transactional leadership.
- There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and successful strategy implementation in public sector organisations. Successful

strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with open culture. Unsuccessful strategy implementation in public sector organisations is significantly associated with closed culture.

9.2.1 Strategy implementation and performance

Hypothesis 1, which predicted that there is a relationship between strategy implementation and performance, was supported in this study. A positive and significant relationship has been found. This finding is inconsistent with previous research conducted by authors such as Heide et al. (2002), Johannes (2004), David (2003), Andrews et al. (2006), Crittenden and Crittenden (2008), Pirayeh, et al. (2011) and Ibrahim et al. (2012). A number of researchers have focused on the issue that successful implementation of strategy will affect performance in organisations.

9.2.2 Strategy implementation (culture, leadership, structure)

Hypothesis 2, which indicates that there is a relationship between organisational structure and strategy implementation, was accepted in this study. There is a positive relation between these two variables. This finding is in accordance with literature.

Strategy implementation is well known for being an administrative task because it focuses on structures of an organisation and impacts on the successful implementation of strategy within firms (Veetttil, 2008). It is clear that the relationship between structure and strategy is rather close (Foss, 2003). According to Teeratansirikool (2013) strategies during the strategic management process should follow the structure of the firm, and implementing strategy is under the direct effect of organisational structure. In addition, Lynch (2006) suggests that it is difficult to determine whether strategy follows the structure or it is the structure which shadows strategy.

Hypothesis 3 has been supported by the findings of this study. It predicted that there is a relationship between leadership and strategy implementation. Although the result shows that the relationship is not very significant, it is positive. The result is acceptable according to the literature as most of the scholars pointed out the importance of leadership style on successful implementation of strategy (Collins 2001; Heide et al., 2002; Mills, 2005; Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008; Andrews, 2011).

Leadership is an essential factor to fulfill objectives and missions in any organisation (Mills, 2005). Leadership plays a key role for success in any firm. Each organisation's

accomplishments and success depend on effective leadership (Heide et al., 2002; Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008; Victoria, 2008; Ibrahim et al., 2012).

The lack of effective leadership style in an organisation hinders improvement and spoils planning and strategies (Andrews, 2011). Leaders show the path to success by supporting objectives and visions of an organisation (Avolio, 2009).

According to Bass and Riggio (2009) one of the most important factors during the organisational strategy management process, with high effects on implementation of strategies, is leadership style. A proper leadership style which fits the organisational strategy is necessary. If the leadership style was chosen carefully it will make employees and organisational members support the manager, and encourage them to support organisational strategic plans.

In addition, as Hassan et al. (2012) mentions organisations that do not have any appropriate and planned leadership style mislead the successful implementation of strategy.

Hypothesis 4, which predicted that there is a significant relationship between organisational culture and strategic implementation, was supported as well. The findings show that there is a very strong and positive relationship between culture and strategy implementation. It was predictable since it is supported by literature.

As Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) state that the existing culture of an organisation should be concerned with the strategic management process, and strategies should be constructed according to the culture, thus trying to emphasise and preserve it. Therefore, the literature shows that the decision makers should try to explore and identify the culture very deeply and be aware of how they can change it when necessary (Victoria, 2008). Sometimes, changing the culture of a firm in order to implement a new strategy is more effective than the new strategy (Pirayeh et al., 2011).

Furthermore, organisational culture helps in the effective implementation of strategies. Organisational culture should be motivating and enthusiastic, and encourage employees to help implement strategies (Allio, 2005). As the strategy implementation is a challenging stage in the strategic management process, it needs to be supported by culture (Dauber and Fink, 2012)

The organisational member's culture as well as enterprise culture effects the success of strategy implementation (Victoria, 2008). One of the main challenges of today's organisations is how to manage individual and organisational culture. Individual culture within an organisation impacts on the formulation, implementation and evaluation of strategies (Machtosh and Doherty, 2010).

The existing culture of an organisation should be identified and known completely when implementing strategies. Strategies should be designed and built according to the culture of an organisation, and the main concern should be to preserve it (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Since changing the culture of an organisation is very difficult.

9.2.3 Performance (finance, customer, learning and growth, internal business process)

In order to measure a firm's performance, four variables based on Balanced Score Card (finance, customer, learning and growth, internal business process) have been used and tested in this research, and the analysis shows that all coefficients of the variables are positive. It also shows that finance, customer's perspective, learning/growth and internal business process have a positive effect on performance. In addition, the effect of learning/growth is more significant than the other variables.

Therefore, BSC related hypothesis were supported as the literature supports the findings too. According to Kaplan and Norton (2005) the four main balanced indicators show the performance of a firm, and is a very useful method in examining the level of a firm's performance. The managers will be forced to focus only on a

limited number of indicators which are vital and critical to evaluating performance. Moreover, using a variety of performance aspects prevents partial optimisation (DeGeuser et al., 2009).

The BSC is a reliable model to evaluate, control and monitor organisational performance, and it offers critical areas to monitor and control (Neely et al., 2000).

The BSC measurement framework illustrates the performance of a firm and the large firms in the public sector, which have very special strategies in regard to customer loyalty and innovation (Valmohammadi and Servati, 2011). The main advantages of using this model is its briefness since it changes the written shape of strategic plans, which are usually presented in thick volume booklets to a series of brief operational steps, and the result can be viewed and reviewed on a daily basis (Hassan et al., 2012).

9.3. Theoretical contribution of the research

The major theoretical contribution of this research is developing a theoretical model to test the challenges of strategy implementation in public sector organisations in UAE. It has been discussed that strategic management impacts on firm performance. A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between strategic management and firm performance. As establishing strategic management consists of

three main stages; formulation, implementation and evaluation, there are few studies that have investigated successful strategy implementation stage's effect on firm performance (Yukl, 2009; Zhou et al., 2010; Mullen, 2011; Valmohammadi and Servati, 2011; Peleg, 2012).

The research contributes to strategy implementation and its connection with firm performance in the public sector. One of the main findings of this research is that successful implementation of strategy in organisations has a positive effect on firm performance. It has been proposed by some scholars in previous studies (Heide et al., 2002; Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008; Machtosh and Doherty, 2010).

One of the contributions of this research is to identify the major challenges of strategy implementation namely culture, leadership and structure. These three factors have been empirically suggested in that they effect strategy implementation, but the amount of effect was an ambiguous issue. The findings show culture as one of the factors that has the most strong and positive effect on strategy implementation. These findings are supported empirically by the literature. Also a number of studies pointed to the importance of culture's role on strategy implementation. As strategy implementation is a challenging stage in the strategic management process, it needs to

be supported by culture (Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008; Bolden, 2009; Andrews, 2011; Pirayeh et al., 2011).

The other contribution of the research is using BSC as a tool to assess the performance of organisations in UAE. As a few public sector organisations are making use of the BSC system to evaluate organisational performance, this research provides a conceptual framework for the other organisations to be able to use BSC when assessing their performance (Neely et al. 2000; Li, 2001; David, 2005; DeGeuser et al., 2009).

It was also captured that this study investigated strategy implementation's effect on performance in the public sector, since most of the previous studies have been carried out in private sectors, mainly in small firms (Beer and Eisenstat, 2000; Chatman and Cha, 2003; Andrews, 2011).

9.4. Policy implications

The findings of this study lead decision makers and top managers in the public sector to pay more attention to the role of culture, leadership style and structure of organisation for successful strategy implementation. As the findings indicate that

among these three factors organisational culture has the most significant effect on successful strategy implementation. The results suggest that top managers should bear in mind that culture plays a very supportive role (Pirayeh et al., 2011). A supportive culture does not distinguish itself from the company's goals, problems and competition (Dauber and Fink, 2012).

Using BSC as a measurement tool of performance is very common in public sector organisations. The findings suggest that it has a very positive effect on measuring performance as well as assessing strategy implementation success. It suggests that policy makers and strategic managers strive to use the BSC system for measuring performance.

Finally, the results suggest that in the public sector, successful strategic management especially in the important stage such as implementation has a very positive and significant effect on organisational performance. Therefore, the government policy makers can encourage public sector managers to invest and allocate extra resources for successful strategy implementation, and in this regard they should strive to establish an appropriate structure, choose a suitable leadership style and try to develop a strong and supportive culture throughout the organisation.

9.5 Limitations of the research

The nature of the study in strategic management and strategy implementation is very dependent on the industry sector, this study was restricted to the public sector and the private sector was deliberately excluded from this research. Therefore, one of the limitations of this study is that its findings may not be generalisable to wider types of organisations or industry sectors.

The concept of strategy implementation is a vague subject. This study has focused on three core elements of challenges regarding strategy implementation namely structure, leadership and culture. However, there might be some other country specific or industry specific issues which have not been included in this research.

Accessing the internal information of public sector organisations was difficult, as most of them are government companies and are very sensitive about information regarding their organisations. It was very time consuming to assure them that all of the information gathered would be kept highly confidential and have them participate in the research.

9.6 Suggestions for further research

The finding of this research has opened new avenues for further research. Some of the questions and issues in strategy implementation that merit further research are as follows:

- Replication of study in different contexts such as different geographical contexts, different cultural contexts, industries and the private sector.
- Further study on investigating strategy formulation effect on performance.
- Further study on investigating the effect of different measurement tools for performance.
- Further study on identifying failure factors of implementing strategy in organisations.
- Further study on investigating the effect of other factors than culture, leadership and structure on successful strategy implementation such as technology, budgeting and facilities.
- Further study in this field considering size of organisation, number of employees and annual turnover of organisations.

9.7. Chapter summary

In this chapter, the major findings of the research have been presented. The main conclusions have been discussed. Also, the contributions of the research in terms of its theoretical contribution as well as policy implications have been discussed. Limitations of the research have been addressed and also the propositions of the study have been reviewed. The major findings, which are discussed in the previous chapters, are summarised.

In summary, this study has identified the major challenges in the implementation of strategies in public sector organisations in UAE. The challenges are structure, leadership and culture.

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Dear Sir

Re : Miss Khawla Al-Saaedi's Doctoral Research

I have the pleasure of informing you that Miss Khawla Al-Saaedi is carrying out a research for her PhD on "Strategic Management in Public Sector" at the Bangor Business School, University of Wales, UK.

Your organization has been selected, from among all organizations operating in the public sector in UAE, to take part in this research. I would like to emphasize that your participation is very important for the researcher. The result of this research will be presented in aggregate form, and in such a way that no single respondent can be recognized. Please note that all information gathered in this survey will be held in the strictest confidence, and will never be disclosed to a third party. More specifically, the gathered data will be used solely for academic and scientific purposes.

Khawla's letter contains more details of the planned project. She is an able and committed researcher. I am confident that she will conduct the case study according to the highest professional standards and I will be most grateful if you can facilitate the process by giving your support. Your approval will be highly appreciated.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you on behalf of University of Wales Bangor, Bangor Business School in advance for your approval and assistance. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you require further information.

Yours sincerely

Azhdar Karami (Ph.D)

Senior Lecturer in Strategic Management
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YR ATHRO / PROFESSOR JOHN THORNTON
PENNAETH YSGOL / HEAD OF SCHOOL

Appendix 4.1. Data Dictionary:

No.	Question No.	SPSS Variable Name	Variable Label	Variable Value(s)
Part1: Demographic profile				
1.	1	P1_Marital_1	Marital Status	1=Single 2=Married 3=Divorced 4=Widow
2.	2	P1_Gender_2	Gender	1=Male 2=Female
3.	3	P1_Nat_3	Nationality	1=UAE National 2= Non UAE National
4.	4	P1_Age_4	Age Group	1=>25 2= 25 – 34 3= 35 – 44 4= 45 – 54 5= 55 – 64 6= <=65
5.	5	P1_Experience_5	Years of Experience	Needed to be defined in groups format
6.	6	P1_Edu_6	Educational Level	1=Secondary School 2=Diploma 3=Higher Diploma 4=Bachelor Degree 5=Master Degree 6=Doctorate
7.	8	P1_Training_8	Management Training	1=No 2=Yes
Part2: Organizational Strategy Audit				
8.	1	P2_Mission_1	Have mission	1=No 2=Yes

9.	1	P2_ReflectGoal_1	Mission reflect achievable goal	1=No 2=Yes
10.	2	P2_StrategicObjective_2	Have Strategic Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
11.	2	P2_Specific_a_2	Specific Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
12.	2	P2_Measurable_b_2	Measurable Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
13.	2	P2_Achievable_c_2	Achievable Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
14.	2	P2_Realistic_d_2	Realistic Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
15.	2	P2_TimePounded_e_2	Time Pounded Objectives	1=No 2=Yes
16.	3	P2_Review_3	Often review objectives	To be identified
17.	4	P2_Scanning_a_4	Environmental Scanning	1=No 2=Yes
18.	4	P2_Plans_b_4	Long range plans and policy	1=No 2=Yes
19.	4	P2_BudgetAndProcedures_c_4	Develop programs, budget, and procedures	1=No 2=Yes
20.	4	P2_MonitorPerformance_d_4	Monitor Performance and compare results	1=No 2=Yes
21.	5	P2_Effectiveness_a_5	Organizational Effectiveness	1=Very Low 2=Low 3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very High
22.	5	P2_Decision_b_5	Operational Decision Making	1=Very Low 2=Low

				3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very High
23.	5	P2_DevelopStrategy_c_5	Developing Strategic Objectives	1=Very Low 2=Low 3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very High
24.	5	P2_ImplementStrategy_d_5	Implementing Strategic Objectives	1=Very Low 2=Low 3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very High
Part3: Organizational Structure				
25.	1	P3_Routine_1	Work considered routine	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
26.	2	P3_ClearWay_2	There is a clearly known way to do the major tasks	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
27.	3	P3_StableCharacter_3	Organization has highly stable and highly structured character.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
28.	4	P3_LowVariety_4	Work has low variety and frequent exceptions.	1=Strongly Disagree

				2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
29.	5	P3_Loyalty_5	People have loyalty to the organization rather than projects and teams.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
30.	6	P3_Instructions_6	Communications from above consist of instructions and directions rather than information and advice.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
31.	7	P3_Formalization_7	Organization has high formalization.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
32.	8	P3_ExchangeIdeas_8	Seldom exchange ideas or information with people doing other kind of jobs.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
33.	9	P3_DecisionFlow_9	Decisions are made above you and passed down.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
34.	10	P3_JobsForDay_10	People rarely have to figure out for themselves what	1=Strongly Disagree

			their jobs are for the day.	2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
35.	11	P3_AuthorityLines_11	Lines of authority are clear and precisely defined and chain of command clearly defined.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
36.	12	P3_Leadership_12	Leadership tends to be autocratic rather than democratic in style.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
37.	13	P3_JobDescription_13	Job descriptions are written and up-to-date for each job.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
38.	14	P3_UnderstandOthersJob_14	People do not understand each other's jobs and seldom do different tasks.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
39.	15	P3_PoliciesAndProcedures_15	A manual of policies and procedures is available to use when a problem arises	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
40.	16	P3_Team_16	Team working is not essential for doing my job.	1=Strongly Disagree

				2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
Part4: Leadership				
41.	1	P5_ExamineAssumption_1	Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
42.	2	P5_Values_2	Talk about my most important values and beliefs.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
43.	3	P5_Perspectives_3	Seek different perspectives when solving problem.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
44.	4	P5_OptimisticFuture_4	Talk optimistically about the future	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
45.	5	P5_PrideInOther_5	Instill pride in others for being associated with me.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes

				4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
46.	6	P5_EnthusiasticTalk_6	Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
47.	7	P5_SenseOfPurpose_7	Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
48.	8	P5_Teaching_8	Spend time teaching and coaching.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
49.	9	P5_GoodOfGroup_9	Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
50.	10	P5_TreatIndividual_10	Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always

51.	11	P5_BuildRespect_11	Act in ways that build others' respect for me.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
52.	12	P5_Moral_12	Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
53.	13	P5_SenseOfPower_13	Display a sense of power and confidence.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
54.	14	P5_FutureVision_14	Articulate a compelling vision of the future	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
55.	15	P5_DifferentNeeds_15	Consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
56.	16	P5_DifferentAngles_16	Get others to look at problem from many different angles.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes

				4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
57.	17	P5_DevelopStrengths_17	Help others to develop their strengths	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
58.	18	P5_NewWays_18	Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
59.	19	P5_SenseOfMission_19	Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
60.	20	P5_GoalAchieving_20	Express confidence that goals will be achieved.	1=Not at all 2=Once in a while 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Frequently if not always
Part5: Organizational Culture				
61.	1	P6_PersonalPlace_1	The Organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share what they have and know.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

62.	2	P6_DynamicPlace_2	The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to do and say what they should and take risks	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
63.	3	P6_ResultsCompetitive_3	The organization is very results and competitive-orientation. What it concerns most is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
64.	4	P6_ControlledStructure_4	The organization is very controlled/formalized and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
65.	5	P6_ManagerMentoring_5	The manager of the organization is generally considered to be an example of mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
66.	6	P6_ManagerInnovation_6	The manager of the organization is generally considered to be an example of entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
67.	7	P6_ManagerCoordinator_7	The manager of the organization is generally considered to be coordinator, or organizer, or an efficiency expert and results-oriented focus.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

68.	8	P6_ManagerOrganizing	The manger of the organization is generally considered to be an example of coordinating, organizing, or smooth running efficiency. And he is a hard driver, a producer, or competitor.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
69.	9	P6_Loyalty_9	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. People have high commitment to the organization.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
70.	10	P6_Commitment_10	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. It also lays an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
71.	11	P6_GoalAccomplishment_11	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
72.	12	P6_FormalRules_12	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintain a smooth-running organization is also emphasized.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
73.	13	P6_HumanDevelopment_13	The organization emphasizes human development. It also stresses the persistence of high trust, openness, and participation.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

74.	14	P6_NewResources_14	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and getting ready for new challenges. Trying new things and searching for opportunities are valued.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
75.	15	P6_CompetitiveActions_15	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are highly stressed.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
76.	16	P6_Stability_16	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are dominant.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
77.	17	P6_SuccessHR_17	The organization defines success according to the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
78.	18	P6_NewestProduct_18	The organization defines success according to having the most unmatched or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
79.	19	P6_SuccessWin_19	The organization defines success according to winning in the marketplace. Competitive market leadership is indispensable.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

80.	20	P6_SuccessEfficiency_20	The organization defines success according to of efficiency. Reliable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost product are very important.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
81.	21	P6_StyleTeamWork_21	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, general consensus, and participation.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
82.	22	P6_StyleFreedom_22	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, freedom, and unusualness.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
83.	23	P6_StyleHighDemand_23	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard driving competitiveness, high demands, and accomplishment.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
84.	24	P6_StyleConformity_24	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and steadiness in relationships.	1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Uncertain 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree
Part6: Strategy Implementation				
85.	1	P7_EffectiveStrategy_1	How effective overall do your organizations' strategies seem to be?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average

				5=Excellent
86.	2	P7_Motivation_2	How effective are your organizations' strategies in terms of increasing employee, motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the organization?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
87.	3	P7_DevelopPotential_3	To what extent do your organization's strategies help all employees to develop their maximum potential?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
88.	4	P7_TreatFair_4	To what extent do your organization's strategies appear to treat all departments fairly?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
89.	5	P7_Visionary_5	To what extent do your organization's strategies appear to adopt a long-term perspective (visionary perspective)?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
90.	6	P7_DependUponOther_6	To what extent does your department success depend upon other department performance?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
91.	7	P7_InLineWithAD_7	To what extent do your organization's strategies seem designed in line with Abu Dhabi government strategy?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average

				5=Excellent
92.	8	P7_WithinScheduled_8	To what extent do your organization's strategies implemented within scheduled time?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
93.	9	P7_AchieveOutcome_9	To what extent do your organization's achieve its intended outcomes in the last 3 years?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
94.	10	P7_AccessToResources_10	To what extent do people in your organizations have access to any required tools and resources to implement the strategy successfully?	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
Part7: Performance				
95.	1	P8_Customer_OnTime_1	On time delivery of services with quality.	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
96.	2	P8_Customer_Community_2	Public image and community involvement	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
97.	3	P8_Customer_Motivation_3	Employee motivation and satisfaction	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average

				4=Above Average 5=Excellent
98.	4	P8_Customer_ReduceTurnOver_4	Reduced turnover rates	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
99.	1	P8_Finance_ReduceCost_1	Reduces costs per services	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
100.	2	P8_Finance_Fund_2	Fund Management	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
101.	3	P8_Finance_Allocation_3	Resource allocation	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
102.	4	P8_Finance_Utilization_4	Resource Utilization	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
103.	1	P8_IntProc_Communication_1	Communication between the departments	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average

				4=Above Average 5=Excellent
104.	2	P8_IntProc_NewService_2	New services development success.	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
105.	3	P8_IntProc_RD_3	Research and Development	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
106.	4	P8_IntProc_ImproveOutcome_4	Allow you to improve outcomes for customers.	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
107.	1	P8_LearnGrowth_Competencies_1	Develop employee competencies.	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
108.	2	P8_LearnGrowth_EmpSkill_2	Employee skills, dedication, and alignment to achieve organization goals	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent
109.	3	P8_LearnGrowth_HaveResource_3	Do you have the information and resources to do your job effectively	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average

				4=Above Average 5=Excellent
110.	4	P8_LearnGrowth_OrgClimate_4	Organization climate helps and motivate you to achieve organizations' goals	1=Poor 2=Satisfy 3=Average 4=Above Average 5=Excellent

BANGOR UNIVERSITY

STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant

This research is concerned with identifying managers' perceptions and attitudes toward challenges in strategy implementation in public sector organizations in UAE. What are the significant organizational factors and processes affecting strategy implementation in public sector and how strategies are implemented? I appreciate if you take 20 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire and return it to the researched by using pre-paid envelop. Your contribution to this research is very important. Thank you for your co-operation and contribution to the survey.

Demographic Profile

1. Organization name and address (optional)

.....
.....

Telephone: Fax: E-mail:

2. Nationality:.....

3. Marital Status: ☐ Single ☐ Married

☐ Divorced ☐ Widow

4. Please indicate your job title within the organization:

Chairman ☐ ☐ member of Executive Council

Director Managing ☐ ☐ Other (*please specify*).....

5. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

6. Please indicate which age group you are in:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 25 | <input type="checkbox"/> 25 – 34 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 35 – 44 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 – 54 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 55- 64 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 65 or more years |

5. Work experience details: in years.....

7. Please indicate your highest level of educational qualification:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary school | <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> Master degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Higher Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> Doctorate |

8. Your education background (e.g. Science, Management etc.):

8. Have you ever had any formal management training? ☐ Yes ☐ No

8. Please list below any professional courses you have taken:.....

Organizational Strategy Audit

1. Does your organization have formal written mission statement? ☐ Yes ☐ No

a. If yes, does the mission statement reflect a clear achievable and measureable goal?

☐ Yes ☐ No

2. Does your organization have formal organizational strategic objectives? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If Yes, Are those objectives		
Specific	<input type="checkbox"/> YES	<input type="checkbox"/> NO
Measurable	<input type="checkbox"/> YES	<input type="checkbox"/> NO
Achievable	<input type="checkbox"/> YES	<input type="checkbox"/> NO
Realistic	<input type="checkbox"/> YES	<input type="checkbox"/> NO
Time pounded	<input type="checkbox"/> YES	<input type="checkbox"/> NO
Comments:		

2. How often are your organization's strategies reviewed?

(Please answer in months): ----- months.

3. Has your organization a systematic approach to strategic management:

a. Undergo an environmental scanning to identify internal (strengths and weaknesses) and external (threats and opportunities)? ☐ Yes ☐ NO

b. Develop long-range plans and set policy guidelines? ☐ Yes ☐ No

c. Develop programs, budgets, and procedures to put the plans into action? ☐ Yes ☐ No

- d. Monitor the organizational activities and performance results and compare it with the desired performance? ☐ Yes ☐ No

4. Please indicate whether or not this approach has an impact or potential impact on any of the following:

Question	Very high	High	moderate	Low	Very low
Organizational effectiveness					
Why?.....					
Operational decision making					
Why?.....					
Developing strategic objectives					
Why?.....					
Implementing strategic objectives					
Why?.....					

Organizational structure

Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of these statements by putting a tick in the space that most clearly represents your view:

Statement	Strongly Agree	agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Agree
Your work would be considered routine.					
There is a clearly known way to do the major tasks you encounter.					
Your organization has highly stable and highly structured character.					
Your work has low variety and frequent exceptions.					
In your organization, people have loyalty to the organization rather than projects and teams.					
Communications from above consist of instructions and directions rather than information and advice.					
Your organization has high formalization.					
You seldom exchange ideas or information with people doing other kind of jobs.					
Decisions relevant to your work are made above you and passed down.					
People at your level rarely have to figure out for themselves what their jobs are for the day.					
Lines of authority are clear and precisely defined and chain of command clearly defined.					
Leadership tends to be autocratic rather than democratic in style.					
Job descriptions are written and up-to-date for each job.					
People do not understand each other's jobs					

and seldom do different tasks.					
A manual of policies and procedures is available to use when a problem arises.					
Team working is not essential for doing my job.					

Leadership

Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of these statements by putting a tick in the space that most clearly represents your view:

Question	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
I talk about my most important values and beliefs					
I seek different perspectives when solving problem					
I talk optimistically about the future					
I instill pride in others for being associated with me					
I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
I spend time teaching and coaching					
I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group					

I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group					
I act in ways that build others' respect for me					
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
I display a sense of power and confidence					
I articulate a compelling vision of the future					
I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
I get others to look at problem from many different angles					
I help others to develop their strengths I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
I express confidence that goals will be achieved					

Organizational Culture

Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of these statements by putting a tick in the space that most clearly represents your view:

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
The Organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem					

to share what they have and know.					
The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to do and say what they should and take risks					
The organization is very results and competitive-orientation. What it concerns most is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.					
The organization is very controlled/formalized and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.					
The manager of the organization is generally considered to be an example of mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.					
The manager of the organization is generally considered to be an example of entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking.					
The manager of the organization is generally considered to be coordinator, or organizer, or an efficiency expert and results-oriented focus.					
The manger of the organization is generally considered to be an example of coordinating, organizing, or smooth running efficiency. And he is a hard driver, a producer, or competitor.					
The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. People have high commitment to the organization.					
The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and					

development. It also lays an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.					
The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.					
The glue that hold the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintain a smooth-running organization is also emphasized.					
The organization emphasizes human development. It also stresses the persistence of high trust, openness, and participation.					
The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and getting ready for new challenges. Trying new things and searching for opportunities are valued.					
The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are highly stressed.					
The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are dominant.					
The organization defines success according to the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.					
The organization defines success according to having the most unmatched or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.					
The organization defines success according to winning in the marketplace. Competitive market leadership is					

indispensable.					
The organization defines success according to of efficiency. Reliable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost product are very important.					
The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, general consensus, and participation.					
The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, freedom, and unusualness.					
The management style in the organization is characterized by hard driving competitiveness, high demands, and accomplishment.					
The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and steadiness in relationships.					

Strategy Implementation:

This section aims to measure the success of strategy Implementation in your organization. Using the scales below, please mark (x) in the box which best describes your perception of the effective strategy implementation on each of the following questions:

Statement	Poor	satisfy	average	Above average	Excellent
How effective overall do your organizations' strategies seem to be?					
How effective are your organizations' strategies in terms of increasing employee, motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the organization?					

To what extent do your organization's strategies help all employees to develop their maximum potential?					
To what extent do your organization's strategies appear to treat all departments fairly?					
To what extent do your organization's strategies appear to adopt a long-term perspective?					
To what extent does your department success depend upon other department performance?					
To what extent do your organization's strategies seem designed in line with Abu Dhabi government strategy?					
To what extent do your organization's strategies implemented within scheduled time?					
To what extent do your organization's achieve its intended outcomes in the last 3 years?					
To what extent do people in your organizations have access to any required tools and resources to implement the strategy successfully?					

Performance:

The aim of this part is to determine the relative importance for using each of the following performance measures to long term success of your organization. Using the scales below; please mark (x) in the box which describes your responses respectively for importance as drivers of long-term success.

Performance categories	Importance to long term success				
	Poor	Satisfy	Average	Above average	Excellent
Customer					
On time delivery of services					
Public image and community involvement					
Defect rates and quality of services					
Employee motivation and satisfaction					
Developed employee competencies					
Reduced turnover rates					
Financial					
Reduces costs per services					
Efficiency of the services					
Internal Processes					
Communication between the departments					
New services development success					
Research and Development					
Allow you to improve outcomes for customers					
Allow you to work towards your mission					
Learning and Growth					

Managerial effectiveness					
Develop employee competencies					
Employee skills, dedication, and alignment to achieve organization goals					
Do you have the information and resources to do your job effectively					
Organization climate helps and motivate you to achieve organizations' goals					

Thank you for your participation