

Critical Factors in the Successful Implementation of Strategic Change: Evidence from the United Arab Emirates

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ABSTRACT

High failure rates of change implementation have been a continuous challenge for researchers in the area of organisational change management. There is a strong need for research to identify factors that will help to reduce these failure rates, especially in the public sector. This study therefore attempts to respond to the call for more research into organisational change both in Western countries and in the Middle East in particular, by examining the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture. This research study explores aspects of the relationships between these factors through the use of a case study involving the implementation of strategic organisational change in a public sector organisation in the United Arab Emirates, that is, the Abu Dhabi Police. A mixed-methods approach using a combination of questionnaire, interviews and documentary analysis was employed to gather data for the study. Analyses were performed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

The findings provide evidence of the extent to which the public sector in the Middle East is dominated by a bureaucratic and transformational leadership styles, privilege of power, a mechanistic organisational structure and public sector's culture, which in turn affects the successful implementation of strategic organisational change in this context. While it was found that, in this context, leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture are key factors which should be considered in order to implement successful change, the study also provides insights into the complex relationships that exist between these factors. On the basis of these results, issues and implications are identified which offer a contribution to the design and implementation of successful organisational change strategies in the public sector in the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular.

DECLARATION

I, Rashid Althakhri, hereby declare that no portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this piece of work to HH Lt. General Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan (Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior). I also dedicate this work to my beloved wife, lovely daughters, mother, brothers and sister. Without their patience, tremendous encouragement and support, this work would have not been accomplished.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Change management has emerged over the past two decades as one of the most prevalent topics of management theory and practice (Thurlow and Mills, 2009). In the 1980s, organisations began to operate in environments subject to radical, sudden and unpredictable shifts, rather than in more stable and predictable situations where change is familiar and incremental (Webster, 1992; Dervitsiotis, 1998; Graetz et al., 2002; Okumus, 2003). Rapid technological developments and changes in political, economic and socio-cultural environments require an organisation to reduce costs, improve the quality of its products or services, locate new opportunities for improvement and increase productivity in order to survive (Kotter, 1996; Self and Schraeder, 2009; Lyons et al. 2009). Therefore, organisations failing to respond to these changes in appropriate time might run the risk of losing market share, key employees and shareholder support (Self and Schraeder, 2009). Unfortunately, it has been argued (Werkman 2009; Todnem, 2010; Jaros, 2010) that organisations both private and public have high rates of failure of implementation of change.

This study therefore aims to examine critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change which should be considered by public sector organisations in order to manage successful change and avoid failure. The context of this study is the Middle East in general and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in particular. In order to arrive at meaningful results, the study is organised into nine chapters; the outline of each will be described later in this chapter.

The main aim of this first chapter is to provide a general rationalisation of why this study needed to be carried out. Regarding the contents, it provides a brief summary of the change management field and its issues and challenges in both developed and developing countries, followed by concise background information on the country where this study is set. In addition, an overview of the problem statement, purpose and scope of the study will be provided.

1.2 Change Management in Western Countries: Issues and Challenges

In Western countries, organisations face challenges to the successful implementation of change; Burnes (2003) indicates that one of the most important challenges facing organisations today is managing successful change. This view is supported by Self and

Schraeder (2009:167) who indicate that “the first challenge organisations face is recognizing the need for change. The second, and possibly more significant, challenge organizations face is effectively deploying strategies to implement change”. Consequently, there is a very considerable literature on change management which provides various strategies for implementing change in an organisation, but it has been argued (Hartley, 2002; Waldersee and Griffiths, 2004; Todnem, 2005; Walker et al., 2007; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009; Self and Schraeder, 2009; Jaros, 2010) that the implementation of change has long been problematic. Hartley (2002) indicates that fewer than 30% of change initiatives are successful. Oakland and Tanner (2007) and Lyons et al. (2009) support this observation by reporting that the success rate of change programmes can be as low as 10%. For instance, over 90% of TQM initiatives by American companies fail, as do 80% by UK and European organisations. Similarly, it has been estimated that fewer than 30% of business process re-engineering initiatives are successful. Also, it has been found that the failure rate of new technology change anywhere is between 40% and 70% (Burnes, 2003). Werkman (2009) indicates that the 70% failure rate of change implementation seems to have been stable over the last decade and that understanding failure of implementation has been a continuous challenge for researchers from different schools of thought in the area of change management. Thus, many researchers such as Todnem (2005:370) indicate that there is no valid model of how to manage and implement change successfully. He also claims that the change management models which are available to academics and practitioners depend on a broad range of contradictory and confusing theories and approaches. This view is supported by Drummond-Hay and Bamford (2009), who point out that not all change management theories and models are relevant to the requirements of today’s organisations. Drummond-Hay and Bamford (2009) and Alfes (2010) note that the change management literature also contains various models which cause confusion regarding the most appropriate change methodologies for organisation. Moreover, Guimaraes and Armstrong (1998) state that very little empirical evidence is available to support the different theories and approaches underlying change management, while Andrews et al. (2008) indicate that the nature of available theory of organisational change is limited in its practical usefulness.

- **Public Sector and Change Management**

It is argued (Coram and Burnes, 2001; Cunningham and Kempling, 2009; Greasley et al., 2009) that change within the public sector is more difficult than change in the

private sector. In more detail, it has been found (Coram and Burnes, 2001; Rusaw, 2007; Greasley et al., 2009) that most models of change management are designed for private sector organisations whose focus is on profit, enterprise goals and helping the private sector to be responsive to external change; yet this approach is implemented in the public sector, which operates in an entirely different context from that of the private sector. In particular, it has legally based purposes and operates under a bureaucratic culture of rules and regulations, public accountability, demonstrating value for money, with focus on the customer rather than market interests (Coram and Burnes, 2001; Greasley et al., 2009). In addition, public sector cultures are traditionally risk-averse, which can hamper change (Greasley et al., 2009). Werkman (2009) therefore argues that the main problem is that change management models are usually generalised to the public sector. He also indicates that “there has been no research inquiring into such patterns with respect to both structure and agency-related variables and different sectors” (p. 666). Coram and Burnes (2001:94) state that most of the major studies of approaches to change “ignore the need to develop approaches which are in tune with the circumstances in which public service organisations now find themselves”. Consequently, these problems call for research in the public sector (Werkman, 2009).

1.3 Change Management in the Middle East Region: Issues and Challenges

This problematic nature of change management initiatives should not be considered to be a feature of the field that is confined to the Western world. In fact, the rather limited information available suggests that over a prolonged period of time, change management failure rates in the Middle East are broadly similar to those reported in the West. For example, Alkadera and Alfawori (1994) report that despite support from the political administration in Jordan for the organisational development agenda, backed by the introduction of new legislation, the process of organisational development has been unsuccessful. Similarly, Al-Shihi (2006) reports that the success rate of e-government change initiatives in developing countries such as the Middle East is approximately 15 percent. At a more general level, Alqahtani (2006) argues that the absence of a strategic change and development agenda has led to various problems in the Arab world which impact upon OCD initiatives throughout the Middle East. These problems include increased numbers of foreign workers and high unemployment rates, lack of loyalty to organisations, the undue influence of the tribal system and family relationships within companies, the spread of administrative corruption, and conflict between public sector

ministries in terms of their responsibilities and lack of interaction with international players.

Against this background, Alqahtani (2006) emphasizes the importance of change management as a powerful strategy in order to reform organizations in the Middle East. Support for this approach comes from Alqaruni and Alanzi (2004), who assessed efforts towards administrative reform in all the ministries in Kuwait following the Iraqi invasion and found that the achievements of management development were weak, primarily because there was no clear strategy to develop the public sector in Kuwait. Therefore, they recommended that national and organizational leaders should design a national reform change strategy in order to improve all Kuwaiti ministries. Similarly, Alfawari and Alamari (2000) surveyed a group of 200 managers to examine their attitudes towards organisational development and change in the service sector in Qatar. They found that one of the most important problems facing the process of management development in Qatar was the absence of clear strategies for organizational change and development. They concluded that leaders of organizations should develop a change management framework which would help the service sector in Qatar to implement its strategy and action plan. Moreover, they urged that such a framework should be compatible with the organizational culture embedded in Qatari society. As well as the work outlined above, a limited number of studies are available on change management in the Middle East (Al Blori, 2005).

- **Gap Statement**

These high failure rates and challenges in change management in both developed and developing countries indicate that there are still plenty of new opportunities for further investigations which might identify some factors that influence the rate of success in change implementation and hence contribute to reducing the failure rate. This view is supported by many previous researchers (e.g. Appelbaum et al., 1998; Underwood-Stephens and Cobb, 1999; Weber and Weber, 2001; Chrusciel and Field, 2006; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Zhang et al., 2009), who suggest that organisations must address critical factors during periods of change in order to be successful. Burnes (2003:631) also indicates that “it is important when seeking to bring about organisational change that we understand the causes of failure and the guidelines for success”, while Todnem (2005) suggests that further study is needed to increase the knowledge of organisational change and to identify the critical factors in successful implementation of change. It has

been argued, however (Werkman, 2009; Zhang et al., 2009), that there is no agreement among scholars about factors crucial to the successful implementation of strategic change. Despite this disagreement, an overview of literature on change implementation indicates that leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture are the factors most frequently cited by authors. This view is supported by Burnes (2004a), who argues that leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture are considered the most important factors and there is growing consensus in the literature that they have an important influence on the success or failure of change implementation programmes. Accepting this point of view, the present research is limited to these factors. Although they are quite often presented in literature, new empirical studies are more than welcome and necessary to increase the success rate of change implementation (Zhang et al., 2009). Walker et al. (2007:762) also indicate that

“research on change has focused on each of these factors on an individual basis, but little research exists integrating these change factors. Until recently, these topics received little attention in the change literature. This called for an increase in organizational change research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success”.

This study therefore endeavours to fill this gap by conducting empirical research to investigate the role and relationships of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and culture, and relationships among these factors, in successful implementation of strategic change in the public sector in the UAE, a country whose society is deemed to be conservative and where religion represents a considerable cultural influence. Therefore, the main aim of this study is to examine these factors in depth in the context of the UAE. In order to understand the trials and tribulations of change management in this region, this study proposes to study the experience of managing change in a particular organisation in the UAE. Prior to that, this study will provide a brief overview of the UAE.

1.4 The Context of the Study: Background of UAE

This research is concerned with the issue of change management in the UAE, which cannot be studied independently of the economic, political and social environment. That is, social, economic and political factors in any country play an important role in shaping the management system in general and, therefore, change management in particular (Ali, 1996; Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Rees and Althakhri,

2008). This section therefore focuses upon the UAE through a brief description of the country's geography and population, followed by its historical background, then an overview of its political and legal system and its economic aspects. Given the importance of Arab culture and its impact on management and change, it will be discussed in more detail in chapter three.

1.4.1 Geography and Population of UAE

According to the UAE Year Book (2009), the UAE occupies a regionally important strategic location on the Arabian Gulf, between latitudes 26.08 to 22.5 N and longitudes 55.5 to 58.37E. To the north is the Arabian Gulf, to the south-west the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, to the south the Sultanate of Oman and to the east the Gulf of Oman. The UAE therefore has a desert climate, warm and sunny in winter, hot and humid during the summer months. Average rainfall is 100 mm annually, although it varies considerably across the country, with higher rainfall in the eastern mountains, where it is also generally cooler. The area of the UAE is 82,880 sq km. The UAE comprises seven emirates: Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al Qaiwain, Ras Al Khaymah and Fujairah. The capital city is Abu Dhabi (UAE Year Book, 2009). The population in 2009 was 5.06 million and the demographic profile is illustrated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: The Estimation of Population Profile of UAE in 2007

Population	4.488 million (2007)
Nationals	864,000
Non-nationals	3.62 million
Male	3.08 million
Female	1.4 million
Annual population growth rate	6.3 %
Most populated emirate	Abu Dhabi, with 1.494 million
Religions	Islam – Practice of all religions is allowed
Language	Arabic

UAE Year Book (2009:6)

1.4.2 Historical Background of UAE

The UAE was based on the tribal groups which controlled the Arabian Peninsula sheikhdoms along the southern coast of the Arabian Gulf and the north-western coast of the Gulf of Oman (Library of Congress, 2007). Most UAE nationals belong two tribal

groupings, the Qawasim and the Bani Yas, which became leading powers in the eighteenth century. The Qawasim, mostly land and sea traders, dominated what are today the emirates of Ras al Khaymah and Sharjah, while the Bani Yas, who were agricultural and pastoral, lived in Abu Dhabi and Dubai. From the seventeenth to the nineteenth century, the area became known as the Pirate Coast, as both European and Arab pirates attacked foreign ships (ibid).

In 1820 Britain signed a general treaty of peace with the principal sheikhs of the Pirate Coast and Bahrain in order to end plundering, piracy and the slave trade. In May 1853, a “perpetual maritime truce” was declared and supervised by Britain. The coastal sheikhdoms now became known as the Trucial Coast. From this period until independence in 1971, they were under British protection, which meant that Britain assumed responsibility for their defence and external relations, while the sheikhdoms followed the traditional form of Arab monarchy, where each ruler had virtually absolute power over his subjects (Library of Congress, 2007).

In March 1968, the Trucial Coast states joined Bahrain and Qatar to form the Federation of Arab Emirates, but Bahrain and Qatar seceded from it in 1971. In 1971, Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Al Fujayrah, Dubai, Sharjah and Umm alQaywayn agreed on a federal constitution as the UAE and independence was declared. Ras al Khaymah joined the UAE in February 1972. Sheikh Zayid bin Sultan Al Nahyan of Abu Dhabi was the first president of the UAE, until his death in 2004. The ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Rashid bin Said Al Maktoum, became vice president, and his eldest son, Sheikh Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the crown prince of Dubai, was named prime minister. In 1971 the UAE adopted a provisional constitution that was intended to expire after five years but it was in fact renewed until the adoption of a permanent constitution in 1996 (Library of Congress, 2007).

1.4.3 Political System of UAE

The UAE has a federal system of government with the following institutions: (1) the Supreme Council, (2) the Council of Ministers (The UAE’s parliament), (3) the Federal National Council and (4) the Federal Judiciary (UAE at Glance, 2009). The Supreme Council includes the rulers of each emirate; the President and Vice-President of the UAE are elected from them every five years. Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan (Ruler of Abu Dhabi) was elected President of the UAE on 3 November 2004 and

Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum (Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai) was elected Vice President in January 2006. The Council is responsible for all issues related to the Emirates such as ratifying federal laws and decrees, planning general policy, approving the nomination of the Prime Minister and accepting his resignation, ratifying international agreements and appointing the judges of the Federal Supreme Court (UAE at Glance, 2009). The Council of Ministers comprises the Prime Minister, his deputies and all ministers. It has executive authority for the federation such as the execution of internal and external federal policy, proposing federal law and the federal budget, and the execution of treaties and international agreements (United Nations, 2004; UAE at Glance, 2009). The Federal National Council (FNC) has both legislative and supervisory roles. Forty seats are allocated to the individual emirates on the basis of population and size. In order to enhance public participation and establish democracy, in 2005 the president of the UAE announced that half of the FNC members for each emirate were to be elected by members of electoral colleges established by each ruler, rather than being appointed by the ruler as before. The FNC has nine women members, which indicates that UAE's women are expanding their participation at all levels of government and political society (UAE at Glance, 2009). Finally, the Federal Judiciary includes the Supreme Court and the Courts of First Instance (United Nations, 2004; UAE at Glance, 2009).

In addition to federal institutions, each of the seven emirates has its own local government. The relationship between the federal and local governments is laid down in the constitution, which allows for a degree of flexibility in the distribution of authority (United Nations, 2004; UAE at Glance, 2009).

1.4.4 The UAE Economy

The UAE economy is heavily dependent on oil and natural gas. The UAE is the third largest oil producer in OPEC with a capacity of around 2.7 m barrels/day and controls 7.9% of the world's proven oil reserves (97.8 bn barrels) (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008). UAE oil production has fluctuated in line with OPEC policy, as Table 1.2 shows.

Table 1.2: UAE Oil and Gas Production, 2003-2008

Year		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008 1st qtr	2008 2nd qtr
Oil	Oil output (m barrels/day)	2.29	2.35	2.46	2.62	2.52	2.62	2.66
	% change, year on year	15.1	2.8	4.5	6.5	-3.8	2.7	3.3
Gas	Gas output (bn cu ft/day)	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.8	N/A	N/A
	% change, year on year	3.2	3.3	1.5	0.9	3.8	N/A	N/A

Source: The Economist Intelligence Unit (2008:26)

The UAE's energy policy is led by Abu Dhabi, which produces over 95% of the country's oil and gas output. A decline in Dubai's oil production since 1990 has led Dubai to focus on activities such as tourism, construction, telecommunications, media and financial services (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008). Abu Dhabi and Dubai together provide more than 80% of UAE's income (Library of Congress, 2007). The UAE has a strong Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is not only driven by oil but also by sustained expansion in the non-oil sector, as can be seen in Table 1.3

Table 1.3: GDP of UAE

Year		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Real GDP Growth (%)		11.9	9.7	8.2	9.4	7.5	7.4
Real GDP Growth by Sector (%)	Agriculture	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.6	-
	Industry	53.3	52.1	50.6	51.0	49.4	-
	Service	43.8	44.9	46.5	46.2	47.9	-

Source: The Economist Intelligence Unit (2008:26)

The oil and gas sector contributes more than 30% of GDP, while agriculture makes a small contribution, because of the hard climatic conditions; therefore the government invests in agriculture in countries such as Sudan and Pakistan in order to have self-sufficiency. Regarding industry, the main heavy industries in the UAE are those related to petroleum, such as the production of liquefied petroleum gas, fuel oil and jet fuels. The establishment of free zones such as the Jebel Ali Free Zone in Dubai and the Jebel Azannah and Aruways Free Zone has encouraged investment in manufacturing. For instance, the Jebel Ali Free Zone hosts more than 3,000 firms from over 100 countries. Aluminium is another heavy industry and is dominated by Dubai Aluminium (Dubal). The company's production of hot metal reached 0.24 m tonnes in the second quarter of 2008 and has target for an annual total of 0.95 m. The Emirates Aluminium Company, which is jointly owned by Abu Dhabi's (Mubadala) Development Company and Dubal,

was incorporated in 2006 in order to build and finance aluminium smelters both within and outside the UAE. The service sector has been the best growing sector of the economy over the past 15 years; its contribution to GDP more than doubled from 23% in 1993 to 47.9% in 2007. This growth is attributed to Dubai's aggressive promotion of tourism and the financial sector (Library of Congress, 2007; The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008; UAE at Glance, 2009).

Inflation in the UAE has been higher than in most of the oil-based Gulf economies and has increased strongly in recent years, reaching 14% in 2008, for several reasons: (1) the weakness of the US dollar, to which the UAE currency is pegged, (2) a rise in domestic demand generated by booming international oil prices, rising government spending, low interest rates and strong population growth, and (3) sharp rises in property prices and rents in both the residential and the commercial sectors, forcing companies to raise their wages to retain staff and to increase their prices to cover their additional costs (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008:27).

1.4.5 Strategic Change in the UAE Public Sector

In general, it has been realised that the UAE public sector suffers from ineffective strategic planning, which led the UAE government to introduce a new strategic plan in 2007 (UAE Strategy, 2007). Government strategy is directed at achieving continuous improvement, good quality service and better living standards for people. This strategy comprises six main principles: (1) to maintain continuous cooperation between federal and local authorities; (2) to revitalize the regulatory and policy-making role of the ministries and improve decision-making mechanisms; (3) to increase the efficiency of governmental bodies and upgrade the level of services by focusing on customer needs; (4) to develop civil service regulations and human resources, focusing on competence, effective "Emiratisation" and leadership training; (5) to empower ministries to manage their activities in line with public and joint policies; and (6) to review and upgrade legislation and regulations (UAE Strategy, 2007:2). The UAE Prime Minister also introduced a new vision to all public sector bodies:

"Our vision is that we become one of the best governments in providing quality services, nurturing creative minds, building national talent, innovating solutions and adopting international best practices" (UAE Strategy, 2007:9).

The public policies for this sector include a focus on strategic planning and building an integrated performance management system; upgrading the civil service system by training mid-level managers and using competency as the main criteria for recruiting, promoting and retaining employees; developing government services based on international best practices and promoting a culture of excellence in service delivery; and strengthening e-government programmes (UAE Strategy, 2007).

1.5 Significance of the Study

Taking the overall issues of the change management field together, it can be observed that change management in both developed and developing nations requires more research in order to identify factors that help to reduce the failure rates in change management, especially in public sector organisations (see Appelbaum et al., 1998; Underwood-Stephens and Cobb, 1999; Weber and Weber, 2001; Burnes, 2003; Chrusciel and Field, 2006; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Zhang et al., 2009).

It can also be said that change management is an essential area of research which has not been satisfactorily addressed in non-Western settings, particularly in a multicultural and Islamic setting such as the UAE (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Therefore, this research is expected to contribute to the generalisability to non-Western work settings of the existing body of research, which has been carried out mostly in the West, to improve our understanding of theories of change and to test their validity. Support for this is provided by Aycan et al. (2007), who indicate that research in developing countries is required both to test the generalisability of theories and practice originating in Western culture and to identify proper alternative strategies for different cultures. The research will provide a clear understanding of the similarities and differences in change management between the West and the Middle East.

The importance of this study also stems from the UAE's five-year strategic plan. Change management has been the core concern of the government and of the Prime Minister, who indicates that "There is a need to maximize efforts and introduce radical changes to the existing practices within the UAE Government" (UAE Strategy, 2007:2). The findings of this research therefore might help the government and authorities in UAE to give considerable attention to some factors in order to manage successful public sector change. According to Zwieten (1999:49), "good strategy often ends up defeated by poor change management".

1.6 Objectives of the Research

This study is therefore a response to the call for more research in change management, especially in the Middle East. It will examine the role and relationships of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and culture in the successful implementation of strategic change in the UAE public sector, employing the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) as a case study from which lessons will be drawn to be applied more widely. The objectives of this research can therefore be divided into two groups, conceptual and empirical. At the conceptual level, the research aims:

1. To review approaches to organisational change and their relative merits;
2. To explain the factors critical to the successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture;
3. To critique key aspects of Arab culture which impact upon management practices and the successful implementation of change.
4. To investigate the relationships among factors critical to the successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture.

The second part of the research deals with empirical matters. At this level, the research aims:

5. To carry out a survey of opinion on leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture among employees of ADP in order to investigate their views regarding these factors.
6. To carry out semi-structured interviews on leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture with managers and experts in ADP in order to gain rich insights into their opinions, experiences and feelings related to change.
7. To examine documents on leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture from the UAE government in order to supplement the survey and interview data.

1.7 Scope of Research

Given the strong need to investigate change management in totality, in order to understand what the challenges are to reducing high failure rates, this study will not focus on all of the many factors affecting the wide field of change management. Rather,

it will examine in depth the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture, and relationships among these factors, in the successful implementation of strategic change. Walker et al. (2007) argue that there is little research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success and integration between them. An overview of the literature on change implementation indicates that there is need to examine in depth those factors which can help to implement successful change (see Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham 2008; Greasley et al. 2009).

1.8 Structure of the Study

This thesis has nine chapters, whose content can be summarised as follows.

- **Chapter 1: Introduction**

This chapter has provided a brief overview of the study and of the change management field in Western and Middle Eastern countries. It describes the context of the study, sets out the significance of the research, states its objectives and explains its scope.

- **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

This chapter reviews the change management field in more detail. It considers the definition of change management, its historical background and approaches to it, then reviews the factors considered critical to the successful implementation of strategic change. The literature is reviewed in order to ensure that the research instruments are designed to reflect the theoretical and practical aspects which the literature considers.

- **Chapter 3: The Arab World and Organisational Change**

This chapter aims to examine the context of the Arab world and the impact of Arab culture on management systems in general and change management in particular. It describes Arab culture and its influence on management practices and organisational change, then examines previous research into change management in the Arab world.

- **Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology**

This chapter describes the research design adopted in this study. It explains the choice of research philosophy, methodologies and methods employed, then gives a description of the research setting and its change management. This chapter also explains the design of the data collection instruments and the data analysis strategy.

- **Chapter 5: Survey Results**

This chapter presents the results of a quantitative analysis performed on data collected through questionnaires. The survey was designed to gauge employees' views on factors

critical to the successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture.

- **Chapter 6: Interview Results**

The objective of this chapter is to present the results of the qualitative analysis carried out on the transcription of the interviews. These were conducted with key or elite managers and experts in order to provide rich insights into their opinions, experiences and feelings related to change and leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture.

- **Chapter 7: Documentary Analysis**

This chapter presents the results of documentary analysis in order to improve the overall picture of critical factors in the implementation of strategic change and to supplement the findings of the questionnaire survey and the interviews.

- **Chapter 8: Discussion of the Findings**

The main objective of this chapter is to discuss the empirical findings of surveys, interviews and documentary analysis and to compare them with existing theory and published studies, examining whether the results of the present study are consistent with each other and with those of other studies. Finally, it will examine the extent of applicability of change management theory to the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular.

- **Chapter 9: Conclusion**

This chapter summarises the implication and conclusions of the study. It also provides some recommendations that may help to enhance the implementation of change management in the Middle East in general and in the UAE in particular. Finally, it states the contribution to knowledge made by the present study suggests an agenda for further study and considers the study's limitations.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to review approaches to and models of organisational change in order to recognise the assumptions behind them and to identify the factors exerting an influence on change management. This review addresses the need for managing change successfully in the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular. It is perceived as essential in that it provides the context and justification for an empirical study. This chapter, therefore, consists of the following three sections: (1) definition of change management; (2) the theoretical foundation of organisational change; (3) major approaches to change; and (4) the critical factors of successful implementation of strategic change.

2.2 Definitions of Change Management

While the concept of change is generally understood, there is no universally agreed definition of organisational change or of change management (Hughes, 2006). This may be because no one recognises precisely what organisational change is, as it has been stated that “the nature of change is dynamic and complex”. Thus, the nature of change tends to differ both over time and between different organisations, with the issues considered important in one organisation, or at one particular point in time, being regarded as less important in other organisations or at other periods (Hughes, 2006). However, several useful definitions of change management have been proposed in the management literature and a number of these are set out in Table 2.1.

At a general level, the table shows agreement between researchers that change management is about new direction for organisations. The main contrast between them is the factors that can set this direction and help to implement successful change. From definitions and descriptions of change management, there are several factors that should be considered in order to implement successful change, such as leadership, organisational structure, culture and power/politics. It has therefore been argued (Dawson, 2004, Rees, 2010) that attempting to formulate what change management means for organisations remains a key problem for academics and practitioners alike. Dawson (2004) indicates that change management has wide disparities in its definition and concept, rooted in the different schools of thought upon which ideas of organisational change are based. Therefore, the different schools of change management will be discussed in the next section.

Table 2.1: Definitions and descriptions of change management

Author	Definition
Burke (2002:1)	Organisational change is intended “to turn the organisation in another direction, to fundamentally modify the way we do things, to overhaul the structure and to provide organisational members with a whole new vision for the future”. Thus, in order to survive, an organisation needs to be responsive to changes in the external environment by modifying its strategy, structure and culture.
Dawson (2003:16)	Dawson defines organisational change as “new ways of organising and working”. He argues that its main assumption is that to identify and implement best practice means to organise the activities of workers in order to ensure that services have optimum value in marketplace and employees’ abilities are aligned to the firm’s objectives.
Fincham & Rhodes (2005:525)	Organisational change means “the leadership and direction of the process of organisational transformation, especially with regard to human aspects and overcoming resistance to change”. This definition pays attention to leadership and clear direction of organisational change in order to manage resistance to change, which lead to effective implementation of change.
Todnem (2005:369)	Change management is “the process of continually renewing an organization’s direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers”. According to this definition, change should be a continual and open-ended process. Many factors should also be considered in order to manage change successfully, including vision, organisational structure and the external and internal environments.
Osborne and Brown (2005:5)	Organisational change in a public service is defined as “a broad phenomenon that involves the growth and development of one or more of a number of elements of a public service including the design of the service, the structure of service, the management and the skills required to provide and manage the public service”. This definition indicates that public service needs to have a new organisational structure, appropriate management style and proper skills in order for it to be managed effectively.
Hughes (2006:2)	Change management can be defined as “attending to organisational change transition processes at organisational, group and individual levels”. Hughes states that organisational change should involve all employees at different levels of the organisation in order to manage change, rather than being the responsibility of a single change manager. He also argues that change management can be planned or emergent.
Jimieson et al. (2009:233)	Organizational change management is concerned with facilitating the process of change through modification of strategies, structures and processes, with many authors emphasizing that the support of employees is central to determining whether change initiatives will succeed or fail
Hayes (2010:11)	Hayes defines change management as “transforming an organisation in order to maintain or improve organisational effectiveness”. This definition emphasises the importance of the role of managers in organisational change. Managers, therefore, are responsible for making sure that the organisation performs effectively. To do this they must identify what aspects of the organisation should be changed in order to enhance performance and what steps must be taken to maintain these changes.
Rees (2010:2)	Rees describes change management as issues surrounding the aims, values, leadership, practice, and evaluation of organisational change interventions which are often shrouded in ambiguity and controversy. Thus, he indicates that the perceived purpose of an organisational change intervention is often multidimensional, unstated and, in some cases, unconsciously strategised and resisted by various stakeholders involved in the process.

2.3 The Theoretical Foundations of Change Management

Exploring the theoretical foundations of change management is essential for those who need to manage change successfully (Burnes, 2004a). Cameron and Green (2004) claim that it helps to identify the range of assumptions that affect people’s attitudes within an organisation and to understand how organisations work in terms of change. Support for this view is offered by Burnes (2004a), who states that understanding organisational theories is essential to change management for two reasons: first, they pay attention to

models that explain how organisations should be managed and structured; second, they provide descriptions of the behaviour and effectiveness of individuals and groups in an organisation. Similarly, Palmer et al. (2006:23) demonstrate that the theoretical approach to change management affects “our interpretations of what we think is going on, what we think needs to happen, and how we think things should happen”. Despite the fact that tracing the origin of theoretical approaches to organisational change is very complex (Rees, 2010), because change management draws on a number of social science disciplines, there are nevertheless a number of approaches providing useful insights into the process of managing change (Burnes, 2004a). These include classical theory, the open system approach and contingency theory (see Stickland, 1998; Burke, 2002; Hayes, 2002; Dawson, 2003; Cameron and Green, 2004; Burnes, 2004a).

2.3.1 The Classical Approach to Change

In general, this perspective stresses the importance of the rational planning and control of work, the technical needs of the organisation, an appropriate division of work and centralisation of authority in order to organise the work within the organisation (Mullins, 2005; Morgan 1998). Therefore, a successful organisation, according to this perspective, should be managed in such a way as to reduce employees’ discretion and to maximise management control (Burnes, 2004a). Before elaborating the main principles of the classical approach to change, it is important to discuss briefly the main tenets and assumptions of this school. Within the classical approach, there are two major sub-groupings, each of which provides a useful principle on which to base the design of the organisational change: the scientific management approach and the bureaucratic approach (Hatch, 1997; Martin, 2001; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Cole, 2004).

2.3.1.1 Scientific Management Approach

This approach comes from the work of Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol, who concentrated on the practical problems faced by managers of industrial organisations (Hatch, 1997). Their ideas drew upon the view that management is a process of planning, organising, coordination, control and command (Morgan, 1998; Burnes, 2004a).

Taylor proposed the following five main principles of scientific management: (1) Managers are responsible for planning, designing and controlling work, while workers must concentrate on the task of implementation, so that conflict between management

and employees will be eliminated; (2) Scientific methods are used to identify the best way of doing work; (3) The best person is selected to carry out the work effectively. Thus, the organisation will obtain the best results if employees are paid by results; (4) Employees must be trained to perform their work effectively; and (5) Their performance must be monitored in order to ensure that desirable results are accomplished and appropriate procedures followed (Morgan, 1998:23; Burnes, 2004; Clegg et al., 2005). According to Taylor's principles, workers should be controlled by the giving of orders, close supervision, the division of work, the definition of tasks and the centralisation of authority (Burnes, 2004a). Taylor's system of management control saw employees as 'human machines' who must be given detailed instructions on what each of them has to do (Burnes, 2004a).

Henri Fayol was another engineer who is often regarded as the most significant founder of the scientific management approach (Clegg et al., 2005). He concentrated on efficiency at the organisational level rather than the task level: top down, rather than bottom up (Burnes, 2004a). He emphasised the importance of training and development programmes for top management, which should be provided to prepare management to plan, organise, control, coordinate and command (Clegg et al., 2005; Cole, 2004).

Fayol proposed a number of principles related to the management system which he believed would assist organisations to work effectively, make workers happier and provide efficient management (Martin, 2001; Clegg et al., 2005). These are the specialization of workers, unity of command, esprit de corps, discipline, unity of direction, authority and responsibility, initiative, the scalar chain, order, equity, the stability of tenure of personnel, the centralisation of authority, the remuneration system and the interests of the organisation, which must subordinate individual or group interests (Morgan, 1998; Burnes 2004a:42; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004).

2.3.1.2 Bureaucratic Approach

This variant of the classical approach was proposed by Max Weber. Bureaucracy has been described as a form of organisation that stresses detailed rules and regulations, hierarchical supervision, centralisation of authority and worker specialisation (see Morgan, 1998). Weber also identified three basic types of authority: traditional, charismatic and legitimate (Cole, 2004; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Traditional authority is based on the belief that the leader has the natural right to legislate and make

regulations. This authority comes from tradition and custom (Cole, 2004). Charismatic authority is rooted in the belief that the leader has a special ability, unique virtue, knowledge or religious power; it arises from confidence in the personal ability of the leader (Cole, 2004). By contrast, legitimate authority is based on the employees' perception that the manager has a right to exercise his authority because of his role or his position in the organisation (Mullins, 2005). Therefore, Weber believed that bureaucratic organisations should be based on legitimate authority, rather than traditional or charismatic authority, because it recognises that managerial authority is based on a position of power within the hierarchical structure of the organisation, not on personal ability (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Cole, 2004).

From the above, the classical perspective is based on the assumption that there is one best way to manage and organise an organisation which would be appropriate for all organisations, irrespective of their employees, environment, size and technology, based on the division of work, centralisation of authority, rigid rules, standardisation and unity of command (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Mullins, 2005).

2.3.1.3 The Classical Approach and Change Management

Thus, classical theory provides a range of assumptions that assist managers to implement change successfully. Taylor's change initiatives were based on two assumptions: (a) change can be implemented successfully through rational plans and monitored by management; and (b) the main objective of a programme of change is to minimise future changes (Clegg et al., 2005). According to Cameron and Green (2004), this approach views change as unnecessary and unwanted, because it interrupts the stable organisational environment; thus, any changes in the external environment force the organisation to respond in order to restore equilibrium.

Organisational change, according to classical theory, must also be determined by managers who hold positions of power within the hierarchical structure of the organisation, because they have the legitimate authority to initiate change and the responsibility to identify the best methods of work (Cameron and Green, 2004; Burnes 2004a). Taylor believed that managers had the right to manage changes within the organisation how and when they saw fit, as long as these were rooted in his perspectives (Burnes 2004a:48). He also argued that many of the problems facing organisations

during the implementation of change were due to the arbitrary and inconsistent perspectives of managers (Burnes 2004a).

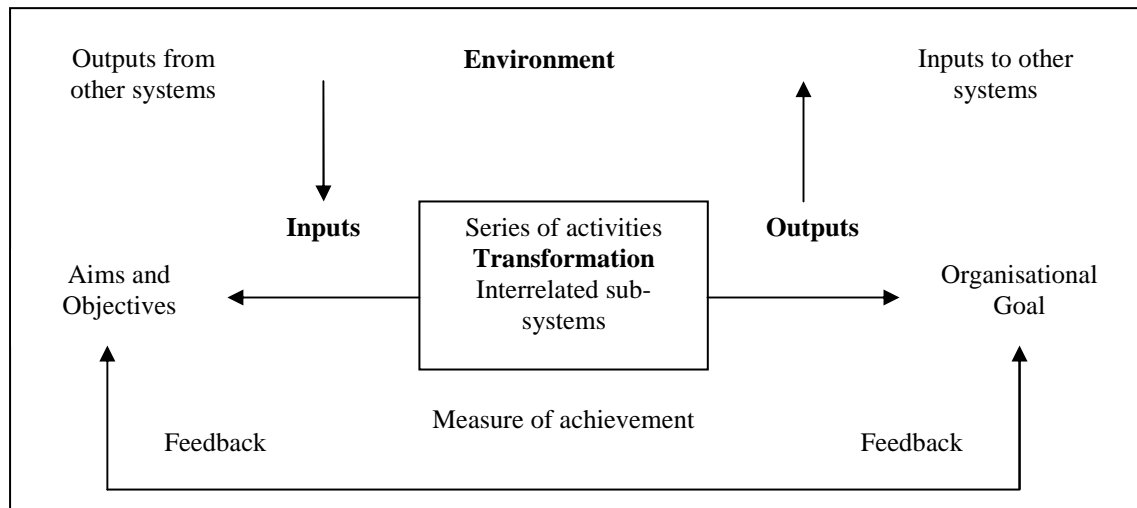
It has also been argued (Dawson, 2003; Clegg et al., 2005; Hughes, 2006) that when change management tools and processes such as total quality management, lean production and business process reengineering are implemented by some contemporary organisations, Taylor's principles of scientific management are being revisited, because these approaches identify the most efficient means (or 'one best way') to manage and organise.

However, the classical approach has faced a number of criticisms in terms of its perspective toward managing change. It has been pointed out by Cameron and Green (2004) that this approach is inappropriate for unstable environments, because unpredictable change will be regarded by employees as a major overhaul, which is extremely disruptive and hence encourages resistance to change. The complex and dynamic nature of external environments also makes planning very difficult and Dawson (1994:181) argues that "it is impossible to predict all future scenarios or adapt to unexpected consequences of political decision-making and power plays during the process of change". The implementation of change, according to the classical perspective, requires hard work, strong management action, rigid control by managers and inspirational vision (Cameron and Green, 2004). Against this background, the open system approach and the contingency approach emerged in reaction to the dehumanising classical perspective (Burnes, 2004a).

2.3.2 The Open System Approach to change

The open system approach is based on the view of an organisation as a system which is open to the external environment in which it operates and which thus cannot survive without an appropriate relation with that environment (Subramanian et al., 1993; Morgan, 1998; Kourteli, 2000). This contrast with the classical approach, which views organisations as closed systems, separate from the external environment (Burnes, 2004a). The open system model is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: The Open System Model of Organisation



Source: Mullins, 2005, p124.

Any organisational system is composed of three related components: inputs, transformations and outputs (Cummings and Worley, 2001). An organisation obtains from its environment resources such as staff, technology, raw materials, information and customers, then transforms them before returning them as outputs to the environment in different forms, such as good customer services, satisfaction, good reputation and profitability (Cummings and Worley, 2001; Mullins, 2005).

Additionally, the open system approach defines an organisation as a socio-technical system with five critical interconnected sub-systems: strategic, technical, social, structural and managerial (Morgan, 1998; Burnes, 2004a). Since all five sub-systems are dependent of each other, a change to any one of them will have a significant influence on some or all of the others (Cummings and Worley, 2001; Rollinson, 2005). This approach is also concerned with alignment, which represents the extent to which the features, operations and characteristics of one system enhance the effectiveness of another (Cummings and Worley, 2001). It stresses the importance of an appropriate matching of the social part of the organisation with the technical part (Morgan, 1998).

With respect to change management, systems theory is one of the important conceptual perspectives available for understanding the dynamics of organisational change (French and Bell, 1999). Burke (2002) argues that the main purpose of change is systemic, for three reasons at least, the first being that if one feature of the system is changed, other features must be affected, which justifies a total systems approach. In order to avoid any failure in change processes, the leadership or change agent must pay attention to the

whole system rather than one aspect of it. Second, the change target is organisational culture and group values, rather than individual behaviours. Thus, changes in individual and group behaviours are significantly determined by group values, which need to be a target of the organisational change process. The third reason for organisational change to be systematic is that the organisation utilises energy from its environment and returns in different forms after it has passed through the transformation processes. Therefore, in order to be successful, the organisation needs to remove any obstacles to this process by changing things such as organisational culture, reward systems and organisational structure, rather than wasting resources on individual change (Burke, 2002). This view is supported by Hayes (2002), who indicates that one of the main objectives of an open system is to seek equilibrium between all of its component parts. He states that if any changes disturb this balance, different components of the systems move in order to restore it. While the open system approach remains valid, its principles, according to Morgan (1998), are now subsumed under the contingency approach, which is examined next.

2.3.3 The Contingency Approach to Change

Contingency theory can be defined as an approach which contends that an organisation, to be successful, must align its structure in a manner compatible with the type of environment in which it operates (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2001). The contingency approach is based on an underlying assumption that there is no best way to organise and manage an organisation. It suggests that the structure and operations of an organisation are dependent on situational variables (Yeoh and Jeong, 1995; Burnes, 2004a).

Burnes (2004a) indicates that the three most vital contingencies are environmental uncertainty, size of organisation and technology.

Environmental uncertainty

A more certain environment requires an organisation to employ a bureaucratic structure, which can be considered as appropriate for stable environments (Luzon and Peris, 1998; Hayes, 2002). The bureaucratic structure is characterised by centralised authority, formalised rules and regulations, rigid supervision and primarily top-down communication (Jones and Ryan, 2002). Conversely, the more unpredictable the environments in which an organisation operates, the more appropriate is an organic structure (Clegg et al., 2005:126), characterised by flexible rules, decentralised

authority, shared supervision, a flatter structure and informal communication (Luzon and Peris, 1998; Jones and Ryan, 2002).

Size of organisation

It has been found (e.g. Langworthy, 1985; Luzon and Peris, 1998; Senior, 2002) that there is a positive correlation between the size of an organisation and organisational structure: a large organisation is likely to become more bureaucratic, while small organisations tend to be more organic.

Technology system

If an organisation adopts routinised technologies, a bureaucratic structure could be the proper form of organisation, whereas if it uses technologies that integrate the routines into an automated technical system, it requires a more organic structure (Luzon and Peris, 1998).

In terms of organisational change, contingency theorists challenge the assumption made by the classical approach that there is one best way to introduce such change (Burnes, 1996 and 2004a). It has been argued (Palmer et al., 2006:212) that the style of change draws upon the scale of the change and the receptivity of organisational members to participating in the change process. Cameron and Green (2004) point out that this approach emphasises the importance of psychological support and participation, which individuals and groups need in order to manage change.

One of the best developed change contingency theories is associated with Dunphy and Stace (1993), who conducted studies on 20 industrial organisations in Australia (see Burnes, 1996; Senior, 2002; Dawson, 2003; Palmer et al., 2006). They identify four main scales of change management which require different styles of leadership: fine-tuning, incremental adjustment, modular transformation and corporate transformation (Dunphy and Stace, 1993). First, fine tuning refers to small-scale change, which requires effective matching between organisational strategy, structure, processes and people, manifested at departmental level (Dunphy and Stace, 1993). It concentrates on refining policies and procedures, creating specialist units, building employees' commitment to the organisational mission and establishing roles and regulations (Dunphy and Stace, 1993; Senior, 2002). Thus, this type of change is associated with a Taylorist approach to change (Palmer et al., 2006). This stage requires a collaborative

leadership style which involves strong participation by employees in major decisions related to organisational vision and change processes (Dunphy and Stace, 1993).

The second scale of change is incremental adjustment, which requires distinct adjustment to strategy, structure and management system in order to meet changes in external environment, but does not amount to radical change. The workforce should be consulted “about the means of bringing about organisational change, with their possible limited involvement in goal setting relevant to their area of expertise or responsibility” (Dunphy and Stace, 1993:918).

The third scale of change is modular transformation, which involves the major realignment of one or more departments or units within an organisation. It focuses on modifying sub-units rather than the organisation as a whole, such as restructuring of particular department or divisions, change in key executives and managerial appointments in these areas and introducing new process technologies that affect a whole division (Dunphy and Stace, 1993). In such cases, the style of change management tends to be more directive, using managerial authority in order to gain the compliance of employees, which will help the organisation to redefine its operations in a specific area. A consultative style is also needed by managers at a lower level in the organisation who are responsible for implementing change (Palmer et al., 2006).

The final scale of change is corporate transformation, which entails radical and revolutionary change throughout the whole organisation, including changes in structure, culture, strategy, systems and management styles, in order to ensure organisational survival (Senior, 2002). Therefore, a directive or coercive leadership style might be needed, since there is often little employee support for change and little time available to the organisation to respond to changes in the external environment (Palmer et al., 2006). This scale of change also involves charismatic transformation. This is because this style of leadership is shown by those who have the ability to work in turbulent environments and gain employees’ commitment to a new vision (Senior, 2002; Palmer et al., 2006).

Thus, effective managers and organisations, according to the contingency approach to change, have the ability to choose the scale of change and the style of change

management to fit the environment (Graetz et al., 2002), rather than having a dominant approach to how change should happen in an organisation (Palmer et al., 2006:213).

Applying a contingency approach to organisational change faces a number of criticisms. Palmer et al. (2006:215) indicate that “fitting an organisational change program to the type of change required may be easier to articulate in theory than to deliver in practice”, while Burnes (1996) indicates that Dunphy and Stace pay no attention to the difficulties of moving from one approach to change to another, depending on prevailing conditions. Palmer et al. (2006) also argue that the contingency approach to change involves decisions by managers about the type of change situation and what appropriate strategic change should be employed. Therefore, this approach will be difficult for managers who have no ability to adopt differing approaches to change, drawing upon the particular change circumstances (Palmer et al., 2006). The contingency approach holds that the environment is one of the most important factors to be considered in order to manage change successfully. However, it does not take into account the likelihood that some organisations can control their environments by collaborating with communities or with other organisations (Cameron and Green, 2004). Moreover, an organisation might be independent from its environment or in a position where the environment has relatively little effect on it (Cameron and Green, 2004; Mullins, 2005). Thus, Burnes (1996) claims that the contingency approach to change provides guidance without seeking to offer choice. Finally, Burnes (2004a) points out that the contingency approach emphasises the need to analyse the situational variables in order to identify an appropriate organisational structure, without paying attention to issues related to the planning and implementation of change.

2.3.4 Summary of Section

The above discussion of theoretical approaches to change management shows that these approaches provide some useful assumptions about how change should be managed. The approaches and their main assumptions are summarised in Table 2.2 below.

While the classical approach, open system theory and contingency theory are the most important approaches to organisational change, a number of alternative approaches can also be useful in understanding and changing organisations; these include the processual approach and complexity theory (Burke, 2002; Hayes, 2002; Dawson, 2003; Cameron and Green, 2004; Burnes, 2004a). Palmer et al. (2006) argue that complexity theory and

the processual approach (which will be discussed in the next section) are quite acceptable within the wider organisational theory literature but less often encountered in the change management literature.

Table 2.2: Theoretical Approaches to Change Management

Theoretical Approach	Main Principles of the Approach
<p>The Classical Theorist School</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change should be planned and controlled in order to be implemented successfully. • The main purposes of change management are to minimise future changes and protect the organisation from the external environment. • Organisational change must be determined by managers who have position and power within the organisational structure.
<p>The Open Systems School</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change at one level or in one part of the system should take account of the effect it will have elsewhere in the organisation. • Successful change requires the effective alignment of the social part of the organisation with the technical part. • Organisations need to change things such as organisational culture, structure, reward systems, rather than individual and group perspectives, in order to implement change successfully. • Changes are made in organisations in order to respond to changes in the external environment and maintain a balance between all components of their systems.
<p>The Contingency Approach</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to choose the scale of change and change management style, which should fit the environment.

Source: Researcher's Work

Given the range of advantages and disadvantages set out in the arguments above, it would be misleading to think of “good” or “bad” approaches to managing change (see Burnes, 1996). Thus, Palmer et al. (2006) point out that choosing among these approaches depends on the type, context and phase of change and on the ability of managers to use multiple approaches. Moreover, all these approaches “reflect the assumptions we hold about managing change and direct attention to whether the organisation in which change is to occur is dominated by a particular view of what is achievable and how change should unfold” (Palmer et al., 2006:36). Thus, the main assumption behind the classical approach is that successful change should be planned, so this approach is more appropriate to stable environments, whereas open system theory, contingency theory, the processual approach and chaos theory hold that successful change should be emergent, which means that these approaches are more appropriate in unstable environments (Cameron and Green, 2004; Burnes, 2004a). The planned and emergent approaches to change therefore will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.4 Approaches to Managing Organisational Change

In the organisational change literature there is no consensus about the most appropriate approach to managing organisational change successfully. This disparity accounts for many managers having doubts on the reliability and relevance of the literature, and showing confusion when considering which perspective to employ (Bamford and Forrester, 2003:547). Broadly speaking, the change management literature may be said to be dominated by a dichotomy between planned and emergent approaches to change (Burnes, 1996; Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 2004a; Todnem, 2005; Burnes, 2009; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009).

2.4.1 The Planned Approach to Organisational Change

The planned approach, which has dominated the theory and practice of organisational change for the past fifty years (Bamford and Forrester, 2003), views organisational change as a process that moves the organisation from an undesirable state to a more desirable future state through a series of planned steps and actions (Burnes, 1996; Bamford, 2006; Alfes, 2010). The notion of planned change was introduced in 1946 by Kurt Lewin (Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009).

2.4.1.1 Lewin's Planned Approach to Change

Lewin believed that participative, group- and team-based programmes of change should be planned and implemented in order to improve the operation and effectiveness of the human side of the organisation (Burnes, 2004b). His approach to change embraced four elements: field theory, group dynamics, action research and the three-step model of change (Cooke, 1999; Burnes, 2004c; Rees, 2008; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009).

First, field theory refers to understanding group behaviour by addressing the entirety and complexity of the environment in which the behaviour takes place (Burnes, 2004b). Lewin held that group behaviour embraces a complex set of symbolic interactions and forces which influence group structure and individual behaviour. Therefore, individual behaviour is regarded as a function of group behaviour. As a result, any changes in behaviour originate from changes in the forces within the environment or field (Burnes, 2004c:311). Lewin found that identifying the forces or circumstances that affect the group can help to recognise why individuals, groups and organisations behave as they do, and what forces would need to be eliminated or consolidated in order to bring about

organisational change (Burnes, 2004a). He realised that under certain circumstances, forces in the environment can bring about fundamental change, rapidly introducing new behaviours and patterns of activity accordingly (Burnes, 2004a). This led Lewin to introduce force field analysis, which identifies the driving and resisting factors in any changing set of circumstances. Therefore, he believed that more effective change strategies focus on increasing the number or strength of the driving factors (Cameron and Green, 2004).

Second, Lewin proposed group dynamics, which refers to “the forces operating in groups. It is a study of these forces: what gives rise to them, what conditions modify them, what consequences they have, etc” (Burnes, 2004a:272). He stressed the importance of groups in shaping the beliefs, values and norms of their members. Therefore, successful organisational change should concentrate on group behaviour and its norms, roles and interactions, rather its members’ behaviour, because individual behaviour is restricted by group thought (Burnes, 2004a and 2004c). Thus, Lewin realised that groups require processes in order to be engaged in and committed to changing behaviour, which led him to propose action research and the three-step model (Burnes, 2004d).

Lewin’s action research model is based on major two components which are required in order to implement change (Rees, 2008). First, it stresses that change requires action. Second, it points out that effective action is based on analysing the situation correctly, identifying all possible alternative solutions and selecting the one most appropriate to the situation (Burnes, 2004b; Rees, 2008). Lewin held that in order to implement change successfully, employees should realise that change is necessary and important (Burnes, 2004a). According to Cummings and Worley (2001), the action research model comprises eight steps that help organisations to achieve planned change. The first is problem identification. To be successful in change, a manager should have the ability to realise that the organisation has a problem that requires a solution (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The second stage, consultation with a behavioural science expert, is concerned with establishing a good relationship between the change agent and stockholders by sharing theory, knowledge and information in order to create a participative and collaborative climate (French and Bell, 1995; Burnes, 2004a). The third stage is data gathering and preliminary analysis. Questionnaires, interviews, observation and the gathering of organisational performance data are methods that may

be employed in order to identify the main problems facing the organisation (Cummings and Worley, 2001). At the fourth stage, feedback on the analysis should be provided to key stockholders in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation. At this stage, ethics and the confidentiality of information must be considered (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The fifth stage is joint diagnosis of the problem. The change agent discusses the feedback with stockholders, which helps to determine the main problems (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The sixth stage is joint action planning, where the change agent prepares an action plan to resolve the problem. At this stage, in order to implement the action plan successfully, many factors should be considered: organisational culture, technology, environment, the analysis of the problem and the cost in time and expense of the intervention (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The seventh stage is the action that the organisation takes to move from its present undesirable state to a desirable future state. To be successful, change should be sustained by new structures, work redesign, culture and behaviour (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The final stage is data gathering after action. Its aim is to evaluate the effectiveness of the action which has been taken. This, in turn, may lead to re-diagnosis and new action (for more information, see French and Bell 1995; Cummings and Worley 2001).

Finally, Lewin proposed the three-step model for successful organisational change, which comprises unfreezing, changing or moving and refreezing (Walton, 1999; Armstrong, 2003; Burnes, 2004b). In justifying the first step, Lewin observed that “the stability of human behaviour was based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field of driving and restraining forces. Therefore, the equilibrium needs to be destabilized before old behaviour can be discarded” (Burnes, 2004b:887). The unfreezing phase thus emphasises the importance of recognising the need for change and reducing resistance to it (Cummings and Worley, 2001; Armstrong, 2003). The second phase, changing or moving, requires the organisation to move from an unsatisfactory state to a desirable one. This phase involves new behaviours, values and norms being implemented through changes in systems, structure and policy (Cummings and Worley, 2001). The final phase is refreezing, which ensures that employees can adapt to the new situation by introducing a new climate which is supported by the organisational culture, policies and systems (Walton, 1999; Mullins, 2005).

Todnem (2005) argues that Lewin's three-step model has been employed as a general framework for understanding the process of change management. Therefore, many authors have expanded the model in order to make it more practical. For instance, in 1985, Bullock and Batten proposed a four-step model of planned change based on reviewing more than thirty models of planned change (Todnem, 2005). This model views planned change in terms of two main components: (1) the processes of change that depict the methods used to transfer an organisation from its present state to a desirable future state and (2) the stages of change, which describe the stages an organisation should go through in order to accomplish change successfully (Todnem, 2005). The four stages of this approach are exploration, planning, action and integration (Burnes, 2004a). The first step is to explore the organisation's need to change its operations in order to solve specific problems. Therefore, consultants might be employed in order to assist the organisation to plan and implement change successfully; a good relationship between such consultants and the organisation's stakeholders is important at this stage (Burnes, 2004a). The second stage, planning, requires the organisation to identify its problems by collecting information accurately. At this stage, it also needs to establish the objectives of change, identify effective action and convince key stakeholders (Burnes, 2004a). The third stage is action, which involves moving the organisation from its current state to another. Thus, it requires the establishment of appropriate arrangements to manage change, gain support for action and assess the implementation of change in order to make any necessary modifications (Burnes, 2004a). The final stage is integration, which is concerned with enhancing and sustaining the changes. Therefore, change should be consolidated by a reward system, training programmes and new behaviour (Burnes, 2004a).

While the models of Lewin and of Bullock and Batten are recognised as useful, it has been argued (Burnes, 2004a) that they emphasise the importance of change in individual and group behaviour but give insufficient consideration to change at the organisational level. It is in response to this criticism of Lewin's work that Organisation Development (OD) has emerged (Cummings and Worley 2001).

2.4.1.2 Organisation Development

Burnes (2004a) points out that the planned approach to change is now closely integrated with the practice of organisation development. Since the late 1970s, OD has tended to move away from a focus on group issues and Lewin's humanistic approach to change,

paying more attention to organisational issues such as culture, learning, socio-technical systems and transformational change, in order to meet the needs of modern organisations (Burnes, 2004d and Rees, 2008). A number of definitions of OD have been proposed in the literature, one of the most important and comprehensive being that of Cummings and Worley (2001:1), for whom OD is “a systemwide application of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organisation effectiveness”. This definition addresses several characteristics of OD. First, its aim is to modify the strategy, structure and processes of whole systems such as an organisation, department or work group (Cummings and Worley, 2001). Thus, it has been argued (Burnes, 2004a; Senior, 2002) that OD moves the perspective significantly from its basis in the group to total systems and organisations in order to design and implement change. Second, OD applies behavioural science to the planning and conduct of change, thus considering two major perceptions of behavioural science: micro-perceptions such as leadership, group dynamic and work design; and macro-perceptions such as strategy, organisational design and international relationships. OD also focuses on understanding people within the organisation, how they work and how they can work more effectively. The third major characteristic of OD is that it requires planning in order to analyse and resolve organisational problems. It is important for such planning to be flexible so that it can be revised in the light of feedback and new information. Fourth, OD is a long-term process; therefore, new initiatives should be reinforced in order to maintain stability within the organisation. Finally, OD is concerned with improving organisational effectiveness by assisting the organisation to achieve its goal and to achieve high performance (French and Bell, 1995; Cummings and Worley, 2001).

According to Senior (2002), OD comprises major six phases to implement change: diagnosing the current situation, developing a vision for change, gaining commitment to the vision, developing an action plan, implementing the change, and assessing and reinforcing it.

In order to be successful in change implementation, OD interventions should be designed effectively to accomplish the organisational vision and make the action plan work successfully (Cummings and Worley, 2001). To this end, an OD intervention is a set of sequenced or structured activities aimed at assisting the organisation to increase

its effectiveness (Cummings and Worley, 2001) by moving all or a major structural part of it, such as a department, from its current state to one which corresponds to its vision (French and Bell, 1995). Three major criteria must be considered in designing an effective intervention. First, it must be based on reliable information and an accurate diagnosis of organisational problems. Second, the outcome of change should be known, because effective interventions are designed to achieve specific results. Finally, the intervention must draw upon organisational members' skills. Consequently, the change agent should have the ability to design and manage the intervention in order to implement change successfully (Cummings and Worley, 2001).

Four types of OD intervention may be distinguished: human process, technostructural, human resource management (HRM) and strategic interventions (Hayes, 2002). The first of these, human process interventions, focuses on employees and processes that help the organisation to achieve its goals. These processes embrace communication, problem-solving, decision-making and leadership. They are concerned with interpersonal and group process perspectives and comprise steps such as T-group, process consultation, third party and team-building interventions (Hayes, 2002). Second, technostructural interventions focus on aspects of organisational technology such as task methods, job design and organisational structure, thus helping the organisation to move from traditional structural forms to more flexible structures in order to adapt to changes in the external environment. There are three types of technostructural intervention which may be employed to restructure an organisation. They concern aspects of structural design such as job enrichment and enlargement, reengineering and downsizing (Harris and Desimone, 1994; Cummings and Worley, 2001). Third, HRM interventions are intended to integrate people into the organisation through career planning, the reward system, objective setting and performance appraisal (French and Bell, 1995; Cummings and Worley, 2001). The final type of OD intervention is strategic, being concerned with matching the organisation to its external environment in order to make it responsive to changing situations. There are three such ways to help the organisation to manage its relationships with the environment: integrated strategic change, transorganisational development and integration by mergers and acquisitions (Cummings and Worley, 2001).

2.4.1.3 Criticisms of the Planned Approach to Change

Although the planned approach to change (Lewin's model, Bullock and Batten's modification and OD) has established useful principles for organisations to manage change successfully, it has come under increasing criticism since the early 1980s (Todnem, 2005). First, the planned approach is rooted in the assumptions that each organisation operates in a stable environment and that it can move from an unsatisfactory state to a more desirable one by pre-planned sets of action (Todnem, 2005; Yeo: 2009), but the complex and dynamic nature of external environments actually makes planning very difficult. Consequently, organisational change should be regarded as a continuous and open-ended process, rather than fixed sequences of planned steps (see Dawson, 1992; Burnes, 1996; Burnes, 2004; Todnem, 2005). The planned approach also places on managers the burden of designing in advance the timetables, objectives and activities of change, while in many cases they do not have a full picture of the results of their actions (Burnes, 1996; Todnem, 2005). Also, Ryan et al. (2008) argue that top-down approaches to change lead managers to intervene in the day-to-day aspects of work. However, this criticism has been disputed by Burnes (2004d:993), who indicates that for Lewin, "social settings are in a state of constant change but that, just like a river, the rate varies depending on the environment". Hence, change was considered by Lewin as a complex and unpredictable learning process, not in fact a planned set of moves from one state to another.

The second criticism of the planned approach to change is that it focuses on small-scale and incremental changes, rendering it inappropriate for conditions that require large-scale and transformational change (Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Todnem, 2005). However, this criticism relates more to the speed of change than to its magnitude. As noted above, OD marks a significant move away from a group perspective to that of the total system or organisation in the design and implementation of change which can meet transformational change requirements (Burnes, 2004a; Senior, 2002). Burnes (2004d) also argues that Lewin pays attention to behavioural change at the individual, group, organisational and social levels.

Thirdly, the planned approach is said to be based on the assumption that the agreement of stakeholders can be easily reached in order to implement change; to this extent it appears to overlook organisational conflict and politics, which have a great impact on successful change (Todnem, 2005; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009). Burnes

(2004d) challenges this analysis, pointing out that such issues were not in fact neglected by Lewin, because he dealt with serious problems such as racism and religion. Nor is this area accepted as one where OD is necessarily superior; French and Bell (1999) argue that while there are a number of studies related to power and politics in the OD field, any understanding of how power and OD should be related is still in its early stages.

Therefore, it has been found (Ryan et al., 2008) that applying a top-down change strategy might lead to lower levels not sharing senior management's commitment to change and seeking to preserve the status quo. This is confirmed by Coram and Burnes (2001), who indicate that the planned approach to change has been criticized for a lack of clarity. Ryan et al. (2008) also indicate that the top-down approach tends to mean one-way communication from the top, which causes a lack of commitment to change and leads to change being lost at the lower organisational levels. However, he claims that the top-down approach receives support from the growing popularity of the transformational leadership theory, which offers assurance that leaders in positions of high authority can change their organisations.

It is in reaction to the above criticisms of the planned approach to change that the emergent approach was conceived (Todnem, 2005).

2.4.2 The Emergent Approach to Organisational Change

The concept of emergent change has been associated with the approach that views organisations as open systems (Senior, 2002). Advocates of the emergent approach also support the concepts of contingency theory, which maintains that there is no single best way to manage organisational change and that it must respond to contextual variables (McKenna, 2006). Burnes (2004a) indicates that advocates of the emergent approach to change come from different schools of thought, such as complexity theory and the processual approach. Therefore, the emergent approach views change as a continuous and open-ended process of adapting to change situations, rather than as a sequence of planned steps or actions within a given timetable, whose objectives and methods are fixed in advance (Todnem, 2005; Yeo, 2009; Alfes, 2010). It has been stated (Burnes, 2004a; Yeo, 2009) that the dynamic and unpredictable nature of both the external and internal environments makes this approach more appropriate than a planned one, because it emphasises the importance of understanding the problems and practices of

managing organisational change within a dynamic environment (Burnes, 2004a). It could be said that the emergent approach is concerned more with readiness for change and its facilitation than with making detailed plans in order to manage change successfully (Todnem, 2005; Alfes, 2010).

This subsection therefore examines some of the major models, concepts and theories within this approach. The first of these, Weisbord's six-box model of change, is based on the open system concept (Burke, 2002; Hayes, 2002). Weisbord emphasises the importance of the external environment, while paying attention to the internal components of the organisation in order to ensure that it is able to adapt to external changes (Hayes, 2002). His model is based on the following six variables:

“(1) Purpose: what business are we in? (2) Structure: How do we divide up the work? (3) Reward: Do all tasks have incentives? (4) Helpful mechanisms: Have we adequate coordinating technologies? (5) Relationship: How do we manage conflict among people and with technologies? (6) Leadership: Does someone keep the boxes in balance?” (Hayes, 2002:81).

Weisbord argues that effective organisations draw upon what is occurring in and between the six variables, each of which has two aspects that should be given attention: the formal and the informal (see Burke, 2002 and Hayes, 2002). However, Burke (2002) argues that most organisations are too complicated to be categorized by only six variables. Moreover, while the model directly links purpose with both structural and relationship variables, it fails to consider the linkage with other variables (Burke, 2002).

The congruence model of Nadler and Tushman takes a similar approach in considering the factors that affect the successful implementation of change. This model is a product of the open systems school, which views organisations as sets of interacting sub-systems within changing external environments (Cameron and Green, 2004). More precisely, organisational systems are considered to have three main components: (1) inputs, which are of four main types – environment, resources, history and strategy; (2) transformational processes, comprising four components – work, people, formal organisation and informal organisation; and (3) outputs, which refer to the performance of individuals, groups and the whole organisation (see Burke, 2002; Hayes, 2002; French and Bell, 1999). Thus, the central concept of this model is the alignment between the organisation and its environment and among internal factors within the organisation, in order to achieve effective organisational change (Hayes, 2002).

However, it has been argued (Burke, 2002; Hayes, 2002) that the concept of alignment is difficult to apply in practice, because there is no consensus on determining a desirable level of alignment. Moreover, the concept of alignment may be more appropriate when the change to be managed is incremental than in the case of transformational change, where it may be inappropriate. In this situation, the organisation needs to eliminate the past and provide radical innovation before re-establishing a new state of alignment (Hayes, 2002).

An alternative open-system model is proposed by Burke (1992), who differentiates between two types of change: transformational and transactional. The transformational change happens when an organisation has to be responsive to important changes in its external environment. This type of change requires the organisation to modify its mission and strategy, its leadership style and organisational culture. On the other hand, transactional change happens when the organisation needs to improve its functioning—in other words, to do things more effectively within the existing paradigm—which requires changes in organisational structure, management practices, systems, the climate within work units, motivation, individual needs and values, task requirements and individual skills (Burke, 1992; French and Bell, 1999; Hayes, 2002). Therefore, it has been argued (Hayes, 2002) that any change in transformational factors will have a great impact on all others, including transactional factors, while changes in transactional factors, by contrast, may have little influence on transformational factors.

In a further development, the concept of alignment, which is based on the open systems school of thought, has been influenced by the complexity approach (Burke, 2002). This views organisations as complex, non-linear systems which operate on the edge of chaos and respond to their environment through a process of spontaneous self-organising in order to survive (Burnes, 2004a:157). Thus, organisations need the ability to self-organise in order to respond to unpredictable events such as crises, so employees should be encouraged to act spontaneously rather than be given detailed plans (Clegg et al., 2005). Bamford and Forrester (2003) state that successful change cannot be achieved by a top-down, command-and-control style of management, because the environment is too complex and dynamic for senior managers to be able to identify, plan and implement every change required. Hence the importance of the concept of self-organisation, where managers empower employees to make necessary changes, rather than attempting to control and direct them to manage change (Clegg et al., 2005; Burnes, 2004a).

Additionally, it appears that advocates of the emergent approach to change tend to have much in common with followers of the processual approach, which was proposed by Andrew Pettigrew in the 1980s (Burnes, 2004d) and is based on the assumption that change is an analytical rather than a prescriptive process (Palmer et al., 2006). It views change as a complex process and a combination of rational decisions, individual perceptions, political struggles and coalition-building (Burnes, 2004d). As a consequence, Dawson (2003:46), who advocates the processual approach, argues that there are three major groups of determinants that influence change management: the politics of change, the context of change and the substance of change. The politics of change refers to political factors which exert an influence at different levels of the external and internal environments; government pressure is an example of an external political factor, while individual and group conflicts within the organisation are internal ones. The second determinant, the context of change, must be taken into account in order to identify the opportunities and restraints affecting organisational change. Again, there are two types of contextual factor which shape ongoing change: external ones such as government legislation, changes in social expectations, technology and business activity; and internal factors such as human resources, organisational culture, history and structure. The final determinant of the change process is the substance of change. This refers to the scale, scope and characteristics of organisational change, which are determined by political and contextual factors. It has been argued (Palmer et al., 2006) that Dawson attempts to make managers aware of the critical factors which affect the likelihood of achieving successful change, rather than providing them with detailed plans to manage change. Thus, the processual approach to change stresses the importance to change management of political power, which is ignored by the planned approach (Dawson, 2003; Burnes, 2004a). However, while rejecting the concept of universal rules and sequences of planned actions, as proposed under the planned approach, it does provide guidance for managers in order to manage change effectively (Todnem, 2005).

As an advocate of both the processual and emergent approaches to change, Dawson (1994:179) argues that there is no simple prescription for managing change successfully. Therefore, he proposes fifteen guidelines based on the processual approach in order to help practitioners to manage large-scale change. (1) It is important to be aware that change is a dynamic, long-term process. (2) Change is unlikely to be marked by a line of continual improvement from beginning to end. (3) The context of change

should be understood to include external and internal factors. (4) Organisational culture should be taken into account in order to manage change successfully. (5) It is important to identify a champion of change who has the ability to manage and understand its context. (6) The substance of change should be perceived in terms of financial and technical requirements and of how change will be implemented. (7) Training programmes should be provided to give staff the ability to use new equipment and adapt to the new situation. (8) It is essential for senior management to be committed to change. (9) In order to implement large-scale change, it is important to develop a supportive and cohesive management team. (10) Line managers should participate in change processes in order to avoid resistance to change. (11) Trade union support is essential. (12) Good relationships with employees will help to create a healthy climate for change. (13) Clear communication can help staff to understand the implications of change and perceive their roles and responsibilities. (14) Appropriate funding must be allocated to the change programme. (15) Change should take place throughout the organisation, rather than in specific sections or departments.

In a similar vein, Kanter (quoted in Todnem, 2005:376) proposes “Ten Commandments” for implementing change: (1) Analyse the organisation and its need for change. (2) Build a vision and a common direction. (3) Separate from the past. (4) Create a sense of urgency. (5) Support strong leaders. (6) Line up political sponsorship. (7) Craft an implementation plan. (8) Develop an enabling structure. (9) Communicate, involve people and be honest. (10) Reinforce and institutionalise change.

Kotter (1996:4-16) also identifies eight errors which cause failure in implementing change: allowing too much complacency, failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition, underestimating the power of vision, under-communicating the vision, permitting obstacles to block the new vision, failing to create short-term wins, declaring victory too soon and neglecting to anchor changes firmly in the corporate culture. To counter these, he proposes a set of eight steps to manage change successfully (Kotter, 1996). The first step is establishing a sense of urgency. It must be made clear that change is very important for the organisation in order to survive. Thus, the external and internal environments are regarded as stimuli for the organisation to implement change and as creating a sense of urgency. The second step is establishing a coalition. This requires the building of a strong team of people who have the power within the organisation to direct the change process. Hence, top managers should be supportive

and committed to change and the coalition should include middle managers. The third step is creating a vision and strategy for change. There are many advantages to building a vision: it guides the change actions together with the strategies; it provides guidance for managers to make appropriate decisions; it creates a picture of the future state; it addresses the long-term interests of stakeholders; and it allows the organisation to respond to changes in the environment. The fourth step is communicating this vision. Kotter emphasises the need to communicate frequently with those affected by change in order to make sure that they understand the vision and strategy. The fifth step is eliminating obstacles to the accomplishment of the new vision and empowering people to move ahead. The organisation should remove any barriers such as inflexible structure, rigid rules and old culture that impede staff from realising the vision. Moreover, staff should be empowered in order to accomplish high organisational performance. The sixth step is creating short-term wins in order to maintain a sense of urgency and retain employees' attention. The seventh step is consolidating gains and producing more change. At this stage, employees should be rewarded and motivated in order to promote continued effort in implementing change. However, the organisation should avoid declaring victory too soon. The final step is institutionalising the new approach. It is important to ensure that stakeholders recognise that change has benefits to the organisation and that it will lead to sustained success (Kotter, 1996).

It could be argued (Cameron and Green, 2004) that although Kanter and Kotter advocate the emergent approach to change, which is based on the notion that change should be viewed as non-linear, their models are more appropriate to a linear process than a continuous cycle. Kanter and Kotter also use forceful concepts such as urgency, power, vision, consolidation and institutionalisation, which "seem to imply a rather straightforward process that cannot be managed by others lower down the hierarchy" (Cameron and Green, 2004:101).

From the previous discussions in some models and approaches to change which are based on emergent approach to change, it can be observed that they all pay considerable attention to some factors which can help to implement change successfully. These factors and others considered critical by the various models, theories and approaches are summarised in Table 2.3

Table 2.3: Critical Factors in the Successful Implementation of Organisational Change under the Emergent Approach

Change Management Model	Weisbord's Six-box Model (1976)	Nadler and Tushman (1977)	Kanter (1992)	Kotter (1996)	Dawson (1994)	Burke (1992)	
School of thought	Open System Theory	Open System Theory	Processual Approach and Contingency Theory	Processual Approach and Contingency Theory	Processual Approach	Open System Theory	
						Transformational Factors	Transactional Factors
Critical factors in successful implementation of change	External environment	Environment	Environment	Environment	Environment	External environment	Management practice
	Purpose	Strategy	Vision	Creating vision	Training	Mission and strategy	Structure
	Leadership	Resources	Leadership	Leadership	Leadership	Leadership	Systems
	Relationship	Informal organisation	Power and politics	Coalition-building	Power and politics	Culture	Work unit climate
	Culture		Culture	Culture	Culture	-	Motivation
	Structure	Formal organisation	Structure	Structure	Funding	-	Individual needs and values
	Reward	Work	Communication	Communicating the vision	Communication	-	Task requirement and individual skills
	Helpful mechanisms	People	Involvement	Empowerment	A good climate for change	Individual and organisational performance	
-	History	-	-	Senior managers' commitment	-		

Source: Researcher's Work

2.4.2.1 Criticisms of the Emergent Approach to Organisational Change

The emergent approach to change has a number of limitations, however. Todnem (2005) argues that it lacks coherence and variety in the applicable techniques. This view is supported by Burnes (2004a), who states that the approach is too general and difficult to apply. It has also been indicated (Palmer et al., 2006) that the emergent approach is less attractive to change managers and consultants who are seeking solutions and specific guidelines to introduce change. Furthermore, moving on to action from the steps or guidelines which are provided by advocates of the emergent approach is often not well specified. An additional criticism is that the emergent approach is based on the assumption that all organisations operate in dynamic and unpredictable environments to which they have to adapt. If so, then an approach which purports to be appropriate for all organisations in all circumstances and at all times (Todnem, 2005) is rejected by Dunphy and Stace (1993), on the ground that turbulent times require different responses

in varied situations. Therefore, a model of change based on a situational or contingency approach is needed in order to explain how to vary change strategies to accomplish optimum alignment with the changing environment (Todnem, 2005). Finally, the emergent approach has been criticised for overemphasising some factors that are said to have a great impact on successful change, such as political issues (Burnes, 2004a).

2.4.3 Section Summary

The planned and emergent approaches to change come from different schools of thought and each provides a particular perspective on how change should be managed (Bamford and Forrester, 2003). The former views change as a sequence of planned steps or actions, the latter as a continuous and open-ended process. Notwithstanding these differences, there are some similarities between them. They both emphasise the importance of certain factors which should be considered in order to implement change successfully: management style, power and politics, culture and structure (Burnes, 2004a). However, each approach makes different assumptions about these factors as to their identity and value. More details of each factor and how they contribute to successful change management will be given in the next section.

2.5 Critical Factors in Successful Implementation of Strategic Change

As indicated earlier, leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture are the most critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change. Several empirical studies support this view. For instance, a survey of 503 employees in the UK found evidence of three main obstacles to effective organisational change: leadership, management and organisational culture. A total of 89% of respondents indicated that many organisations had initiated change which had failed, owing more to internal than external factors (Hoag et al., 2002). Therefore, factors internal to the organisation should be considered relevant to successful change. Appelbaum et al. (1998) also indicate that understanding factors critical to organisational success and failure (such as culture, leadership and structure) can help an organisation to manage strategic change effectively while avoiding potential pitfalls. Burnes (2004a) takes a similar position, urging that leadership style, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure should be taken seriously in order to manage change successfully.

An overview of the literature on change implementation therefore indicates a need to examine in depth those factors which can help to implement successful change (see Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham, 2008; Greasley et al., 2009). The following sub-sections will explore the characteristics of these factors. First, it is important to define the term ‘critical factors’, which according to Fryer et al. (2007:503) denotes “those few things that must go well to ensure success”. Thus, these factors are important to increase the rate of successful implementation of change and reduce the likelihood of failure.

2.5.1 Leadership and Change

It is generally argued (Kotter, 1996; Zeffane, 1996; Landrum et al., 2000; Higgs and Rowland, 2000, 2001; Kanter, 2000; Taylor-Bianco and Schermerhorn, 2006; Wren and Dulewicz, 2005; Karsten et al., 2009) that leadership represents an important factor in the determination of the success of change management. Lyons et al. (2009) indicate that successful organisational change requires effective leadership from those with the ability to introduce and sustain it. A survey of 259 senior executives in 514 organisations in the United States concluded that the keys to successful change were leadership (92 percent), corporate values (84 percent), communication (75 percent), teambuilding (69 percent) and education and training (64 percent) (Gill, 2003). Therefore, change is about leadership and management (Gill, 2003). Appelbaum et al. (2008:24) refer to “the need for more empirical research in the related fields of change success and organisational change leadership”. Higgs, (2003) claims that there is a driving need to identify leadership behaviours which will result in effective change implementation and build sustained change capability. It has been argued (Higgs, 2003; Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2009) that there is much literature, but little agreement on or real knowledge of what is required for effective leadership. Thus, many studies have been conducted in order to identify effective ways to provide leadership for change.

For example, a study of 138 managers in some of the 300 highest ranked Australian organisations reported that managers perceived unilateral methods of change, based on control, authority and a top-down approach, to be important in the implementation of transformational and technical-structural change such as redesigning areas of responsibility and authority, decentralising profit centres and reorganising work. On the other hand, managers perceived shared methods of change, based on participation and consultation, to be important in the implementation of behavioural-social change, which

requires change in relationships within organisations. The authors argue that transformational change such as structural-technical change is unlikely to be supported, even with a consultative approach; thus it needs to be directive and less participative. The study also found unilateral, top-down methods of change to be more effective in achieving outcomes, irrespective of the types of change (Walderssee and Griffiths, 2004). A similar idea is expressed by Dunphy and Stace (1993), who found that transformational change required a coercive leadership style, while incremental change required consultative and collaborative styles.

In contrast, James (2005) found that coercive leadership was an unacceptable way to manage change, while a participative style with greater communication and involvement was better supported and led to more successful change. His examination of the types of organisational change and leadership style adopted to implement change was based on the Dunphy and Stace (1993) model, using a sample of 128 managers of an Australian government-owned enterprise. The results indicate that a directive and consultative leadership style can manage transformational change successfully. Support comes from Cereste et al. (2003), who studied merger activities within the UK National Health Service by surveying a sample of 268 employees. The study concluded that success in a transformational change such as a merger depends on participative leadership. Related information is also provided by Appelbaum et al. (2008), who reviewed literature related to leadership style during transformational change from 1972 to 2006. They found that effective communication, directions, employee participation, trust and the establishing of a caring organisational culture were seen as key components of successful leadership in transformational change.

Burke (2002), however, argues that the role and function of the leader should draw upon the stages of organisational change rather than provide one style of leadership which is appropriate to all of them. Thus, he lists four stages of organisational change which require different styles of leadership: prelaunch, launch, postlaunch and sustaining change. At the prelaunch stage, leaders who want to achieve successful change should be tolerant of ambiguity, control the chaos of organisational change, use intuition, examine motives and make decisions. Another critical element of this stage is that leaders should be able to scan and gather information concerning the external environment in order to determine appropriate responses. Moreover, leaders have the responsibility to establish the need for change and provide a clear vision and direction

for change. At the launch stage, leaders must communicate the need for change to employees and deal with resistance to change at the individual, group and system levels. At the postlaunch stage, leaders depend on multiple interventions for transformation. It has been argued (Burke, 2002) that many change initiatives fail because leaders rely on one intervention to manage change. Leaders should also listen to employees, provide consistency and repeat the vision and mission. At the sustaining change stage, leaders must deal with unanticipated consequences and implement new initiatives in order to stimulate members of the organisation. They should also maintain momentum by rewarding change champions and scanning the external environment.

Burke's view of leadership is supported by O'Neill (cited by Cameron and Green, 2004), who identifies four leadership roles for managing and sustaining the process of organisational change: sponsor, implementer, change agent and advocate. These roles are outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Roles in the Change Process

Role	Description	Requirements
Sponsor	Has the authority and positional power to make change happen. Has control of resources.	Needs to have a clear vision of change. Identifies goals and measurable outcomes.
Sustaining sponsor	Sponsors change in his/her own area, although top-level responsibility lies further up the hierarchy.	Must be careful not to transmit cynicism.
Implementer	Is responsible for implementing change and giving live feedback to the sponsor on progress.	Needs to listen, enquire and clarify questions with sponsor at the start of an initiative.
Change agent	Facilitator of change. Helps sponsor and implementers stay aligned. Keeps sponsor on board. No direct authority over implementers.	Acts as data gather, educator, advisor, meeting facilitator, coach.
Advocate	Has an idea. Needs a sponsor to make it happen. Usually highly motivated.	Must make idea appealing to sponsor.

Source: Cameron and Green, 2004, p137

Kotter (1996), who takes a different view, considers the need for leadership and management in order to lead or manage change successfully, rather than leadership only. Hence, he identifies a distinction between management and leadership and their role in managing change: management is a set of processes which maintains the efficient running of a complex system of people and technology, while leadership is a set of processes that helps the organisation to be responsive to changes in the external environment and creates organisational vision. This differentiation between management and leadership is shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Management versus Leadership

Management	Leadership
<p>Planning and budgeting: establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving the required result, then allocating the resources necessary to make it happen.</p> <p>Organising and staffing: establishing a structure for accomplishing planned outcome, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation.</p> <p>Controlling and problem solving: monitoring results, identifying deviations from the plan, then planning and organising to solve these problems.</p>	<p>Establishing direction: developing a vision of the future—often the distant future—and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.</p> <p>Aligning people: communicating direction in words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed, so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions who understand the vision and strategies and who accept their validity.</p> <p>Motivating and inspiring: energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic and resource barriers to change by satisfying basic but often unfulfilled human needs.</p>
<p>Produces a degree of predictability and order; has the potential to consistently produce the short-term results expected by various stakeholders (e.g. for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget).</p>	<p>Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential to produce extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive).</p>

Source: Kotter, 1996, p26.

Kotter (1996:26) indicates that successful change is 70 to 90 percent leadership and 10 to 30 percent management. Thus, managing change is important in order to control the transformational process, but leading change is most important to institutionalise the changes made.

Support for this contention was found by Caldwell (2003), who used a Delphi-style panel of ten change agent experts to identify the characteristics of the effective leadership and management of change. He found that the key attributes of change leaders were inspiring vision, entrepreneurship, integrity and honesty, learning from others, openness to new ideas, risk-taking, adaptability and flexibility, creativity, experimentation and using power. As for change managers, their key attributes were found to be empowering others, team building, learning from others, adaptability and flexibility, openness to new ideas, managing resistance, conflict resolution, networking, knowledge of the business and problem solving. Therefore, the roles of leadership and management are seen to be complementary. Change leaders were taken to be executives and senior managers at the top of the organisation who create a vision of change and initiate strategic change, while change managers are middle managers and functional specialists who translate the vision into action and implement change (Caldwell, 2003:291).

A similar idea is expressed by Gill (2003), who proposes a new model of leadership for change and identifies five dimensions of effective leadership of change, the first of which is vision. Leaders should have the ability to create a vision which can help to direct change effort and align people. The second dimension is that of values and culture, which can help to guide behaviour in the organisation. Therefore, effective leadership encourages shared values in order to support common objectives and build organisational commitment. The third dimension is strategy; leaders should strive for strategic change in order to implement organisational vision. The fourth dimension is empowerment, meaning that employees should be given the necessary skills, knowledge, freedom, self-confidence and resources in order to manage change. Finally, leaders should have the ability to motivate and inspire people to implement the organisational vision. Gill (2003) also holds that organisations require management in order to minimise risk and maintain the effectiveness of the current system of work.

In addition, Bass (quoted by Eisenbach et al., 1999:83) distinguishes two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership “develops from exchange processes between leaders and subordinates wherein the leader provides rewards in exchange for subordinates’ performance”. Thus, a transactional leader is able to search for deviations from regulations, rules and work standards and take appropriate action. However, such leaders are unwilling to take responsibility and make decisions (James, 2005). By contrast, transformational leaders are those who motivate their staff in order to achieve organisational vision and who help employees to build their confidence. Therefore, transformational leadership is vital for successful change, because its practitioners have the ability to identify the need for change, create a new vision and institutionalise change (Eisenbach et al., 1999:83). There are three types of transformational leader. First, the charismatic leader provides vision and mission, gaining respect and trust from employees. Second, the inspirational leader is able to communicate expectations, use symbols to align effort and explain important objectives in simple ways. Finally, leadership by intellectual stimulation promotes intelligence, rationality and problem solving. Those who lead in this way may be viewed as coaches and advisors for employees (James, 2005).

The role of transformational leadership in change has, however, been disputed by Heifetz and Laurie (quoted by Cameron and Green, 2004), who argue that this type of leadership is inappropriate for contemporary organisations, where adaptive leadership is

required. They believe that leaders of change should be able to scan the external environment and draw employees' attention to the complex situations that the organisation needs to address, such as changes in culture, structure and core processes. Employees should feel the pressure of the external environment and be exposed to conflict. Therefore, their perspective toward leadership is quite different from the concept of transformational leadership. This view of change leadership is supported by Lipman-Blumen (quoted by Cameron and Green, 2004), who holds that leaders should be connective rather than visionary: they should be able to make connections between different people, ideas and parties, and make sense of common objectives across boundaries.

2.5.1.1 Summary of Sub-section

As can be seen, many studies have been conducted in order to identify the most important leadership skills or styles in order to be effective in the implementation of change (Cameron and Green, 2004). However, all these studies are based on the planned and emergent approaches to change. This view is supported by Higgs, (2003:276), who indicates that "the extensive literature on leadership and changing schools of thought and models contain much re-working of earlier concepts". Thus, the planned approach to change sees managers as directing and controlling staff, resources and information. They also have legitimate authority, based on positional power, for planning and initiating change (Burnes, 2004a). Therefore, managers are seen as the implementers of change (Cameron and Green, 2004). The advocates of the emergent approaches to change have different views of the effective leadership of change. The open systems approach sees leaders as consultants and coaches, while the complexity approach sees them as facilitators of change. From the processual perspective, effective change leaders should play a political role in order to manage change successfully (Cameron and Green, 2004).

In reviewing the above studies it also became apparent that these studies have common themes of effective leadership to implement successful change. They are (1) a clear vision of the future through strategic planning, (2) communicating change to employees, (3) participation and empowering employees, (4) motivation to change, (5) building coalitions and networking, and (6) understanding organisational culture (Caldwell 2003; Gill, 2003; James, 2005; Kotter, 2008; Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Lyons et al. 2009). Previous studies (e.g. Caldwell, 2003; Gill, 2003; James, 2005; Kotter, 2008) also show

that the role of management is essential in successful change and can help to control the transformational process.

However, it should be considered that adopting an effective leadership style depends on several factors such as the internal and external contexts of the organisation and types of change (see Dunphy and Stace, 1993; Cameron and Green, 2004; Waldersee and Griffiths, 2004; James, 2005). For instance, Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) and James (2005) state that within the public sector there is a clash between the need for bureaucratic change in order to increase flexibility and innovation in coping with the changing demands of the environment on one hand, and the desire to maintain the standards and procedures that are important for quality of civic services for a diverse range of stakeholders on the other. Thus, effective change leadership in the public sector should combine the transformational and transactional styles (James, 2005).

Given the critical role of power and politics as elements of leadership in implementing successful change, the next sub-section will examine power and politics in more detail.

2.5.2 Power, Politics and Change

Buchanan and Badham (2008) state that the role of power and politics in organisational change has been not explored adequately. They identify three academic positions on power and politics: First, some commentators deny any connection between organisational change and politics. They state that the conflict associated with change is the result of poor communication rather than politics. Second, other commentators accept that change agents should be aware of politics but have no personal involvement, as it is regarded as unethical. Finally, they accept that change agents should address politics but their comments remain theoretical and offer little guide as to how to deal with politics. Therefore, limited studies of power and politics in change management offer little explanation of how they are deployed in the context of driving, shaping, influencing or implementing change (Buchanan and Badham, 2008).

Nevertheless, it has been recognised recently that successful change depends on the use of power and politics (Clement, 1994; Clarke et al., 2001; Linn, 2009; Todnem, 2010). This view is supported by Butcher and Clarke (1999), whose study found that 95 per cent of participants agreed with need to manage political behaviour as central to the job of managing change. Buchanan and Badham (1999b) also state that change agents who

ignore the role of power and politics during implementation of change might find that change fails. Similarly, Kotter (1996) argues that failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition leads to failure of change.

Pendlebury et al. (1998) report that any change will affect the current power relations between individuals or groups. Therefore, while successful transformation relies on the ability of leaders to deal with power issues, it turns out in practice that doing so is very complex, because all individuals and groups have their own agendas and interests, making it difficult to direct them to achieve the organisational vision (Pendlebury et al. 1998; Clarke et al. 2001). This view is supported by Hayes (2002) and Dijk and Dick (2009) who show that those with power may perceive a change agenda as a threat to their position and control of organisational resources, which will make them resist change. In contrast, those without power may perceive change as an opportunity to gain more power, so they will support change (Hayes, 2002). These two different perceptions lead the people concerned to be politically active. Therefore, change managers must be able to deal with political issues in order to implement change successfully (Clarke et al., 2001; Hayes, 2002; Buchanan and Badham, 2008).

Before elaborating their role in change, it is important to define power and politics. According to Buchanan and Badham (1999a:11), this is not straightforward. They define power as the ability of individuals or groups to exercise their influence over others and affect organisational outcomes, while politics is “the practical domain of power in action, worked out through the use of techniques of affect and other more or less extreme tactics”. Therefore, power is the capacity to make things happen and to overcome resistance in order to accomplish objectives and achieve results, while politics is the activities of individuals or groups intended to enhance their power and to have an effect on decisions (Senior, 2002). According to French and Bell (1999), power and politics are similar in referring to the exercise of influence in order to obtain individual preferences and overcome the resistance of others. They will nevertheless be considered separately below, beginning with power.

Robbins (2003) and Graetz et al. (2002) contend that there are two major sources of power which can be employed in the change process, these being formal power and personal power. The former is based on position and authority in the organisational structure and comprises four types of power: coercive, reward, legitimate and

information power. Coercive power is based on the belief of employees that the leader is able to use punishment if one fails to comply. This type of power is used when there is a lack of compliance with change by employees. Reward power is rooted in the belief of employees that the leader has the ability to control the rewards which will be distributed in return for compliance. This type of power is commonly used in order to gain loyalty and support for change. Legitimate power is held by a person who has a structural position within the organisation and the authority to use its resources. This type of power is employed by senior managers in order to overcome resistance to change by presenting it as essential to the organisation's survival. Finally, information power is that wielded by a person who has the authority to grant or limit access to information. It can be used in order to gain or disseminate valuable information in support of the change effort.

In contrast to these four formal types, personal power is based on an individual's capability and characteristics that do not depend on her position within the hierarchal structure of the organisation. It comprises expert, referent and charismatic power. Expert power is held by a person who has experience, skills and knowledge relevant to the situations at hand; referent power is based on identification with a person who has desirable personal traits and characteristics which it is desirable for others to imitate; and charismatic power refers to aspects of an individual's personality and interpersonal style such as creating vision, risk taking, follower sensitivity and controlling the environment. Personal power is very important in overcoming resistance to change and encouraging employees to support it.

Similarly, a survey of 165 managers reported that seven distinct tactics were employed by managers to influence superiors, subordinates and co-workers. (1) Reason is a tactic whereby a manager uses facts and accurate data in a logical way in order to convince employees to comply with his or her request. (2) Friendliness requires managers to establish good relations with employees and to be friendly in order to gain cooperation. (3) Coalition entails co-opting the support of other groups in the organisation to fulfil a request. (4) Bargaining is employing negotiation through the exchange of interest and privilege. (5) Assertiveness is a tactic whereby a manager uses various techniques to get his way, such as demanding compliance with requests, repeating reminders and ordering individuals. (6) Higher authority works by gaining the support of a person higher in the organisational structure. (7) Finally, sanctions constitute the use of coercive power in

order to gain support, such as through organisational reward and punishment (Robbins, 2003).

In order to implement successful change, managers should have ability to employ appropriate types of power (Graetz et al., 2002). Other authors (Dunphy and Stace, 1993; Robbins, 2003; James, 2005) have identified four influential factors determining the appropriate power tactics to be employed. These are the manager's relative power, the manager's objectives, the manager's expectations of success, the organisational culture and types of change. Robbins (2003) also argues that using power tactics differs from country to country according to national culture. For example, the coalition and higher authority tactics are more acceptable in China than in the USA. Moreover, Buchanan and Badham (1999a) state that sources of power are interrelated. The employment of one might influence one's ability to use another. Thus, legitimate power can be used by a change manager in order to enhance other types of power, such as referent and expert. They also claim that a change manager should have the ability to use multiple sources of power in different situations and at different times. In crisis situations, for instance, strong leadership will be appropriate. Ford (2006), however, cautions against the use of positional power in order to initiate and manage change. He indicates that planned change has a high rate of failure, estimated at 70 per cent, with less than 10 per cent ascribed to technical factors, owing to the use of positional power.

As for politics, McKenna (2006) points out that a number of organisational factors cause political behaviour in organisations, such as ambiguous organisational objectives, changes in organisational structure, technology and external environment, scarce resources, unclear performance evaluation, non-programmed decisions, role ambiguity and an organisational culture that encourages a win-lose approach. Individual elements also contribute to political behaviour, so that a person who has high self-motivation, internal locus of control and a strong need for power, for example, is more likely to behave politically. Support for these findings is offered by Buchanan and Badham (1999a), who indicate that change creates uncertainty and ambiguity within organisations, with the result that these situations can be exploited by those who have the skill, information and experience to be politically active.

Therefore, change agents or managers should be politically active in order to manage successful change (Buchanan and Badham, 2008). Buchanan and Badham (1999a)

studied attitudes towards organisational politics and change among a sample of 90 middle and senior managers in England, reporting that 67 percent of respondents agreed that a change agent who is not politically skilled will fail to manage change. Their results also show that 70 percent of respondents agreed that complex change intensifies organisational politics, 86 percent that managing change is about managing stakeholders, 99 percent that change agents need to develop their skills in negotiation, persuasion and influence, 81 percent that employees resist change in order to maintain their privileges and interest, 79 percent that politics can restrict the achievement of organisational performance, 53 percent that politics should be eliminated and 62 percent that change always creates winners and losers.

A survey of over 400 US managers by Gandz and Murray (cited by Buchanan and Badham, 1999a) provided similar findings, indicating that over 90 percent believed politics to be a common feature of organisations, 89 percent that successful leaders should have political skill, 55 percent that politics impedes efficiency and 50 percent that politics should be eradicated. Buchanan and Badham (1999a) argue that there is a contradiction among these results, however. For example, 99 percent of participants considered that change agents should develop their political skills, while 79 percent felt that politics can limit organisational performance and 53 percent agreed that politics should be eliminated. This view is supported by Vigoda-Gadot (2007), who argues that strong perceptions of organisational politics could damage performance by reducing levels of trust, satisfaction and commitment while enhancing a tendency to act selfishly. There is at least one possible explanation of this conflict in the findings, which assumes that politics has both positive and negative effects. A positive feature of politics is that it encourages managers to use appropriate political tactics in order to engage employees in activities such as negotiations. Therefore, politics of this kind is acceptable. Conversely, the negative side of politics is characterised as the seeking of pure self-interest, viewing the situation in win-lose terms and controlling resources, information and agendas in order to restrict change. This feature of politics should be rejected as unacceptable (see Buchanan and Badham, 1999a; French and Bell, 1999). Buchanan and Badham (1999a) conclude that change agents should be politically active, but must not become directly involved in political action.

Kumar and Thibodeaux (1990) indicate that OD professionals therefore remain cautious and conservative in involving politics in the implementation of planned change. It is

inappropriate and unethical for OD practitioners to be political activists or power brokers, as these roles conflict with OD values (see French and Bell, 1999; Burnes, 2009). However, French and Bell (1999) indicate that OD emphasises the importance of the positive features of the use of power in order to implement change. OD practitioners should understand the nature of power and politics, the tactics of influence and the behaviour of power-holders; and they should learn more about bargaining and negotiation.

Notwithstanding this argument concerning the ethics of politics, some scholars of change have suggested political tactics which can be used during change. For instance, Nadler (cited by French and Bell, 1999:299) argues that organisational change causes instability, uncertainty and stress, which lead to three main problems within organisations: those of power, anxiety and control. With regard to power, he states that every organisation is a political system and is controlled by identifiable groups and coalitions. Therefore, any change may contribute to a shift in the distribution of power. Those who have more power tighten their control in order to maintain it, while those who have less become active in order to gain more. With respect to anxiety, Nadler argues that employees become anxious about change, because they do not know whether the influence of change on them will be beneficial or harmful. The final problem is that of control; when change occurs, managers begin to lose control because the organisation is required to move to a new state. Nadler indicates that these problems are difficult to solve. Therefore, he proposes twelve actions which can help leaders to manage transactions successfully, as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Responses to Power, Anxiety and Control

Implication	Action Steps
Need to shape the political dynamics of change	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Build the support of key power agents. 2. Use leaders' behaviour to generate support. 3. Use symbols and language deliberately. 4. Define points of stability.
Need to motivate change	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Create dissatisfaction with the current state. 2. Build participation in planning and implementing change. 3. Reward behaviour in support of change 4. Give people time and opportunity to disengage from the old state.
Need to manage the transition	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Develop and communicate a clear image of the future state. 2. Use multiple leverage points. 3. Develop a transition management structure. 4. Collect and analyse feedback.

Source: French and Bell, 1999, p299.

Similarly, Carnall (2003) lists common tactics of political behaviour that can be used by change managers: controlling information, controlling access to key decision makers, using external experts, controlling the agenda, building coalitions, using promotions and applying group pressure for conformity and cooperation. A similar view is expressed by Kotter (1996), while Lyons et al. (2009) also highlight leaders' need to build coalitions in order to manage change successfully. They claim that one person alone is not able to create an organisational vision, communicate it to employees, remove obstacles to successful change and institutionalise that change. This is supported by Linn (2009), who indicates that building partnerships is one of the most important tactics to increase one's political power.

Buchanan and Badham (2008) also examine the political tactics which are used in change, administering questionnaires to a sample of 250 British managers. The results are illustrated in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7: Common and Rare Political Tactics

<p>More Common Tactics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building a network of useful contacts • Using key players to support initiatives • Making friends with power brokers • Bending the rules to fit the situation • Self-promotion, publicizing successes
<p>Less common tactics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding someone else to blame for mistakes • Claiming credit for the work of others • Conceding minor issues to win major goals • Using social settings to discover opinions • Using others to deliver bad news • Deliberately withholding useful information • Highlighting other people's errors and flaws • Using delay tactics to block others • Breaking the roles to achieve objectives • Compromising now to win future favours
<p>Rare Tactics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using misinformation to confuse others • Spreading false rumours to undermine others • Keeping dirt files to blackmail others

Source: Buchanan and Badham (2008:22)

2.5.2.1 Summary of Sub-Section

Change management which ignores power and politics is likely to fail. Power and political tactics help change agents to control the change agenda, eliminate all key

obstacles raised by the legitimate system, establish coalitions to exercise influence and reduce resistance to change (Buchanan and Badham, 2008). Advocates of the emergent approach to change draw attention to the value of managing power and politics in order to succeed in the management of change, while those taking a planned approach to change caution against involving politics in change, as it might conflict with OD values. Thus, change agents should be aware of certain negative features of political behaviour which can damage job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness (Voyer, 1994; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). However, it has been argued (Senior, 2002; Buchanan and Badham, 2008) that organisational structures are sources of power and politics, which leads to a more detailed discussion of this factor in the next section.

2.5.3 Organisational Structure and Change

According to Palmer et al. (2006), any change process must involve structural change, either directly or indirectly, in order to establish an appropriate structure that will help the organisation to be responsive to external change. Hughes (2006) emphasises the importance of understanding how changes in organisational structure are directly linked to other factors of change such as strategy, culture, technology and power relations within the organisation. He also indicates that structural change is hindered by “academics and senior managers who seek out ideal types of organisation which may never exist” (p62).

Organisational structure has been defined by Mullins (2005:596) as

“The pattern of relations among positions in the organisation and among members of the organisation [which] makes possible the application of the process of management and creates a framework of order and command through which the activities of the organisation can be planned, organized, directed and controlled”.

This structure can therefore be seen as the main mechanism by which the organisation sets tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships, and channels of communication. It also helps it to respond to changes in its environment, monitor its activities and implement its strategy (Rollinson, 2005). Moreover, Burnes (2004a) points out that organisational structure plays a critical role in the distribution of power within organisations and in affecting the impetus of change.

The change management literature discusses several types of organisational structure and explains how they can be supportive of change or defensive towards it (see Senior, 2002; Burnes, 2004a; Hughes, 2004). The classical perspective, for instance, contends that there is one 'best' organisational structure which would be appropriate for all organisations, regardless of their employees, environment, size and technology, based on the functional division of work, hierarchy of authority, narrow span of control, formalisation, centralisation of decision-making, standardisation and specialisation (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Mullins, 2005; Graetz and Smith, 2009). This type of organisational structure is compatible with a planned approach to change, with its emphasis on rationality, hierarchal authority, command and control, and top-down communication (Butcher and Atkinson, 2001; Burnes, 2004a). Accordingly, the classical approach to organisational structure has faced a number of criticisms, which can be summarised as follows: Bureaucratic structures impede the ability of an organisation to be responsive to changes in its external environment and this concentrates on an organisation's formal structure, while overlooking management processes such as communication and decision-making (see Morgan, 1998; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Mullins, 2005; Althakhri, 2005).

An important alternative is the contingency approach, which proposes a flexible organisational structure that helps to facilitate change (Burnes, 2004a; Hughes 2006). According to this approach, the appropriate organisational structure depends on situational variables such as environment, strategy, organisational size and technology. This approach therefore suggests that organisational structures have to be responsive to change in the external environment in which the organisation operates (Duncan, 1972; Lysonski et al., 1988, 1995; Graetz and Smith, 2009).

Over the last few decades, there have been significant changes in external environments, whether economic, political, cultural or technological, which have forced organisations to adopt flexible and decentralised structures in order to survive and respond to environmental demands (Webster, 1992; Dervitsiotis, 1998; Nelson and Quick, 2000; Greenberg, 1999; Conner and Douglas, 2005). In this context, two important studies, by Burns and Stalker and by Lawrence and Lorsch, have investigated the effects of unpredictable environments on organisational structure (cited by Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Mullins, 2005; Rollinson, 2005; Althakhri, 2005; Graetz and Smith, 2009).

The Burns and Stalker study was conducted on 20 industrial organisations in England to investigate the influence of the environment on their processes and performance (Mullins, 2005). The authors suggest that there are two main forms of organisational structure which are dependent on change in the external environment: the mechanistic and organic structures (Zanzi, 1987; Courtright et al., 1989; Rollinson, 2005; Yeo, 2009). According to Zanzi (1987) and Courtright et al. (1989), a mechanistic structure is an inflexible system which can be considered appropriate for stable or predictable environments. It is characterised by: (1) a high degree of functional specialisation, (2) a hierarchical structure and clear communication channels, (3) centralisation of decision-making, (4) rigid control, (5) clear rules and procedures within the organisation, and (6) commitment to organisational goals (Zanzi, 1987; Courtright et al., 1989; Rollinson, 2005; Yeo, 2009). Conversely, an organic structure is a more flexible system which can assist an organisation to be responsive to changes in the external environment (Zanzi, 1987; Courtright et al., 1989; Conner and Douglas, 2004; Mullins, 2005; Yeo, 2009). Its characteristics are these: (1) the opportunity for employees to participate in decision-making, (2) flatter structure and informal communication, (3) less formalisation, (4) lower degree of standardisation, (5) shared supervision and (6) commitment to the group (Zanzi, 1987; Courtright et al., 1989; Conner and Douglas, 2004; Mullins, 2005; Althakhri, 2005; Yeo, 2009).

The work of Burns and Stalker was extended by Lawrence and Lorsch, who carried out a study in another 20 industrial organisations to examine not only organisational structure but also how specific departments can be organised to cope with different environmental conditions (reported by Mullins, 2005; Rollinson, 2005; Yeo, 2009). They found that the degree of uncertainty will determine the appropriate organisational structure (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004); thus, there are two main structures which should be considered to meet different conditions in the environment: differentiation and integration (Rollinson, 2005). Differentiation refers to “the degree to which tasks and the work of individuals, groups and units are divided up within an organisation” (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004:529). In such a structure, each sub-unit can develop its own objectives, culture, structure and systems, because each has to respond to different conditions in its environment (Wetzel and Buch, 2000; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Integration can be described as “the quality of the state of collaboration that exists among departments that are required to achieve unity of effort by the demands of the environment” (Mullins, 2005:645). Thus, every department should coordinate to

achieve organisational goals (Rollinson, 2005). Lawrence and Lorsch also suggest that a dynamic or unpredictable environment requires an organisation to raise its levels of differentiation and that a high degree of integration is still required. This is because high levels differentiation and integration can help the organisation to respond more effectively to changes in its environment (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Rollinson, 2005). Conversely, a stable environment forces the organisation to reduce its level of differentiation and increase the degree of integration, because in a stable environment, organisations have a tendency to integrate their activities by rules, formal systems and centralisation (Rollinson, 2005; Althakhri, 2005).

Several other research studies have revealed that there is also a relationship between strategy and organisational structure (Hall and Saias, 1980; Sleivin and Covin, 1997; Whittington, 2001; Althakhri, 2005). According to Hall and Saias (1980), a bureaucratic structure impedes many organisations in implementing their strategy, because it restricts their ability to utilise their opportunities and their resources effectively. Therefore, organisations have to find appropriate structures to reconcile their capabilities and the opportunities provided by their environment.

For Chandler, structure follows strategy. Hence, organisational structure helps to facilitate the strategy of the organisation (cited by Hax and Majluf, 1983). In addition, Mintzberg and Waters (1985) propose two main types of strategy, deliberate and emergent, each of which requires its own type of structure. Deliberate strategy is planned; it is based on the idea that plans, as a process to implement strategy, are of paramount importance (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985). This strategy requires an organisation to have a bureaucratic structure in order to ensure that plans are applied as intended (Sleivin and Covin, 1997). But Mintzberg states that “the environment is so uncertain, particularly at a global level, that it may be impossible to plan a long-term corporate strategy” (cited by Lynch, 2000:9). Therefore, emergent strategy provides the organisation with some flexibility and keeps its options open, rather than locking it into a specific plan (Wit and Meyer, 2005). Thus, organic structure is appropriate to this strategy, because it will promote the delegation of authority and control environmental uncertainty through flexible procedures and systems (Sleivin and Covin, 1997). Hence, organic structure should be linked with emergent strategy, while mechanistic structure should be linked with deliberate strategy (Sleivin and Covin, 1997; Althakhri, 2005).

2.5.3.1 Summary of Sub-Section

There are many types of organisational structure which can be employed in order to implement successful change. Opponents of the emergent approach to change argue that organisations need to create organic structures in order to respond to changes in their external environments, while advocates of the planned approach to change tend to adopt mechanistic structures in order to support rational and top-down thought (Butcher and Atkinson, 2000; Burnes, 2004a).

Although organic organisational structure was recognised as a crucial mechanism in change management interventions, the key coordination and control aspects of bureaucracy still play an important role in ensuring accountability, uniformity and quality and in providing continuity and stability in changing environments, especially in public sector organisations (Graetz and Smith, 2009). A survey of 571 employees in public sector organisations in Australia found that they adopted flexible organisational structures while still employing traditional bureaucratic structures, in other words, taking a hybrid approach (Graetz and Smith, 2009).

Thus, adopting appropriate change management approaches, leadership style, power and politics and organisational structure are determined by organisation culture (see Robbins, 2003; Burnes, 2004a; Cameron and Green, 2004; James, 2005). The next section will provide more details about this factor.

2.5.4 Organisational Culture and Change

It has been argued (Carnall, 2003; Burnes, 2004a) that organisational culture has a great influence on the whole organisational system. Therefore, in order to be successful in implementing change, organisational culture should be managed accordingly (Smollan and Sayers, 2009; Todnem, 2010). A similar view is expressed by Schneider (2000), who indicates that culture is the most powerful factor in the organisation. Thus, it should be addressed before implementing any change interventions, otherwise these are likely to fail (Smollan and Sayers, 2009). Kotter (1996) also warns that if change is not compatible with a group's assumptions and values, it will be bound to fail. Burnes (2004a) takes a similar view, arguing that for change to be successful it must be anchored in organisational culture. He also indicates that each organisation needs to develop an appropriate organisational culture. It has therefore been indicated (Parker

and Bradley, 2000) that organisational culture is central to change management and strategic implementation.

Before giving details of how organisational culture affects the implementation of change, it is important to define it. Schein (1992:2) provides a definition of organisational culture as “a pattern of basic assumptions about how the group copes with the outside world and about how members should act within the group”. He argues that these assumptions shape groups’ thoughts and feelings about problems and their subsequent behaviour. Behery and Paton, (2008:35) also define organisational culture as “a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization’s members”. Consequently, groups believe that these assumptions are valid in work and transferred to new members of the organisation, including when change takes place (Smollan and Sayers, 2009). It has been indicated (Smollan and Sayers, 2009:435) that “these cultural memberships may polarize the beliefs, attitudes and intentions of members’ and produce conflicting responses to change”. Smith (2003) also argues that organisational culture is a social contract that helps to knit the organisation together by giving employees appropriate cues about what to say and do.

Previous research identifies some elements of organisational culture which have a great influence on successful implementation of change. For instance, Senior (2002:155) proposes eight elements of organisational culture which might be supportive or defensive in managing change: (1) attitudes to criticism, (2) the degree of managerial openness to new ideas, especially from below, (3) attitudes to conflict, (4) the degree of willingness to discuss sensitive issues openly, (5) the degree to which the organisational structure facilitates change, (6) the degree of willingness to give people autonomy and support them in their actions, (7) attitudes to experimentation in processes and products, and (8) attitudes to sharing information. Senior (2002) also reports a study by Argyris and Schon of organisational culture and change, which identifies some characteristics of organisational culture that might impede change: an unwillingness to discuss sensitive problems in public; being ambiguous and failing to provide appropriate information on problems; avoiding direct confrontation in order to be protected from blame; controlling the situation and the task; and suppressing different points of view instead of testing them.

Another study, of 503 employees in the UK, found that four perceptions of culture might affect successful implementation of change (Hoag et al., 2002). The first of these is uncertainty. Change, however positive or rational, creates situations of uncertainty in organisations which lead employees to be worried about their positions and their livelihoods. In such conditions, effective communication can help to reduce uncertainty, anxiety and mistrust for those people who are intolerant of ambiguous and uncertain situations. Otherwise, it might be difficult to implement change successfully in a climate where some information remains confidential and the outcome of change is unclear. The second perception of culture is turf protection. Some employees would prefer to maintain the current situation rather than put the organisation at risk, in order to avoid blame. Such employees are unwilling to take risks and learn from mistakes. The third perception of culture is the inability to cope. Staff members feel that they cannot cope with initiatives for change and that they do not have the skills and knowledge which are required to manage change. Feelings of this kind encourage resistance to change. The final perception is internal politics. Some employees have the perception that change will diminish their power and threaten their interests, which leads them to resist it (Hoag et al., 2002).

2.5.4.1 Organisational Culture in the Public Sector and Change

More specifically, Schneider (2000:25) points out that “every organisation has its own culture, character, nature, identity, and history of success which reinforces and strengthens the organization’s way of doing things”. The present research was conducted in a public sector organisation; therefore it is important to focus on organisational culture in the public sector and its effect on change management. Cunningham and Kempling (2009) state that public sector organisations tend to have a deeply deep-rooted behavioural culture, because many employees have long service, and this might facilitate or impede change.

It has been indicated (Brown et al., 2003; Greasley et al., 2009) that public and private organisations face difficulties when undergoing any process of change; but change within the public sector is more challenging than change in the private sector. In particular, most models of organisational change are designed for private-sector organisations and are then implemented in the public sector without consideration of the peculiarities of public sector culture (Rusaw, 2007).

“The private sector is based on profit purposes, enterprise goals, frameworks that can adapt more easily to changing customer needs and interests, shareholder interests, and market niches. Government organizations have legally-based purposes, operate by vast systems of rules and regulations, and serve clientele having rights and privileges set in legislation rather than market-driven interests” (Rusaw, 2007:347).

Researchers (e.g. Claver et al., 1999; Parker and Bradley, 2000; Brown et al., 2003; Schraeder et al. 2005; Rusaw, 2007) have found that public sector organisations are dominated by bureaucracy and a culture of conformity where the management style is authoritarian, communication is top-down, individuals search for stability, the decision-making process is centralised and there is a reluctance to consider innovation and change. Brown et al. (2003) therefore state that change management programmes in the public sector face problems of bureaucratisation and politicisation. This view is supported by Greasley et al. (2009), who indicate that resistance to change in public sector organisations is expected because this sector is dominated by bureaucratic or mechanistic cultures. Werkman (2009) takes a similar view, that the large organisations are characterised by mechanistic structures and bureaucratic control. Their change approach is systematic, in conformity with the mechanistic structure, and is combined with power approaches (Werkman, 2009). This view is supported by Ryan et al (2008), who indicate that a top-down approach to change is preferred in the public sector. They also argue that the top-down approach to change receives further support from the growing popularity of transformational leadership theory, which offers an assurance that leaders in positions of high authority can change their organisations.

Maddock (2002) indicates that there are many elements of public sector culture which can impede change, such as (1) seeing change as risk, (2) poor transformational leadership, (3) a top-down approach, where managers who have power can direct and implement change, (4) viewing change as simplistic, mechanistic and linear, (5) excluding front-line employees from change processes, (6) a blame culture for mistakes, (7) top-down communication and (8) the fact that change requires agreement between stakeholders. Moreover, Karp and Helgo (2008) report that change management in the public sector is not about rational responses but about influence, personal interest, power and control. They also find that leaders of public sector organisations see change as an opportunity to improve the organisation, while employees view change as disruptive of the organisational balance and not welcome. Thus, public sector

employees will support change only when it is compatible with their interests, leading Cunningham and Kempling (2009) to argue that change in the public sector often requires several conflicting interests to be resolved. They indicate that coalition-building is one of the most important strategies to implement successful change in the public sector.

Greasley et al. (2009) argue that regular change in political leadership has a great influence on the amount and frequency of changes which employees face in the public sector. Thus, this political environment places additional requirements on the public sector and employees to adapt quickly and easily to change. Too many change initiatives with unrealistic timeframes can lead to failure of change in the public sector.

In light of the evidence and arguments outlined above, organisations in both public and private sectors need to develop an appropriate culture in order to implement change successfully (Burnes, 2004a). Some researchers, however, argue that changing organisational culture is very difficult. For instance, Smith (2003) found that one of the main objectives of 59 organisational changes was that of culture change. He states that the rate of successful cultural change is very low. This is supported by Troy (cited by Smith, 2003), who surveyed 166 North American and European organisations about their experience of different kinds of change management and found that only 32 percent of vision, value and culture changes were successful. Kotter (1996) explains that it is very difficult to change the culture of an organisation, because it is composed of invisible factors and cannot be addressed directly.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, Senior (2002) reports that researchers have a range of differing views about how culture should be changed. Cummings and Worley (2001), for instance, argue that in order to change culture, it is important to change the mechanisms that enhance old behaviours, such as reward systems, recruitment and promotions structure. They propose six stages of cultural change: (1) formulate a clear strategic vision, (2) display top management commitment to the new vision and values, (3) reflect these new values and culture in management behaviour, (4) support the new culture by changing formal elements of the organisation such as structure, human resources systems, control systems and management styles, (5) change current organisational members, especially those holding leadership positions and whose behaviour restricts the application of the new values, and (6) develop ethical and legal

sensitivity about employees' rights and how they are to be treated within the organisation.

Related information has been found by Beer et al. (1993), who argue that directly changing norms, values and attitudes can be a complex task. Therefore, successful culture change requires the organisation to change behaviour by changing elements of the organisational context, such as reward systems, employees' roles and responsibilities, relationships among employees and recruitment systems. On the same subject, a survey of 4,000 organisations in the UK, conducted by the Industrial Society in 1997, found that a variety of methods can facilitate culture change, such as strategic planning, promoting team working and changing appraisal systems (Burnes, 2004a).

A similar survey was performed by Smith (2003), who examined the enablers of successful culture change and the most common obstacles to it among a sample of 210 managers in North America. The results show that the success rate for culture change was low and that there was a significant positive correlation between culture change and the following factors: (1) change and innovation being rewarded ($r=0.60$, $p<0.0005$), (2) the change being kept small and manageable ($r=0.47$, $p<0.0005$), (3) visible support by the sponsor throughout the project ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$), (4) a capable project team ($r=0.36$, $p<0.0005$) and (5) progress toward the goals being tracked and publicized ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$). On the other hand, a significant negative correlation was found between culture change and these factors: (1) sponsor leaving ($r=-0.58$, $p<0.0005$), (2) suppliers failing to deliver products or services as promised ($r=-0.41$, $p<0.0005$), (3) key executives not supporting the change ($r=-0.39$, $p<0.0005$), (4) the change clashing with the current culture ($r=-0.37$, $p<0.0005$) and (5) the lack of an obvious plan ($r=-0.34$, $p<0.0005$).

Kotter (1996) also argues that changing organisational culture should be the final phase of the transformational process, not the first. This is because successful culture changes only after new systems have been installed, restructuring has occurred, new behaviours have been adopted and people are able to see the connections between their new actions and improved performance.

2.5.4.2 Summary of Sub-Section

In order to be successful in change, organisational culture must be addressed before implementing any change interventions, otherwise these will probably fail. It has been found that organisational culture in the public sector is different from that in the private sector (Brown et al., 2003; Greasley et al., 2009). Public sector culture is still dominated by hierarchical and political ideologies which make change within this sector very difficult (Werkman, 2009). Moreover, change management models which are developed for the private sector might be not suitable in the public sector (Greasley et al., 2009). Thus, Brown et al. (2003) suggest that a hybrid model, having the better qualities of bureaucracy and market focus required to deliver effective service, might be appropriate for the public sector.

It has also been argued (Claver et al., 1999) that the public service has a view on “the way things are done” which differs from one country to another. Thus, the next chapter will discuss the impact of Middle East culture on management systems in general and change management in particular.

2.5 Conclusion of the Chapter

This review of the literature began with an exploration of the concept of organisational change and then turned to the historical foundation of change management. This served as a basis for understanding the critical factors affecting the successful implementation of change. The historical foundations of organisational change are attributed to three major schools of thought: the classical, open system and contingency approaches. Two other approaches—the processual approach and complexity theory—were identified as useful in understanding and changing organisations, but it was noted that while these are frequently referred to within the wider organisational theory literature, less consideration is given to them in the change management literature. The two main practical products of these schools of thought were identified as the planned and emergent approaches to change.

The planned approach to change is based on the classical school of thought, which views change as a process that moves an organisation from an undesirable state to a more desirable future state through a series of planned steps and actions. According to this approach, change must be planned and controlled in order for it to be implemented successfully. Thus, this approach focuses on leadership style and organisational

structure, where change must also be determined by a manager who holds a position of power within the hierarchical structure of the organisation, because such a manager has legitimate authority to initiate change in an organisation and the responsibility to identify the best methods of work. However, the planned approach has faced a number of criticisms in terms of its perspectives toward managing change. It is said to ignore some critical factors that have a great impact on the successful implementation of change, such as power and politics. This criticism has been disputed by advocates of the planned approach, who argue that it has been used to deal with serious problems such as racism and religion which require politics (Burnes, 2004d). French and Bell (1999) state that OD emphasises the importance of the positive features of the use of power in order to implement change. OD practitioners should understand the nature of power and politics, the tactics of influence and the behaviour of power holders; and they should learn more about bargaining and negotiation. Moreover, OD has tended to move away from a focus on group issues and Lewin's humanistic approach to change, paying more attention to organisational issues such as culture, learning, socio-technical systems and transformational change, in order to meet the needs of modern organisations (Burnes, 2004d).

In reaction to this criticism of the planned approach to change, the emergent approach draws from a variety of schools of thought (the open system, contingency, processual and complexity approaches). It views change as a continuous and open-ended process of adapting to changing situations, rather than as a planned sequence of steps or actions within a given timetable, whose objectives and methods are fixed in advance. Within this approach, the critical factors in the successful implementation of change are leadership, power and politics, culture and structure. Among the limitations attributed to the emergent approach are that it lacks coherence, that there is little variety in its available techniques and that it is difficult to apply.

It can be concluded from the above review of change management approaches and studies that the planned and emergent approaches pay considerable attention to certain critical factors in order to be successful in the implementation of change: leadership; power and politics; organisational structure and organisational culture. The main disparities between approaches are thus significant only in terms of the characteristics of these factors and how they should be managed in order for change to be successful. For instance, leadership is an important factor in both approaches to change management;

the essential difference is that the planned approach requires managers to be implementers of change who initiate and control it, while the emergent approach requires them to be coaches, consultants and political agents of change. It would therefore be misleading to think of “good” or “bad” approaches to managing change; leadership styles, types of power, political tactics and organisational structures designed to implement successful change, the choices among the different approaches or styles depend on several elements such as the type of change, context and organisational culture (Burnes, 1996).

Given the critical role of culture in the successful implementation of change, the next chapter will examine Arab culture and explore its effects on management systems in general and change in particular.

CHAPTER THREE: THE ARAB WORLD¹ AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

3.1 Introduction

As indicated in chapters one and two, change management cannot be studied independently from the economic, political and social features of the environment in which it takes place. That is, in any country, social, economic and political factors play an important role in shaping the management system in general and therefore change management in particular (Ali, 1996; Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Rees and Althakhri, 2008).

The Arab countries have recently witnessed fundamental changes in political, economic and social fields due to urban expansion, population increase and the constant growth of commercial enterprises (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). The discovery of oil and the dramatic rise in oil prices after 1973 have had a great impact on Arab societies and created an unstable environment, especially in the Gulf Cooperation Council² (GCC) countries (Ali, 1990; Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Before the discovery of oil, this was a generally poor region which relied on seafaring, pearling and limited trade (Abdalla, 1997; Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Since the Second World War, by contrast, the oil-rich Muslim countries of the Middle East have exerted a great influence over the whole business world (Furham, 2003; Adidam et al., 2009). Iles et al. (2006) express similar views, stating that “the Arab World remains of significance to the Western world not only for its economic interests but also because it contains a large proportion of the world’s Islamic people, who account for 20 per cent of the world’s believers”.

This chapter therefore aims to give a snapshot of Arab countries by examining: (1) the context of the Arab world and the GCC, (2) national culture and its influence on management practices and organisational change, (3) Arab culture and its influence on these, (4) previous research into change management in the Arab world.

¹ The Arab world or Middle East extends from Iraq in the east to Morocco in the west. This study excludes non-Arab Middle Eastern countries such as Turkey and Iran.

² The GCC countries include Saudi Arabia, Oman, Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates. They are rich in oil, have a population of over 28 million and an area of 2.7 million sq km (Mellahi, 2003:88).

3.2 The Context of the Arab World

Particular attention should be paid to the GCC countries, because they are strategically very important in terms of oil production, their modern economies and the amount of foreign direct investment which they have attracted (Mellahi, 2003). There are also similarities among them in terms of political and economic systems, labour markets and cultural contexts (ibid). Accordingly, this section will focus on the GCC countries within the Arab world. However, Mellahi (2003) indicates that all Arab countries are similar in their context.

3.2.1 The Political Systems of the Arab World

It has been argued (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007) that the characteristics of the current political systems of the GCC countries seem to be contributing to slow economic growth in these countries. Mellahi (2003) indicates that these systems are based on traditional sheikdoms and tribalism, with large royal families. Thus, the government plays a critical role in regulating political systems and business affairs (Mellahi, 2003).

Mellahi (2003) states that since GCC governments control the economic affairs of their countries, relationships with governments must be considered in order to secure business deals on the basis of 'who you know'. In this context, nepotism has been allowed in the Arab world in order to fulfil the responsibilities of individuals towards their relatives and extended families. It is often apparent in the recruitment of upper level managers, though qualifications are stressed in the selection of middle managers and lower-level employees (see Ali, 1995; Hutchings and Weir 2006). Nepotism is regarded as a social mechanism which determines the allocation of resources in society and the economy (Mellahi, 2003).

This view is supported by Iles et al. (2006), who found that the human resources practice in Libya was significantly affected by various factors, such as the socio-political context and a tribal system where managers were more concerned with establishing social relationships at the workplace than the job itself. However, economic globalisation has intensified the pressures in favour of reforming political systems in the Arab world (Partrick et al., 2006).

3.2.2 The Economic Context of the GCC

Generally, the economy of the Arab world, especially in the GCC Countries, is dominated by the oil sector (Mellahi, 2003), which helps these countries to develop education, health and social protection systems and to increase trade (Eken et al., 2003). Abed (2003) indicates that while the Arab world has approximately 2.6 percent of the world's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), there is a significant gap between the richest and poorest countries in the region in terms of GDP, as can be seen in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: GDP per capita of some Arab Countries (International Dollars)

Countries	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Qatar	87,716.726	95,092.738	98,337.052	93,228.199	87,743.337	82,515.926
Kuwait	38,875.587	39,977.787	41,091.324	42,515.535	44,117.293	45,716.499
UAE	38,283.571	38,625.692	39,318.483	40,540.708	42,074.682	43,791.954
Bahrain	35,561.241	36,702.566	37,941.408	39,737.554	41,691.172	43,737.982
Oman	25,829.281	26,960.471	28,225.332	29,318.542	30,663.560	32,224.788
Saudi Arabia	23,387.632	24,101.954	24,870.627	25,884.389	27,010.361	28,207.598
Lebanon	13,951.959	14,542.824	15,143.559	15,900.433	16,724.217	17,589.314
Tunisia	8,284.820	8,661.963	9,131.789	9,720.694	10,381.065	11,109.507
Algeria	6,854.931	7,112.138	7,386.550	7,719.386	8,085.651	8,462.783
Egypt	6,147.119	6,393.939	6,676.467	7,028.975	7,447.972	7,891.808
Jordan	5,661.976	5,844.274	6,055.384	6,326.226	6,652.221	6,994.472
Syria	4,857.575	5,016.309	5,248.463	5,498.451	5,778.161	6,075.456
Iraq	3,587.587	3,757.656	3,969.586	4,251.124	4,590.554	4,892.294
Yemen	2,474.752	2,617.616	2,676.632	2,753.053	2,850.639	2,953.894
Sudan	2,376.426	2,480.149	2,568.291	2,657.526	2,761.381	2,877.576

Source: International Monetary Fund, (2009)

Related information has been provided by Eken et al. (2003), who report that 30 percent of the Arab world's people, mostly in Sudan, Yemen and Somalia, live on less than \$2 a day. Moreover, they indicate that the economic systems in some Arab countries are resistant to reform, for several reasons. First, they have unstable political systems and security concerns divert public resources away from development and investment; secondly, there are economic and institutional restrictions, such as the dominant role of governments, rigid regulations that impede private sector development and rigid labour markets; and finally, population growth puts pressure on governments to provide social services. High population growth contributes to the fact that Arab countries have among the highest unemployment rates in world, around 15 percent. For instance, in Saudi Arabia unemployment among males aged from 20 to 28 years is around 15 to 20 percent (see Mellahi, 2003).

This view is supported by Abed and Davoodi (2003), who claim that there are some key elements which prevent Arab countries from taking advantage of increasing globalisation. The first is the high annual population growth rates of 2.5 percent over the past 20 years, which have depressed per capita GDP. The second element is the lack of political reform. The existence of authoritarian regimes in some Arab countries remains the main obstacle to economic improvement. The United Nations (2002) states in its Arab Human Development Report that the region performs poorly in terms of political freedom and the development of human skills and knowledge. However, many Arab countries have started to reform their political systems and to introduce more democratic regimes in order to enhance their economic performance, examples being Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) (Partrick et al., 2006). The third element is the dominance of the public sector, which affects economic systems in a number of ways, such as imposing a high cost on revenue collection, causing delays in obtaining licences or permits to start businesses, complex court systems and the poor quality of public services. Thus, the costs of starting new businesses in the Arab region are five times as high as in East Asia and 2.5 times as high as in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (Abed and Davoodi, 2003: 15). Al-yousif (2004) reports that the public sector in GCC countries accounts for 60 percent of GDP, which constrains private sector development.

Thus, Mellahi (2003) and Rees et al. (2007) indicate that since the 1970s, oil revenue has been employed to develop and enhance the public sector in GCC countries, allowing governments to provide well-paid employment to locals, good work packages and good pension systems. Consequently, locals prefer to work in the public rather than the private sector, which has led some GCC countries, such as Saudi Arabia, Oman and the UAE, to adopt national strategies to encourage the private sector to employ locals (see Rees et al., 2007). However, the private sector has resisted these programmes for various reasons. First, they are dependent on foreign manual labour, which is cheaper. Despite government efforts to minimise the hiring of foreign workers by introducing new policies and regulations such as high charges for issuing and renewing work permits, locals are still more expensive to employ. Social and cultural features are also important to locals, as they prefer not to do manual work and technical jobs, which are more likely to be available in private sector organisations. Thirdly, expatriates are easier to control and more obedient than local workers. The final reason is that the locals avoid

social integration into the multinational work environment (Mellahi, 2003; Rees et al., 2007).

It has been argued, however (Mellahi, 2003), that despite these changes in the business environment, organisations in the Arab world have not adopted the attitudes, values and norms that are needed in the new era. Budhwar and Mellahi (2007) indicate that Arab countries still have management systems similar to most other developing countries, favouring local cultural values, beliefs and norms. Therefore, the next section offers a brief explanation of national culture and its influence on management practices, with particular attention to Arab culture and how its values affect management practice in general and change management in particular.

3.3 National Culture and its Influence on Management Practices and Change

The increasing globalisation of markets, competition and organisation has led many management scholars to believe that cultures are converging and becoming similar. This belief has raised many questions as to whether management models and practices are capable of being transferred from one country to another. The advocates of the convergence approach argue that management is management, and that it is associated with a set of principles and techniques which can be implemented universally (see Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Harris et al., 2003; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Pugh and Hickson, 2004). Nevertheless, it has been observed that management models and practices do vary considerably from country to country (see Ali and Robert, 1995; Easterby-Smith, 1995; Allinson and Hayes, 2000; Aycan et al., 2007). The influential research by Hofstede (1991) demonstrates that management theories usually reflect the socio-cultural characteristics of their settings; implementing these theories in a new context may lead to failure. Similarly, Laurent (1986) states that managers from different national cultures adhere to their values, norms and beliefs as to the nature of management and organisation, which then shape their different systems. Therefore, translating them into alternative management and organisational practices might clash with the original assumptions.

The opponents of the divergence approach argue that management theory is affected by historical legacy, social values, beliefs and norms, political and economic systems (Ali, 1996; Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Jackson, 2002). A survey of 11,678 managers in 25 countries found evidence that “the idea of a corporate global village where a common

culture of management unifies the practices of business around the world is more dream than reality” (Schneider and Barsoux, 2003:7). Notwithstanding this argument, we should accept the fact that organisations and their employees cannot be separated from the beliefs and social contexts surrounding them. The social context can affect the means by which managers carry out their jobs and apply their organisational strategies. Cultural assumptions still play a critical role in determining and transferring appropriate management systems and practices (Furnham, 2005; Harris et al., 2003; Jackson, 2002; Tayeb, 1997). Given the above, the management of organisational change is one significant feature of organisations which is likely to be affected by cultural influences (Rees and Althakhri, 2008).

One of the most influential studies in the field of intercultural management was that of Hofstede (1980; see Harris et al., 2003; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003). Mead (2005) indicates that Hofstede’s definition of national culture is still best known to management researchers. Hofstede defines national culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture” (cited by Mead, 2005:8). Hofstede’s study, originally carried out in 50 countries, investigated the impact of national culture on organisations in different regions of the world (Kolman et al., 2003; Mead, 2005). He suggested that there are four dimensions which describe national culture. These are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity (Rodrigues, 1995; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Kolman et al., 2003).

Power distance refers to the extent to which people accept an unequal distribution of power within institutions and organisations (see Harris et al., 2003). The unequal distribution of power might affect the behaviour not only of the less powerful but also of the more powerful members of a society (Hofstede, 1991). In societies dominated by small power distance, people have a high intolerance for the unequal distribution of power. This is reflected in organisational structures where hierarchical structures and centralisation of authority are seen by employees as a means of applying inequality of power between subordinates and superiors and therefore unacceptable (see Schneider and Barsoux, 2003). Such workers prefer a more democratic management style, a flatter organisational structure and working as a team to achieve organisational goals (Harris et al., 2003; Schein, 2004). In large power distance societies, an unequal distribution of

power is accepted. In organisational terms, subordinates tend to be compliant and do not participate in decisions or actions that might impact on them directly or indirectly. This is because the managers of such organisations believe that they can achieve high performance through hierarchical structures, centralised decision-making, clear accountability, highly formalised and specialised functions (Rodrigues, 1995; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Schein, 2004).

Individualism reflects the extent to which individuals are independent and concerned with their own interests and needs, as opposed to collectivism, in which individuals prefer to be integrated into strong groups (Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Schein, 2004; Mead, 2005). Thus, in societies with a high degree of individualism, “individual decisions are valued above group decisions, and the individual has a right to thoughts and opinions which vary from those held by the majority” (Mead, 2005:44). In societies with a high degree of collectivism, teamwork, cooperation and the sharing of values and knowledge are more highly valued than individual initiative. Motivation and reward are often based on being part of group (see Schneider and Barsoux, 2003).

Uncertainty avoidance represents the extent to which people feel threatened by unpredictable and ambiguous situations (Harris et al., 2003; Tayeb, 2003). Countries may be classified as weak or strong in terms of uncertainty avoidance. Hence, in countries whose culture is dominated by weak uncertainty avoidance, people tend to be comfortable with unpredictable situations and tolerant toward new ideas (Tayeb, 2003). They would be willing to take risks and be less resistant to change. Thus, organisations tend to be flexible and responsive to change. In contrast, people in a culture of strong uncertainty avoidance are likely to be intolerant toward new ideas and ambiguous situations. They prefer to avoid taking risks and to maintain rigid codes of values, while detailed plans are expected in order to secure and determine future activities. Hence, managers play major roles in planning, organising, coordinating and controlling; and they too prefer stability and security (Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Mead, 2005).

In societies with a high **masculinity orientation**, so-called ‘masculine’ characteristics such as assertiveness and competitiveness tend to dominate, while the more ‘feminine’ traits such as compassion and caring are features of low masculinity cultures. Clearly, while the choice of the terms ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ is controversial, the dimension

acknowledges the work performed by anthropologists such as Margaret Mead, who sought to explain why some cultures are more aggressive than others.

In later work, Hofstede added a fifth dimension to his framework, namely, **long-term/short-term orientation**. This is connected to the manner in which time is treated within the culture; for example, the emphasis placed upon tradition and concern for the way in which current activities are likely to impact upon future generations (see Mead, 2005).

According to the above dimensions, change management differs from country to country (Mead, 2005). It has been therefore argued (Harris et al., 2003; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Mead, 2005; Aycan 2005; Rees and Althakhri, 2008) that national cultures differ in terms of planning for change and strategy. Thus, in societies whose culture is dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation, change is likely to be regarded as a threat; therefore, more detailed plans are required in order to resolve ambiguous situations. A short-term strategy is adopted in order to have quick feedback. On the other hand, in societies with a low degree of uncertainty avoidance and short-term orientation, people tend to be more tolerant of change; thus, they will be less resistant to it. Against this theoretical background, the next section examines the effects of Arab culture on management practices and change management.

3.4 Arab Culture and its Influence on Management Practices and Change

It has been indicated (see Ali, 1990; Bakhtari, 1995; Tayeb 1997; Mellahi, 2003; Rees and Althakhri, 2008; Ali and Al-Owaihian, 2008) that there are particular factors which shape cultural assumptions and management practices in the Arab world, including the impact of Islam and tribal systems. Understanding these factors will help to identify aspects of the social environment of Arab countries which influence the organisational change strategies adopted in these contexts.

3.4.1 Islam

Islam is regarded as one of the most important factors which have shaped current Arab values, norms and beliefs (Bakhtari, 1995; Darwish, 2001; Barhem et al., 2009). It has been indicated (Tayeb 1997; Barhem et al., 2009) that religion, in many countries with either secular or religious constitutions, plays a critical role in shaping the cultural characteristics of the people and their organisations. Al-Shaikh (2003) argues that Islam is not only a religion that provides the relationship between people and *Allah* (God), but

to believers it organises all features of life including business, economics, political and social issues. Therefore, the Islamic work ethic is based on the Holy Quran and the sayings of the Prophet Mohammed (Ali, 1996; Ali and Al-Owaihah, 2008; Barhem et al., 2009). According to Furnham (2005), business in Islamic societies cannot be separated from Islamic rules and regulations, while Darwish (2001) notes that Islam encourages people to be honest and just in business and trade. Cooperation and consultation in work are encouraged in order to overcome obstacles and avoid mistakes. The Islamic work ethic emphasises that social relations at work meet an individual's needs and create a balance between the individual's work and social life (Ali and Al-Owaihah, 2008). An overview of Islamic work values is provided in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Islamic Work Values

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Laziness is a vice. • Dedication to work is a virtue. • Good work benefits both oneself and others. • Justice and generosity in the workplace are necessary conditions for society's welfare. • Producing more than enough to meet one's personal needs contributes to the prosperity of society as whole. • One should carry out work to the best of one's ability. • Work is not an end in itself but a means to foster personal growth and social relations. • Life has no meaning without work. • More leisure is not good for society. • Human relations in an organisation should be emphasised and encouraged. • Work enables Man to control Nature. • Creative work is a source of happiness and accomplishment. • A man who works is more likely to get ahead in life. • Work gives one the chance to be independent. • A successful man is one who meets deadlines at work. • One should constantly work hard to meet responsibilities. • The value of work is derived from the accompanying intention rather than its result.
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Source: adapted from Mellahi, 2003, p97

Ali and Al-Kazemi (2007) studied the impact of the Islamic work ethic on the lives of managers in Kuwait, involving a sample of 762 managers and an Islamic work ethic scale. The results show that managers had a high commitment to the Islamic work ethic. Related information is provided by Hunt and Al-Twajjri (1996), who argue that Saudi managers show a commitment to the Islamic work ethic and a moderate tendency toward individualism. They indicate that Saudi Arabian culture is strongly affected by Islamic values and tribalism.

Similarly, Darwish (2001) investigated the moderating impact of the Islamic work ethic on the relationships between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, using a sample of 425 Muslim employees in 30 organisations in the United Arab Emirates. The

results indicate that employees were highly committed to the Islamic work ethic. The relationships between this ethic and each of two factors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, were positive. The results show that those who adhere closely to an Islamic work ethic are more committed to their organisations and more satisfied with their jobs. According to Mellahi (2003), Islamic values emphasise the importance of respect for leaders. Subordinates must obey them and comply with their directives; conversely, leaders should consult their subordinates before decisions are taken.

Despite the fact that the Islamic work ethic is a factor common to Muslims across the world, the Islamic and Arab worlds should not be considered ideal examples of the implementation of Islamic rules and regulation. This is because many Muslims have been influenced by capitalism, socialism and secularism (see Al-Shaikh, 2003). Therefore, differences between Islamic countries can be observed in economic and business systems as well as social contexts (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). For instance, Saudis are committed to implementing Islamic law (*Sharia*) in many aspects of life, while Turkey has long been subject to secular law in order to organise its economic, business and social affairs (see Tayeb, 1997).

3.4.2 Tribalism

In addition to Islamic values, tribal systems influence Arab management practices. Tribalism is sanctioned by current political, economic and management systems (see Ali, 1990, 1995; Mellahi, 2003; Lewis, 2006). Arab culture is traditional, family oriented, male dominated and conservative in risk taking (Bakhtari, 1995). A tribalist approach helps to establish the authoritarian structure within the public and private sectors in the Arab world (Bakhtari, 1995). Ali (1995) indicates that the characteristics of authoritarianism embrace an open-door policy, hierarchal structures and the centralisation of decision-making, while rules and regulations are dependent on the person who has the most powerful position within the hierarchal structure. In Arab societies, tribalists can be described as “rigid, uncreative, believers in myths, risk avoiders, imposers of their values and rules on others, dichotomous in their view of right and wrong, and strict adherers to the established norms of society” (Ali, 1998:5). Using the cultural dimensions of Hofstede, it is worth noting that the Arab world is typically represented as dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance, large power distance, high collectivism and a masculine orientation (see Kalliny et al., 2006; Behery

and Parton, 2008; Nazari et al, 2009). Values of these four indices for Arab countries, Great Britain and the USA, with rank numbers, are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Values of the indices for Arab countries, Great Britain and the US (with rank numbers)

Country	Power Distance		Uncertainty Avoidance		Individualism		Masculinity	
	Score*	Rank	Score*	Rank	Score*	Rank	Score*	Rank
Arab countries	80	7	68	27	38	26/27	53	23
Great Britain	35	42/44	35	47/48	89	3	66	9/10
USA	40	38	46	43	91	1	62	15
* Scores range from zero for small power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, or femininity to 100 for large power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance, individualism, or masculinity. Source: Hofstede (1991).								

It should be kept in mind (Klein and Waxin, 2009) that there is a difference between organisational culture and national culture: the former stems from consistency in practices while the latter arises from consistency in values. Klein and Waxin (2009) found that organisational culture must be compatible with national culture in order for the organisation to function well. They examined the impact of national culture on organisational culture by using a sample of 17 organisations in the UAE. The results indicate an impact of societal values on preferred organisational cultural norms. This view is supported by Alas and Edwards (2007:23) who indicate

“Work-related values can be regarded as the outcome of the intricate interaction of a number of factors which include the national cultural and institutional context, the specific industry context, the organisational environment and, finally, the characteristics of individuals themselves”.

Many empirical studies that have been conducted in the Arab world confirm Hofstede’s findings at national and organisational levels. For instance, Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) argue that Arab countries are similar in social culture, tending to be strongly group oriented, hierarchical, masculine and low on future orientation. Budhwar and Mellahi (2007) point out that the Arabian Peninsula (the GCC) is dominated by traditional sheikhdoms and autocratic systems. They indicate that human resource management in Oman, for example, is strongly influenced by Islamic values, tribe and family.

Mellahi (2003) suggests that large power distance in the Arab world might be ascribed to Muslim values, which relate to respect for authority as well as tribalism or Bedouin systems. He argues that the Arab world is dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance. This is because people in Arab societies have “lower tolerance for new ideas, lower degree of initiative for bringing about change, fatalism, unquestioning acceptance of conventional wisdom and obedience to justified authority” (Mellahi, 2003:98).

Moreover, the Arab world is highly collectivist within the tribe and highly individualist with the out-group (see Bakhtari, 1995 and Mellahi, 2003).

Anwar and Chaker (2003) investigated the differences between the American and Arab cultures and how American organisations are affected by Arab culture when operating in the Arab context, using a sample of 57 employees of US and Arab organisations operating in the UAE and a focus-group interview with 5 Arab and 5 US human resource managers. The results show that Arab organisations prefer to adopt a centralised, command-and-control policy. Formal lines of communication are neglected in favour of tribal and personal connections. Moreover, Arab organisations adopt a top-down approach in terms of decision-making and rely on personal relations and seniority for promotion, unlike the situation in the US organisations, which adopt a participative style to decision-making and rely on performance for promotion. However, it has been observed that American organisations operating in the UAE tend to adopt a hierarchical structure similar to that in Arab organisations. This is because UAE citizens employed in the UAE expect to achieve rapid promotion; therefore, it is important for US organisations to adopt a hierarchical structure in order to give them more chance of promotion. The study concludes that Western organisations must adapt their management philosophies and practices to suit the Arab context in order to be successful.

Arab tribal values have also been found to reinforce the concept of consultative and participative decision styles. Ali et al. (1997) surveyed a group of 307 managers in Kuwait to examine the individualism-collectivism dichotomy along with decision-making style. The results showed that managers tend to prefer consultative and participative decision styles. Similarly, Darwish (1998) examined the role of organisational culture and the level of technology employed in organisations as predictors of decision-making style in non-Western countries, among 215 managers in the UAE. The results indicated a tendency towards participative and consultative styles in decision-making. However, although consultative and participative decision-making styles are the most common in Arab culture, decisions are taken without subordinates and are not delegated (see Dedoussis, 2000). It has been argued (Tayeb, 1997) that participation in decision-making might be considered by subordinates as a management weakness in Arab culture. Furthermore, managers and subordinates in Arab societies dislike teamwork.

Other studies have identified managerial problems caused by tribalism in Arab societies, especially in the GCC countries. For example, a survey of 210 employees in private and public sector organisations in the UAE found serious managerial problems such as centralisation of authority, inadequate information systems and planning, comments at work being taken as personal criticisms and a weak inclination towards research and theories (Ali and Azim, 1996). Similarly, Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002) investigated managerial problems in Kuwait using a sample of 762 managers. They found that the most important managerial problems were favouritism and personal loyalty at work, unwillingness to take responsibility, rigid administrative systems and policies, primacy of personal relationships over work relationships, subjectivity in appraisal and promotion, reliance on hereditary relations and a variety of rules which conflicted with each other. They found that these problems could be ascribed to tribal thinking, which is prevalent in Kuwaiti society.

Accordingly, Sabri (2007:6) describes Middle Eastern management as characterised by

“hierarchical authority, rules and regulations, contingent on the personality and power of the individuals who make them, subordination of efficiency to personal relations and connections, indecisiveness on decision making, informality among lower level managers, a generally patriarchal approach and nepotism”.

Authoritarian, bureaucratic and social integration leadership styles therefore exist in Arab culture (Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yasin and Saba, 2008). A similar view is expressed by Eibanna (2008:781), who indicates that “Egyptian managers are likely to keep a long hierarchical distance and be relatively respectful towards leadership, fatalistic and inclined to act according to the particular relationship involved rather than in accord with general rules or standards”. Therefore, employees in the Middle East are concerned to build personal relationships with superiors and show respect for seniority (Eibanna, 2008; Nazari et al, 2009). However, Brain and Lewis (2004) indicate that transformational leadership can work effectively in collectivist cultures such as those found in the Middle East.

3.4.3 The Effects of Arab Culture on Change Management Initiatives

Rees and Althakhri (2008) state that the Arab culture affects change management. For instance, a study of 474 employees in 30 organisations in the UAE reported that the Islamic work ethic positively affected all dimensions of attitudes toward change. The results indicate that those who were committed to the Islamic work ethic supported

change in their organisations, believing that organisational change tends to benefit the organisation (Darwish, 2000).

It has also been argued (Furnham, 2005; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Mead, 2005) that planning for change is affected by religion and philosophy. In many Muslim societies, a long-term perspective is seen as inappropriate because many Muslims believe that only *Allah* can foresee the future. Planning is thus always subject to *Insh Allah*, that is, 'as God wills'. Furnham, (2005) argues that change in Muslims societies may be viewed as unnecessary or in the hands of God and that people tend to prefer the status quo. However, Rees and Althakhri (2008) argue that this might be challenged on the basis that such beliefs are the result of many Muslims misunderstanding the teachings of their own religion. That is, viewing the future as in God's hands does not conflict with planning for the future. In fact, Islamic teachings urge Muslims to be productive in their lives by multiplying the rewards for those who work hard to benefit others, which cannot be achieved without planning (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Without going into deep religious issues, Islam censures those who claim they would have done things if only they had been guided by God, by emphasising that preparation and planning are important (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Indeed, God has even promised rewards for having the intention to change but not having done so for outside reasons (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). This view is supported by Ahmad (2009:81), who indicates that

“from an Islamic perspective, leaders have a clear vision of objective, strategic and tactical plans, have high expectancy, energy, drive, self-confidence, a need for responsibility and control, strong communication skills. They are willing to take risks and criticisms and have a desire for recognition and an interesting job, as well as authority”.

Rees and Althakhri (2008) argue that Arab culture is dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation, and that change is likely to be regarded as a threat; therefore, more detailed plans are required in order to resolve ambiguous situations and to be successful in change. By contrast, in societies with a low degree of uncertainty avoidance and short-term orientation, people tend to be more tolerant of change and thus less resistant to it. Moreover, Mead (2005) notices that difficulty in planning change in the Middle East is exacerbated by the common perception of time as unlimited and flexible; therefore, plans for change vary according to circumstances. He

also argues that monitoring the process of implementation of organisational change is not taken seriously in these societies.

Because of the authoritarian, bureaucratic and social integration leadership styles prevalent in Arab culture, leaders tend to prefer a stable environment and avoid change within organisations (Shahin and Wright, 2004; Sabri, 2007; Yasin and Saba, 2008). Strong leadership is required in order to direct employees to the organisational goals (Ali, 1998). Thus, organisational change must be determined by the manager, who holds a position of power within the hierarchical structure of the organisation, because the manager is seen to hold legitimate authority to initiate change in the organisation (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Support for this perspective was found by Mead (2005), who showed that, in countries dominated by large power distance such as in the Arab world, managers are seen to have the right to plan for change and subordinates have no authority to make plans. Thus, subordinates expect to receive detailed plans for change from managers without necessarily participating in the decision-making process. Moreover, he argues that monitoring the process of implementation of organisational change is not taken seriously in these societies. Therefore, change management in the Arab world is “slow placed, centrally controlled, and aimed at achieving technical rationality and efficiency” (Cummings and Worley, 2001:560).

However, Francesco and Gold (1998) argue that not all organisations have the same values as the national culture. They indicate that the culture of the USA is very low on resistance to change and the preferred change strategy is participative, but there are some organisations which adopt a coercive strategy. This does not suggest that national culture has no effect on change, but rather that specific organisational cultures can adjust to it. McSweeney (2002) indicates that culture varies not only between countries but also within units of the same organisation. Al-Yahya et al. (2009) also argue that with increasing industrialisation, the impact of economic and technological factors will become stronger than that of culture. For instance, Behery and Paton (2008) suggest that the contextual, socio-economic and political conditions within the UAE are not typical of the region. They also state that the UAE has great diversity, in that its population includes 185 nationalities, which must have some impact on its culture. However, Alas and Edwards (2007) argue that the values and attitudes which are deeply rooted in the culture might not be affected by economic.

Notwithstanding this argument, Rees and Althakhri (2008) note that although the Arab world is strongly group-oriented, hierarchical, masculine and low on future orientation, there is also a tendency towards contemporary management theory and practice. Aycan et al. (2007) surveyed a group of 712 employees working in six large organisations in Oman in order to examine the impact of cultural orientation on employee preferences for human resource policies and practices. The findings show a high orientation towards mastery, harmony, thinking and doing, and low orientation towards hierarchy, collectivism, subjugation and humans as evil. These findings contrast with the historical background of Oman – a context that is based around a tribal system. Related information has been provided by the GLOBE project, which examined cultural values and work behaviour in 62 countries, including the Arab countries of Kuwait, Egypt, Morocco and Qatar. The project found that Arab countries have a high tendency towards future and performance orientations and are low on power distance (Aycan et al., 2007).

3.5 Previous Studies Related to Organisational Change in the Arab World

As to developing countries, a limited number of studies are available on organisational change and this issue is still at an early stage (Al Blori, 2005). Thus, Alqahtani (2006) argues that the absence of a strategic change and development agenda has led to various problems in the Arab world, especially in the GCC countries. These are increased numbers of foreign workers, high unemployment rates, lack of loyalty to organisations, the undue influence of the tribal system and family relationships within companies, the spread of administrative corruption, conflict between ministries in terms of their responsibilities and lack of interaction with international players. A failure to undergo strategic change also produces ideological deviation (terrorism), which has had a major influence on Arab societies. Against this background, Alqahtani (2006) emphasises the importance of change management as a powerful strategy in order to reform public sector organisations and deal with these issues. To this end, he proposes that two main questions should be considered by Arab practitioners: what changes are required in order to reform the public sector, and how can this change be managed?

Support for this approach comes from Alqaruni and Alanzi (2004), who assessed the efforts towards administrative reform in all the ministries in Kuwait, especially after the Iraqi invasion. They found that the achievements of management development were weak, because there was no clear strategy to develop the public sector in Kuwait.

Therefore, they recommended that practitioners should design a national reform strategy in order to improve all Kuwaiti ministries.

Similarly, Alfawari and Alamari (2000) surveyed a group of 200 managers to examine their attitudes towards organisational development and change in the service sector in Qatar. They found that one of the most important problems facing the process of management development in Qatar was the absence of clear strategies for change and development. They therefore recommended that practitioners should develop a framework which would help the service sector in Qatar to implement its strategy and action plan. Moreover, they urged that such a framework should be compatible with the organisational culture embedded in Qatari society.

As well as the work outlined above, a considerable amount of research, theoretical and empirical, has explored the topic of change management in a number of Arab countries. This review summarizes some of these studies, including their objectives, methods and main findings, as can be seen in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Summary of Change Management Research in the Arab World

Author(s)	Objective(s)	Research method	Conclusions
Alhalawani (1990)	To investigate the role of change in management development	Questionnaire survey	(1) Change must be planned and implemented carefully in order to be successful; (2) change should not be based on personal objectives, (3) attention should be paid to motivation systems and negotiation with employees through informal channels in order to persuade them to accept change and (4) successful change should not be continuous, because permanent change might lead to the creation of a state of fear and suspicion among employees and an unstable environment in the organisation.
Alawalma (1992)	To investigate managers' attitudes towards organisational change in public administration in Jordan	Questionnaire and interview methods Sample: 234 managers	Almost 70% of managers supported change in their organisation in order to improve organisational and individual performance; the management of change in Jordan's public administration was facing various challenges, such as inadequate planning, poor implementation and resistance to change from employees.
Abu-Hamdieh (1994)	To examine the impact of the participation of employees, good relationships between them at work and the availability of information on change processes	Questionnaire Sample: 1,917 employees in 40 industrial companies in Jordan	Participation, good relations between employees at work and availability of information have a positive correlation with effective change processes, while age and the nature of work have significant correlations with resistance to change. By contrast, sex, education and work experience were found to have no association with resistance to change.

Author(s)	Objective(s)	Research method	Conclusion
Alzni (1994)	To examine the role of communications in organisational change.	Questionnaire Sample: 154 employees of the Cairo Saudi Bank	There is a need for effective communication between staff members by providing them with adequate information about change in order to implement change successfully. Managers should increase confidence in their employees and encourage them to participate in change processes, as that would help to reduce resistance to change.
Alkadera and Alfawori (1994)	To investigate managerial attitudes towards organisational development in Jordan	Questionnaires Sample: 300 managers from all ministries and governmental institutions	A majority of managers agreed that organisational development was a part of their task. Results also indicate that organisational development in Jordan was facing many challenges: recruitment was not based on employees' capabilities, the monitoring of the process of organisational development was poor, there was a lack of sufficient power for those in charge of organisational development and of qualified specialists in aspects of management development. Despite support from the political administration in Jordan for the organisational development agenda backed by the introduction of new legislation, the process of organisational development is ineffective.
Allozi (1999)	To examines employees' attitudes towards organisational change	Questionnaire Sample: 603 employees of 23 public sector institutions in Jordan	Employees' participation in the change process is one of the most important factors in helping to implement change effectively in governmental institutions. Change from an employee perspective is considered as a threat and an unwanted intrusion. On the other hand, managers tend to have positive views and are more understanding of organisational change. Many factors should be considered by government bodies in Jordan if they are to be successful in managing change such as motivation, training and organisational structure.
Alamri and Alfawsan (1997)	To examine the causes of resistance to change in the public sector in Saudi Arabia	Questionnaire Sample: 450 employees	Employees resist change for several reasons. First, managers are concerned about losing their position and power, while members of staff fear the loss of their jobs; secondly, there are often strong relationships between employees at work, but objectives, actions plans and change processes are unclear to them, so that they do not recognise the need for change. Finally, the most important factor leading employees to resist organisational change is unclear channels of communication between employees and change agents.
Almuslimani (1999)	To examine the obstacles to organisational development in Jordan	Questionnaire survey	Some of the most important obstacles to organisational development are lack of financial support, centralisation of authority, rigid procedures and regulations, and certain social values, including tribalism, family relationships and favouritism.
Alzuadat (1999)	To explore the role of training in situations where organizational change results in the creation of new jobs	Questionnaire survey Sample: 370 employees of a commercial bank in Jordan	Training programmes should be given more attention, especially when a change requires new jobs in order to help employees to gain new capabilities and skills that are necessary for their new status. Employees should participate in change in order to implement it successfully

Author(s)	Objective(s)	Research method	Conclusion
Alomari (2000)	To identify a number of factors that impede change management a telecommunication company in Saudi Arabia	Questionnaire Sample: 350 employees	Factors impeding change include (1) poor planning and implementation of change, (2) a lack of human and material resources allocated to the change programme, (3) change objectives which are not clear to employees, (4) a lack of participation by employees in the change process and (5) managers are anxious about managing change, because they did not wish to lose their power and influence
Alharbi (2002)	To examine the resistance to change in public institutions in Jeddah (Saudi Arabia) and to identify the relationships between resistance to change and demographic variables (age, experience, education and job level)	Questionnaire survey Sample: 348 employees	There are two main factors creating resistance to change: poor planning and management of change, and the fact that managers have no confidence in their employees. The demographic variables examined do indeed have a significant correlation with resistance to change.
Aldkasma (2002)	To investigate the most important factors influencing change in a government department in Irbid, Jordan and to examine the obstacles to such change	Questionnaire	Improvement of organisational performance is the most important driver of organisational change and among the various challenges are (1) poor participation by employees in the change process, (2) neglect of the monitoring of the process, (3) a failure to reinforce the new status applying after the change and (4) a lack of financial and moral support.
Alazam (2002)	To investigate attitudes towards organisational development and change in a Jordanian communications company	Questionnaire Sample: 160 managers	External and internal environments must be analyzed carefully before any decision is taken to initiate change. Employees should be motivated in order to gain their support for the change plan. The organisation needs to adopt a flexible organisational structure and improve communication systems in order to implement change effectively.
Abdah (2006)	To investigate the relationship between leadership styles and organisational development in different government ministries in Jordan	Questionnaire Sample: 397 managers	In order to improve organisational development in the Central Ministries, attention should be paid to delegating authority to staff, simplifying work procedures, reviewing legislation and regulations, and improving communication channels between managers and staff.

Source: Rees and Althakhri (2008:125-127)

As can be seen from Table 3.4, which summarises the earlier research in the area of change management in the Arab world, much of it has provided information about why employees resist organisational change in both private and public sector bodies in some Arab countries. One of the most important factors leading subordinates to resist change appears to be poor planning and implementation of change. The studies also show that

there are other reasons for employees to resist change: (1) managers are concerned about losing their position and power; (2) staff members fear the loss of their jobs; (3) change management objectives are unclear; (4) employees are not trusted; (5) communication between employees and change agents is ineffective; and (6) the need for change is not recognised by employees.

Other challenges to change management in the Arab world are identified: there is a lack of financial and material support for change; change is based on personal objectives; monitoring of the change process is poor; employees are not empowered to participate in change; procedures and regulations are too rigid; and there is a lack of qualified experts in the area of organisational change and development.

Therefore, the studies state that attention should be paid to a number of factors that help to manage change successfully in Arab world. These are: motivation systems, training, changes in organisational structure, communications, employee participation and increased managerial confidence in employees.

3.6 Conclusion of the Chapter

As indicated in chapter one, culture should be addressed in order for change implementation to be successful . This chapter started with an exploration of the context of the Arab world and then turned to the impact of international culture and Arab culture in management in general and change in particular. It has been found that there are some factors related to Arab culture which should be taken seriously in order to implement successful change in this context, such as fatalism, planning for the future (short or long term), time of change, evaluation of change, fear of change, preference for the current situation, nepotism and an authoritarian and bureaucratic mechanism for controlling change.

The review of change management literature in the Arab context indicates that change management failure rates in the Middle East are broadly similar to those reported in Western countries. Thus, several researchers (e.g. Alfawari and Alamari, 2000; Alqaruni and Alanzi, 2004; Alqahtani, 2006) suggest that attention should be given to successful implementation of change management as a powerful strategy in order to reform organisations in the Middle East. Although change management in the Arab

world faces many challenges, Arab researchers have identified some factors that should be considered in order to manage change successfully, as presented in table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Comparison between two Perspectives Regarding Crucial Factors of Change

Critical factors from Middle East Perspective	Critical Factors from Western Perspective
Motivation	Leadership
Training	Power and Politics
Organisational structure and Communication	Organisational structure
Participation	Organisational Culture
Managerial confidence in employees	-

Source: Researcher's Work

In general, it seems reasonable to argue that most such studies of the Middle East have attempted to understand the obstacles and challenges to change management, without any explicit attempt to develop an organisational change framework that is compatible with Arab culture. Moreover, despite the existence in Western literature of a number of organisational change models that are claimed to help in implementing change effectively, Arab researchers have not examined the validity of these models in the Arab context. Support for this contention is provided by Aycan et al. (2007), who indicate that research in developing countries is required both to test the generalisability of theories and practice originating in Western culture and to identify proper alternative strategies for different cultures.

More specifically, Al Blori (2005) argues that change management is still at an early stage in the Middle East. In the light of the results of earlier studies of change management in the Arab world, it can be said that Arab researchers have paid little attention to four factors which are essential to manage change successfully. These are leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and culture.

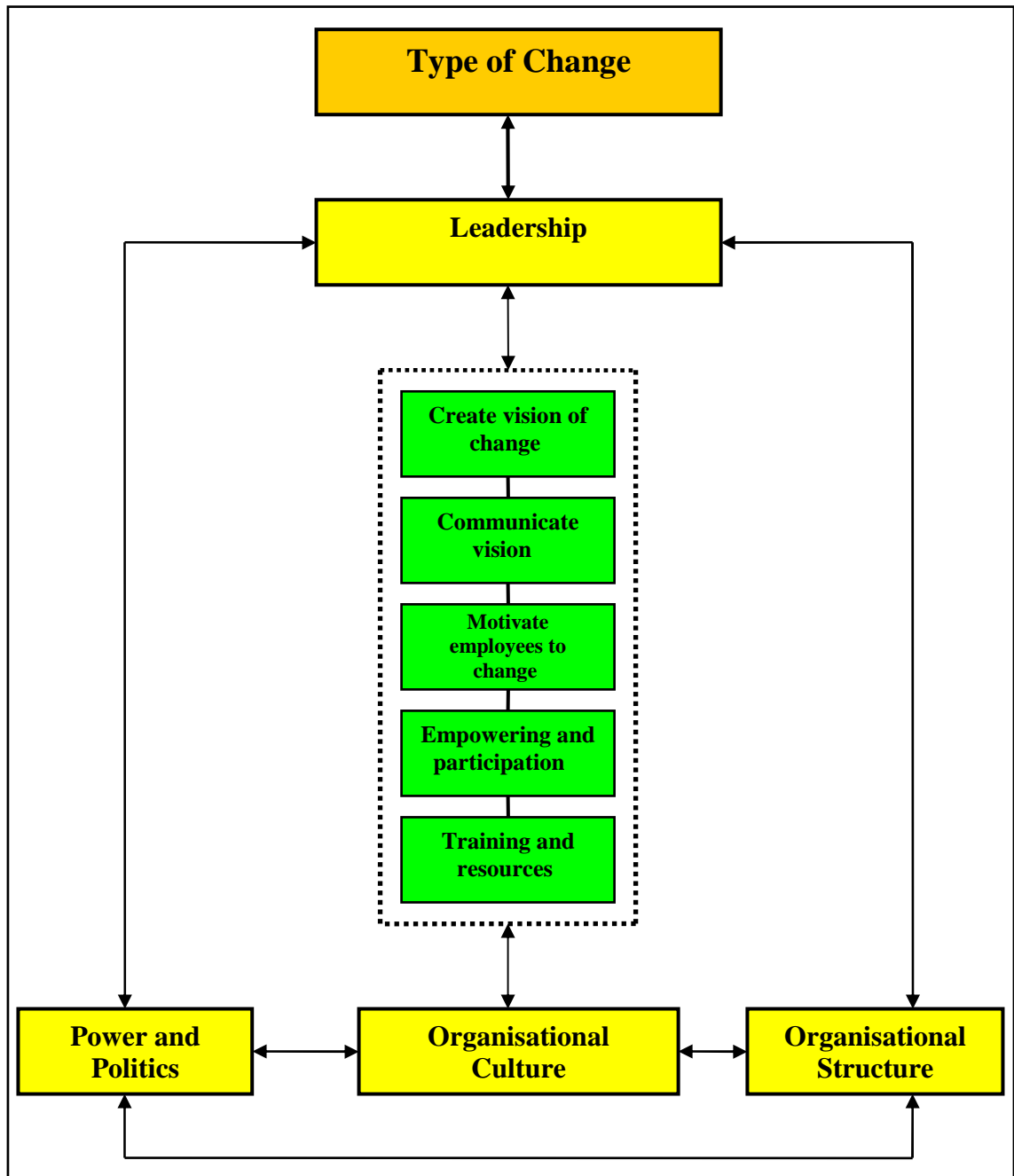
The Western literature also needs to focus on these factors, as Walker et al. (2007) argue that there is little research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success and integration between them. This view is supported by many researchers (e.g. Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham, 2008; Greasley et al., 2009) who indicate that there is a need to examine in depth those factors which can help to implement successful change. Todnem (2005) also suggests that

further study is needed to increase the knowledge of organisational change and to identify the critical factors in the successful implementation of change.

Moreover, public sector organisations require more research regarding change management than private sector ones. Werkman (2009) argues that the main problem is that change management models are usually generalised to the public sector: “Up to now, there has been no research inquiring into such patterns with respect to both structure and agency-related variables and different sectors” (p.666).

The present study attempts to fill this gap by conducting empirical research into the role of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and culture in a public sector organisation in the UAE and the relationships among these factors. Therefore, these factors are related to the conceptual framework as presented in Figure 3.1. The key supposition in this framework is that in order to be successful in the implementation of change, attention must be given to the role of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture. The relationships among these factors should also not be ignored.

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Reseacher's Work

The conceptual framework served as a prior theory that guided this exploratory research. Yeo (2009) argues that the use of theory is not only for defining the appropriate research design, but it also helps in generalising the results of qualitative studies, in comparing the prior theory with the existing literature—which is important to improve the internal validity—and in building the theory. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following questions by employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches:

- 1) What role is played by leadership in the successful implementation of change?

- 2) What are the roles of power and politics in the successful implementation of change?
- 3) What are the most important aspects of Emirati culture which impact upon the successful implementation of change?
- 4) What is the role of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change?
- 5) What are the relationships among these factors?

The next chapter will address the methodology and methods of data collection employed in this study in order to answer these research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the first chapter, the primary aim of this study is to examine the roles of and relationships between leadership, power politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in the successful implementation of strategic change in the public sector in the context of the UAE. To achieve this objective, this study employs a case study methodology and adopts three key data collection methods during fieldwork. The purpose of this chapter is to describe in some depth the rationale for the chosen research design and methodology. It is structured as follows: it first gives an overview of the research philosophy, followed by details of the case study method employed, the research methods and procedures. It ends with a summary.

4.2 Philosophical Assumptions

Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) argue that there are three reasons why an understanding of the philosophical assumptions underlying a piece of research is very helpful. One is that such assumptions can aid researchers to clarify research designs. This requires considering not only what type of evidence is needed and how it is to be collected and interpreted, but also how this will provide answers to the basic research questions being investigated. The second reason is that knowledge of philosophy can also be useful in assisting the researcher to choose appropriate research design and thus avoid the limitations of particular approaches. The final reason is that knowledge of philosophy can assist researchers to identify and even create designs that may be outside their previous experience. It may also recommend how to adjust research designs according to the restrictions that different subjects impose.

In social science research there are two major philosophical positions concerning which methods should be adopted (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Collis and Hussey, 2003). The first of these is positivism. This approach was the dominant epistemological approach from the 1930s to the 1960s (Gray, 2004), its key idea being that “the social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition” (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004:28). Hence, positivists believe that social reality is independent of us and emerges regardless of whether we are aware of it. Thus, the positivist approach attempts to find facts or the causes of social phenomena and to test

the correlation between variables, with little attention to the subjective state of an individual (Collis and Hussey, 2003:52).

The second philosophical position of the social sciences is phenomenology, which is “concerned with the question of how individuals make sense of the world around them and how in particular the philosopher should bracket out preconceptions in his or her grasp of that world” (Bryman and Bell, 2003:13). Phenomenologists believe that reality is determined by people as part of what is being observed, rather than by external factors and objectives (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004). They focus on the meaning and understanding of human behaviour and what is happening by looking at the whole of each situation (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Thus, reality is seen as socially constructed, where people might have different explanations of the situation in which they find themselves. These different explanations probably influence their actions and social interactions. It is important, therefore, to explore subjective meanings in order to understand people’s actions, motives and intentions (Saunders et al., 2003).

Therefore, the type of research and research questions determine appropriate approaches. Saunders et al. (2003:84) argue that “the social world of business and management is far too complex to lend itself to theorizing by definite laws in the same way as the physical sciences”. Thus, researchers indicate that employing a positivist approach in this complex world would cause the loss of rich insights into its complexities. Furthermore, business and management situations are not only complex but unique. They contain a function of a particular set of situations and individuals (see Saunders et al., 2003). Therefore, Jankowicz (2000) argues that a phenomenological approach is more appropriate for business and management research, because it is aimed at capturing the rich complexities of social situations.

Notwithstanding this argument, while the phenomenological approach can indeed help researchers to gain rich information and subjective meanings about theories, concepts, views, beliefs and current practice, using this approach alone would not be sufficient for this study, because it is based on the personal interpretation made by researchers, which creates bias and entails difficulty in generalising the results of the study to a wider group (Creswell and Clark, 2007). Additionally, employing positivism alone is not enough for a clear understanding of the research problem, because this approach only describes what is happening and is ineffective in understanding processes and

management systems. Moreover, the main objective of this study is not the justification of knowledge or a search for facts, but an attempt to understand how different perceptions could be aligned in order to gain rich insights. Such research cannot be completely independent of the objectives of the study, as required in a positivist approach (see Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al., 2003; Easterby-Smith et al., 2004).

Thus, a pragmatic approach has been chosen for this study, based on the compatibility between positivism and a phenomenological approach. Hence, the “focus is on the consequence of research, on the primary importance of the question asked rather than the method, and multiple methods of data collection inform the problems under study” (Creswell and Clark, 2007:23). Many factors led the researcher to employ this approach: (1) it provides a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study; (2) it helps to understand the subjective and the objective points of view; (3) it leaves the researcher free to employ all possible methods to address the research problems; (4) it provides comprehensive evidence for studying research problems; and (5) it helps the researcher to employ mixed methods or triangulation (see Creswell and Clark, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

4.3 Research Strategy: Case Study Methodology

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, a case study methodology has been chosen. Bryman and Bell (2003) and Myers (2009) report that this methodology is being increasingly widely used in management and business research. Case study has been identified as “a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence” (Saunders et al., 2003:93). Thus, there are several reasons why researchers use it. For instance, case study is generally seen as appropriate in exploratory research. It focuses on understanding and explaining what is occurring in a situation. It can give researchers the opportunity to examine and explore a phenomenon (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Robson (1993) indicates that the case study methodology can be used when researchers want to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the processes being enacted. Related information is provided by Jankowicz (1991), who states that the case study method is employed when the research concentrates on a set of issues in a single organisation and researchers wish to identify the relevant factors in an in-depth study of that organisation. He also recommends the

employment of the case study in cases where researchers have identified a number of variables of importance to a specific organisation they want to explore. Yin (2003) indicates that research questions often indicate the appropriate research design. He suggests that a case study is a useful research strategy to answer "what", "how", or "why" questions. He also shows that case study allows the researcher to use multiple sources of data. Additionally, Bamber (2002) argues that the intangible nature of research factors in some organisations makes the case study approach appropriate.

Although the case study has been chosen for sound reasons, this design is not without limitations. First, it has been stated (Saunders et al., 2003) that a common criticism of single case studies is that they provide very little basis for external validity, which is concerned with the generalisation of research findings to a larger population or universe. However, Yin (2003) disputes this by arguing that case studies rely on analytical rather than statistical generalisation. Thus, the main objective of a case study is to generalise its results to a set of theoretical propositions, not to populations (see Saunders et al., 2003 and Yin, 2003).

A further argument surrounding the case study design is its reliability, which is concerned with whether the research findings are repeatable (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Yin (2003) indicates that the main objective of reliability is to reduce the errors and biases in research. The issue of reliability has been more difficult to address, since it refers to the ability to replicate the study and obtain the same findings. Yin (2003), however, proposes two tactics which should be considered by researchers in order to maximise the reliability of findings. The first is to adopt a "case study protocol" and the second is to employ a "case study database".

Another concern of case study research has been its close relation to qualitative methods. Although the terms 'qualitative' and 'case study' have been employed interchangeably, it has been shown that case study research can involve quantitative data only, qualitative data only, or both. Thus, a good case study should ideally rely on a variety of evidence in order to maximise its validity (Yin, 2003). This view is supported by Bryman and Bell (2003:487), who indicate that "the combined use of qualitative and quantitative research methods represents a common pattern in case study research in business and management, used by researchers in order to enhance the generality of their findings".

The organisation selected for the case study in the present research is the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP), which is one of the largest public sector organisations in the UAE, employing more than 30,000 people. The ADP is considered an appropriate case because it had already undergone massive change processes as a result of a strategic change plan, a Total Quality Management initiative and structural change since 2002. The ADP also has a well documented history of successfully implementing organisational change. For example, it was awarded the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award (EFQM³) in 2007 and 2009, which indicates that, against certain criteria at least, the organisation has been judged as successful in terms of the implementation of organisational change. Thus, it provides a rich context from which useful insights could be obtained and interesting employee perspectives could be explored. Yin (2003:41) argues that “the lessons learned from these cases are assumed to be informative about the experiences of the average institution”. The next section examines the historical background of the ADP and the change management phases through which it has passed.

4.3.1 The Research Setting: Abu Dhabi Police

- **Historical Background of Policing in the UAE and Abu Dhabi**

After the Second World War, the British government showed an unprecedented interest in the internal affairs of the Gulf region. This engagement represented a departure from the previous longstanding strategy which was to avoid direct involvement in the internal affairs of the countries in this region. As a direct result of this new British stance, the Oman Coast Force was established in 1951 and later renamed the Trucial States Force. The British government also delimited the internal boundaries within the United Arab Emirates in order to tighten control of security matters and ensure that oil exploration missions could be undertaken as safely as possible. As an element of this security strategy, the British Government also began to develop the Abu Dhabi and Dubai police forces, primarily by the introduction of professional police officers to undertake leadership and management functions within these police forces. In these early years,

³ In 2004, the government of Abu Dhabi Emirate adopted the European Foundation Quality Management (EFQM) Model in order to evaluate and improve public sector organisations. This model considers 9 factors in order to achieve excellence: leadership, people, policy and strategy, partnerships and resources, processes, people results, customer results, society result and key performance results. Thus, public sector organisations should submit annual reports regarding their performance to government, based on these factors. After that, independent government assessors arrange visits to public sector organisations in order to make sure that all data in submission documents are correct and the organisations are working according to these factors. The independent assessors prepare feedback reports regarding the organisations' performance. Those organisations which achieve high scores in EFQM are granted the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award.

the main task of the Abu Dhabi Police was to guard key locations such as the ruler's palace, government buildings, banks and ships coming from neighbouring countries. The ADP was also responsible for bringing wanted people before the courts (Change Management in the Abu Dhabi Police, 2008).

After 1966 Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan (ruler of Abu Dhabi emirate) identified the need for a more professional police force to maintain security in this emirate. Therefore, various initiatives were implemented in order to substantially improve the workforce efficiency of the ADP. These initiatives involved improving the financial and technical resources available to it, including modern equipment, systems, buildings and tools. For example, due to the need for development and modernisation, Sheikh Zayed invited a delegation from the Jordanian police to work with the ADP. In September 1968 the Jordanian mission composed of 41 officers reached Abu Dhabi and effectively contributed to capacity building relating to traffic police, criminal investigations, guards, and financial and administrative procedures (Abu Dhabi Police: Fifty Years of Progress, 2007).

In 1971 the entire government structure of Abu Dhabi was reconfigured. New ministries were introduced, such as the Ministry of the Interior, which became responsible for implementing the law and ensuring the security of citizens, their lives and property. The Supreme Union Council decided to consolidate the police forces of the emirates to work under the umbrella of the Ministry of Interior. The tasks of the Ministry included: (1) naturalisation and residency affairs, (2) prisons affairs, (3) traffic affairs, (4) oil installations, ministries and public facilities guarding, (4) liaison with national and international police organisations to secure cooperation in order to serve public interests, (5) combating the smuggling of people and drugs and (6) general crime detection and prevention (Abu Dhabi Police: Fifty Years of Progress, 2007).

At the same time, the responsibility for local policing was delegated to each of the seven emirates. Thus, each local police force, such as the ADP, developed its own organisational strategy and unique system to satisfy the policing needs of its area of responsibility. In the case of the ADP, this organisational strategy has been under constant review. The step-by-step approach adopted by the ADP provides a fascinating insight into how organisational change was led in this organisation with reference to key factors such as vision, structure and partnerships (ibid).

- **Change Management within the ADP**

Step 1: Understanding change imperative

In the years after the second world war, the UAE witnessed fundamental social and political changes due to urban expansion, population increase, the constant growth of commercial enterprises and above all, the emergence of terrorist attacks in neighbouring countries. It was recognised by senior government officials that the Abu Dhabi Police had to develop its capacity to tackle these issues (Strategic Processes Document, 2003).

Step 2: Creating ADP's leadership vision of change

The Minister of the Interior (Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan) openly stated that his vision was to make the Abu Dhabi Police the most effective operational police force in one of the safest and most secure countries in the world. This vision statement by the organisation's leader went as far as to identify the characteristics that the ADP should possess:

- Responsiveness to the community's needs and demands;
- Adherence to moral values and integrity;
- Motivation of police personnel and adequate training;
- The encouragement of organisation, education and creativity;
- Cost-effectiveness and scalability.

From the outset, the most senior person in the organisation recognised that the ADP faced major challenges if this leadership vision was to be put into effect. For that purpose, a Strategic Department was established, headed by an Executive Manager (Brigadier Nasser Salim Al Nuaimi). Its mission was to formulate strategic plans in order to actualize the vision statement and its remit was notably wide-ranging. For example, the tasks entrusted to the Strategic Department include overseeing the development of the ADP, in general as well as in qualitative strategies, based on the strategic view of the security conditions in the emirate and in the UAE as a whole. Further, the Department is charged with providing technical advice to ADP functional departments, so as to prepare and design strategic qualitative plans, and integrate these plans within the main strategic plan of the ADP (ibid).

In terms of the leadership and management of change, the Strategic Department was given the vital responsibility for supervising the process of conducting surveys and

organisational studies, with the aim of determining the requirements of strategic development in a manner which achieves the desired organisational goals. Specifically, it was required to identify the operational obstacles faced while applying strategic plans and, in coordination with relevant directorates, devise strategies to overcome these obstacles. Interestingly, the development and maintenance of an advanced performance management system was placed under the auspices of the Strategic Department. Thus, it was responsible for the overall monitoring of the execution of tasks and ensuring the compliance of Directorates with the requirements and standards of the Quality System. In 2002, the Strategic Department conducted various diagnostic exercises in order to identify organisational weaknesses and areas for improvement. It sought to clarify the ADP's strategic plan in order to ensure that the ADP achieved its stated organisational goals, that is, to ensure a secure community, maintain stability, combat crime, and contribute to the prevalence of justice, in a manner that ensures and preserves the trust of the public (ibid).

Step 3: Developing strategic change plans

In 2003 the Strategic Department produced a document, known as the Seven-Point Plan, which clarified the main strategic goals of the ADP for the next five years. Each of the seven points was presented as a strategic goal in itself. A 'responsible officer' was assigned responsibility for each goal, while every section and directorate was requested to contribute to the realization of this plan by means of its annual plan. The key objectives of the Plan are summarized below:

- Focusing all operational effort on reducing crime and disorder and promoting reassurance and safety within our communities.
- Building the trust and confidence of communities by effective consultation and effective communication.
- Improving the quality of service and overall performance.
- Achieving best value in the delivery of service.
- Developing the talents and abilities of all members of Abu Dhabi Police to achieve professional goals.
- Promoting corporate and individual honesty, ethics and integrity.
- Providing equipment, buildings and technology which promote the delivery of effective and efficient services (ibid).

Step 4: Implementing the Strategic Plan: Reconfiguring the Organisational Structure

In order for the ADP to apply the Seven-Point Plan, the administrative system of the organisation required major change. Consequently, the Head of the Strategic Department decided to reconfigure the organisational structure in order to improve decision making styles, to eliminate conflicts between departments in terms of key areas of responsibility, to improve communication between departments and to create new departments such as those of Community Policy and Human Resources. This reconfiguration was enacted in 2004 by the Minister of the Interior, who issued the administrative decree No.40 which stated that a new organisational structure was to be adopted, in accordance with the modern requirements of crime prevention (ibid).

In effect, the organisation was restructured into three main levels. First, was the Leadership and Supervisory level, which specialized in preparing annual organisational plans and formulating general strategies for the ADP. Second, the Logistics Support level contained the Human Resource directorate and the Finance and Services directorate. Third was the Policing and Security level, comprising five directorates, of Security Affairs, Central Operations, Police Operations, General Protection and Information Security. This new organisational structure, illustrated in Figure 4.1, was designed to create effective communication paths between directorates, mainly by clarifying areas of authority and responsibility (ibid).

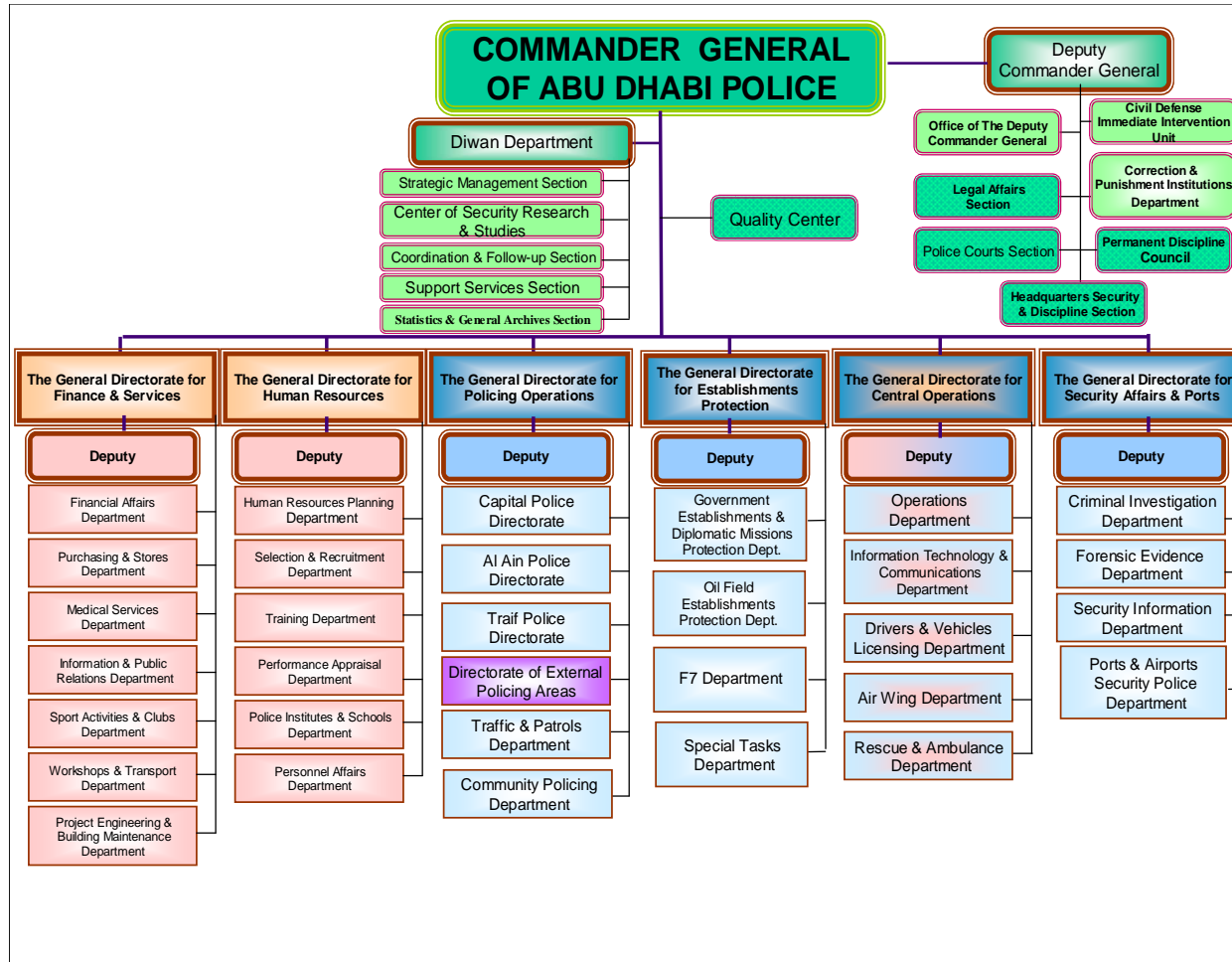


Figure 4.1: New Organisational Structure of ADP

Source: Change Management in the ADP (2008:15)

Step 5: Revising the Strategic Plan as a Result of Environmental Conditions

In 2005, the Gulf region experienced an increase in the scale of destructive activities by terrorist groups, particularly in relation to oil fields and diplomatic missions. These environmental conditions directly led the leadership of ADP to concentrate efforts on the protection of vital installations and also to adopt a strategic priority approach. In essence, this approach meant that ADP selected a series of strategic priorities. Thus, at the beginning of 2006, the strategic priorities that every directorate was required to implement by the end of 2006 were unveiled. Further, in relation to these priorities, every directorate was made directly accountable to the Police General Commander. Examples of the strategic priorities are provided below:

- (1) To enhance the capability of Abu Dhabi Police to respond to and deal effectively with any threats to the community, government and diplomatic resources and all commercial assets, including oilfields.
- (2) To develop quality of service standards for both internal and external customers.
- (3) To implement the force structure and ensure that all staff understand and are working to their job descriptions.
- (4) To enhance the current process of establishing best value throughout the organisation and to review existing processes which distract attention away from core business and which could be outsourced.
- (5) To increase the force's ability to make the road transport system safer and more efficient, targeting road traffic collisions to reduce the level of serious and fatal casualties.
- (6) To implement and integrate comprehensive police station and community policing to enhance communication with local communities and increase community confidence.
- (7) To enhance the ADP's investigative abilities at all levels and improve the effectiveness of the justice system.
- (8) To develop and implement a proactive information security system linked to tasking and coordination teams (within departments or directorates) in order to enable an appropriate response against any criminal activities.
- (9) To develop an internal communication system that ensures that all staff are aware of the force priorities and that there is the opportunity for all staff to contribute to the future planning of the organisation.

- (10) To enhance the capability of the ADP to manage and respond to any crisis (natural or manmade).
- (11) To develop systems that provide greater management information about incidents, crimes and traffic collisions to ensure a more effective use of resources.
- (12) To increase the effectiveness and efficiency of staff by automating the HR process, in coordination with other concerned departments (ibid).

Step 6: Developing a Partnership Strategy

In order to enhance the ADP's global intelligence, the Minister of the Interior devised a 'Partnership Strategy' which involved collaborating with government agencies and police forces from outside the Arab region. For example, with the stated aim of strengthening the principle of security partnership and cooperation between nations, the Minister signed a memorandum of understanding with the UK Minister of State for Middle East affairs in 2006. The remit of this memorandum of understanding was wide-ranging. It covered cooperation in fighting terrorism, violent crime, organized crime of various types, drug trafficking, the trafficking of arms and all items which might be used to produce such arms, and economic crimes such as money laundering, cyber-crime, fraud and forgery (see, Strategic Processes Document, 2003).

4.4 The Triangulation Approach

Before elaborating this argument further, it is important to discuss briefly the two main types of data collection method, the first being quantitative methods. Bryman and Bell (2003:573) state that "quantitative methods usually emphasize quantification in the collection and analysis of data". Thus, such methods seek to quantify data in the form of charts, tables and graphs and often make use of statistical formulae and analysis to yield data. The main strengths of these methods are that they can cover a wide range of populations or samples and can be fast and cheap. However, they have weaknesses in that they lack flexibility and are ineffective in understanding the phenomena under study. They are also unhelpful in generating theories; and because they pay attention to what is currently or what has been, it is difficult to make decisions based on them about what action should be taken in the future (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004).

The second type consists of qualitative methods of data collection, which have been defined as "an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode,

translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world” (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004:85). These methods have the following strengths: they help to understand social phenomena and human behaviour; they can help researchers to adjust to new issues and ideas as they arise; they contribute to the development of new theories; and data collection using these methods can be seen as natural rather than artificial. On the other hand, they have limitations, in particular that gathering data takes time and resources, that analysis of data might be very difficult and that these methods have low reliability (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004).

In order to avoid the limitations of one method of collecting empirical data, it was decided to adopt triangulation or mixed methods. Thus, integrating two methodological types can help the researcher to obtain a more general picture of the issues under investigation. Quantitative research provides a static picture of social life, while qualitative research is more processual. Moreover, the weakness of qualitative data in terms of its ability to generalise the findings of study can be overcome by adding quantitative data (Flick, 2006).

4.5 Data Collection Methods

Thus, this study employs triangulation in order to answer the research question and achieve its objectives. More specifically, data were gathered from three main sources: questionnaires, interviews and documents. The specific methods are discussed below in detail, in subsections examining the construction of methods, the selection of respondents, the process of data gathering and analysis, and finally issues of reliability and validity. This section begins with the quantitative questionnaire method and then turns to the qualitative interviews and the examination of documents.

4.5.1 Questionnaire Method

Questionnaires, which are usually associated with quantitative methods, were employed to investigate employees’ opinions regarding the critical factors in the successful implementation of change in the Abu Dhabi Police. In practice, employing this method was very useful for this study for two main reasons: it allowed the study to cover a wide sample of ADP personnel; and conducting qualitative interviews with junior officers would have been difficult, because such interviewees might have been reluctant to give the researcher full and frank answers, given his status as a senior police officer

interviewing subordinates. Therefore, it may be that respondents would have provided socially acceptable responses, rather than the truth (see Bryman and Bell, 2003).

4.5.1.1 Questionnaire Design

Collis and Hussey (2003) state that questionnaire design is a crucial stage for the researcher. It has been indicated (see Collis and Hussey, 2003 and Saunders et al, 2003) that the quality of the data that the researcher can collect and the response rate will depend on the design or the construction of the questionnaire and the rigour of the pilot testing. In order to design a good questionnaire survey, several issues should be considered by researchers, related to the careful examination of the relevant literature, the wording and language of questions, scaling these questions and coding the responses, the layout of the questionnaire, and the pilot study (Oppenheim, 1992; Saunders et al, 2003). This view is supported by Sekaran (2003:238) who states that these issues “are important in questionnaire design in order to minimize biases in research”. They are therefore addressed in the following subsections.

4.5.1.1.1 Questionnaire Contents

In order to have ideal questions or statements for the questionnaire, the literature should be reviewed carefully (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al, 2003). Consequently, the change management literature was consulted with reference to change management theory and change management approaches in general; to critical factors in the successful implementation of change; and to change management in the context of developing countries, particularly in the Arab world.

The questionnaire was designed in three main parts. Part one was intended to investigate the general perceptions of the participants regarding change implementation, strategic plan, vision, values and mission within ADP. Next, respondents were asked one main question concerning the most important factor to be considered by the ADP in order to implement change successfully. Part two was intended to examine perceptions regarding critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change, viz. leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture. Part three aimed to collect general information regarding the employment profiles of the participants. This part comprised six questions regarding the respondents’ gender, age, rank, position, qualification and length of experience. The rationale behind this part was identifying the characteristics of the participants. Finally, employees were asked three

open-ended questions aimed at capturing their views in terms of change implementation and were invited to make comments or suggestions on matters not covered by the other questions (see Appendix 1).

4.5.1.1.2 Language and Wording

In order to ensure that the responses are valid, attention should be given to the wording of each question or statement in the questionnaire (Saunders et al, 2003:298), since the wording of each question will have a certain meaning for the researcher, but may have a different one for respondents. In the design process of the questionnaire for this study, the following rules were seriously taken into account in order to avoid any problems associated with questionnaire wording. Strong attempts were made to avoid questions which were either not pertinent, double-barrelled, too long, leading or negative (Oppenheim, 1992; Janes, 1999; De Vaus, 2002; Forza, 2002; Bryman and Bell, 2003).

One of the most important problems connected with questionnaire wording in this study was that of translation, as the questionnaire was initially designed in English, then translated into Arabic. Steps were therefore taken to minimise any difficulties that might arise during the process of producing the Arabic version. First, the questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic by an independent translator who specialised in the English language. It was then revised by the researcher, who has knowledge of the two languages, in order to make sure that the items retained the required meaning. Finally, the two versions (Arabic and English) were given to three native Arabic speakers who were also fluent in English in order to make sure that the original meaning had been retained. Further details of the steps taken to reduce translation problems can be found in the account of the pilot study (subsection 4.5.1.1.5).

4.5.1.1.3 Types of Question

One way of improving the rates of response to a questionnaire and minimising the bias is by using a variety of formats (see Gray, 2004). The categorisation of questions discussed in the relevant literature is mainly into two styles: open-ended and closed-ended. If a question is described as open-ended, respondents can give any answer they wish in their own words. The main advantage of employing open-ended style is that respondents can give their answers in more detail and clarify their opinions. The researcher therefore can gain rich and unexpected information by allowing free expression of ideas and views. However, open-ended questions require time to respond

to, which in turn will affect response rate. These questions can also be difficult for researchers in terms of coding and analysis. They can increase the irrelevance and variability of information because of the increased possibility that participants will interpret the questions in a different way (Neuman, 2006).

By contrast, responses to closed-ended questions are selected from a set of pre-designed answers (see Gray, 2004). There are a number of advantages to employing closed-ended questions. This style is helpful when the questionnaire is long and about sensitive issues. Closed-ended questions are also useful in obtaining a response quickly and are easier for researchers to code and analyse. The main disadvantages of closed-ended questions are that respondents can become frustrated because their opinions and views are restricted to certain answers. Misunderstandings and mistakes may arise, especially when respondents have no relevant knowledge or opinion (Neuman, 2006).

In order to minimise the limitations of one style of questions and utilise the advantages of two styles of questions, it was decided to employ both styles in this research. Thus, the participants were given a list of closed-ended questions and then a space for further views and comments was provided at the end of the questionnaire (see Appendix 1).

4.5.1.1.4 Rating Scales

Gray (2004:197) explains that “rating questions are used to measure a variable, and comprise four types of scale: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio”. Thus, in the first part of the present questionnaire an ordinal scale was employed. Respondents were asked to select ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ for the first question. This was followed by a range of statements to which participants were asked to respond by ticking boxes labelled ‘Clear’, ‘Not Sure’ or ‘Not Clear’. In the second part of the questionnaire participants were invited to indicate their level of agreement with a range of statements by ticking one of five boxes, giving a sliding scale of agreement ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. Thus, a standard Likert scale was employed throughout the questionnaire, making it very simple for participants to complete and for the researcher to code and analyse (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Oppenheim (1992) indicates that the reliability of the Likert scale tends to be good: partly because of the great range of answers allowable to participants, a reliability coefficient of .85 is often reached. In the final part of the questionnaire, two types of scale were used: a nominal scale for gender, rank, position and qualification, and a quantity scale for age and experience.

The most contentious issue to be considered regarding rating scales in this study is that of the middle value. Thus, researchers dispute whether they should provide participants with a neutral position to select. One group of authors argues that no neutral option should be provided, in order to put pressure on respondents to select a meaningful response. This assumes that participants are lazy and will select a neutral position in order to avoid the effort of thinking and answering. Others argue that they should be given a neutral option in order to identify those holding middle positions or those without opinions (Neuman, 2006). Consideration of this argument led the present researcher to be reluctant to include a mid-point category such as 'not sure' or 'no opinion', especially as in Arab countries there is a dominant cultural concept that it is better to choose the middle way. Indeed, it has been argued (Johnson et al., 2005) that culture plays a vital role in a middling response style. They consider that the mid-point is essential for societies dominated by a collectivist culture. Given that Arab countries are categorised as collectivist (Hofstede, 1991), De Vaus (2002) argues that exclusion of a middle position forces participants to express an opinion where they really do not have one, which leads to the unreliable answers. He also indicates that it is desirable to include a middle point when researchers employ self-administered questionnaires. For these reasons, this study included a mid-point category on the questionnaire scale.

4.5.1.1.5 Piloting the Questionnaire

It has been indicated (De Vaus, 2002; Sekaran, 2003) that questionnaires should be evaluated before final administration in order to ensure that participants have no problems in understanding or answering them. Thus, the pilot test is a crucial stage to assess the validity of the questionnaire and the likely reliability of the data which will be collected (Saunders et al, 2003). The questionnaire employed in this study underwent a number of pilot test stages before the distribution of its final version.

In the first stage, a primary draft of the questionnaire was constructed based on an extensive review of the existing literature and previous questionnaires related to change management. This first draft was designed in English and then translated into Arabic. Before translation, the draft of the English version was discussed with the supervisor. Based on this discussion several modifications were made; for example, several statements were removed because they were similar and did not measure the factors. After that, the questionnaire was translated to Arabic and discussed with fellow PhD students whose native language is Arabic for translation purposes. Based on this

discussion several modifications were made. Some statements were removed in order to reduce the length of the questionnaire. An improved version was therefore designed. In the second stage, in order to establish content validity (Saunders et al, 2003) the version was given to two senior lectures in the TQM Department at the TQM College in Dubai, who indicated that the questionnaire was good and valid to measure the factors. In the third stage, ten employees of ADP were selected for a pilot test in order to make sure that they had no difficulties in terms of answering the questionnaire. Based on this test, some statements were rephrased in order to make the questionnaire simpler and clearer. The final version was then distributed to all employees.

4.5.1.1.6 Testing for Reliability

In order to test the reliability of the questionnaire used in this study, the researcher used the internal consistency method, which is defined as “an approach looking at the consistency of a person’s response on an item compared to each other scale item (item-item correlation)” (De Vaus, 2002:184). Bryman and Bell (2003) state that nowadays, most researchers employ a test of internal reliability known as Cronbach’s alpha. In order to say that the questionnaire is reliable, the value of alpha should be at least 0.7 (De Vaus, 2002). The test of reliability for questionnaire items in this study yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.931.

4.5.1.2 Questionnaire Sample

In order to select a representative study sample, the population should be defined clearly (De Vaus, 2002). As this work is based on a case study of the ADP, the population was its approximately 30 000 employees. After defining the population, a decision must be taken to select a suitable sample size. Saunders et al. (2003:155) state that “the final sample size is almost always a matter of judgement as well as of calculation”, while a number of authors (e.g. Bryman and Bell 2003; Saunders et al, 2003; De Vaus, 2002) agree that in order to determine appropriate sample size, many factors should be taken an account, including the degree of accuracy or the degree of error that the researcher can tolerate, the degree of confidence that the researcher needs to have in the data, the variation in the population, the degree of availability of resources such as time and cost, and the likely response rate. In practice, sample size is not determined by a single variable. For instance, using the desirable level of precision as the sole element in a decision about sample size is not rational (Bryman and Bell 2003).

With the assistance of a Sample Size Calculator⁴, this study selected a 95% confidence level and +/- 5% confidence interval or sampling error as criteria, resulting in a sample size of 379 employees. However, in order to reduce sampling error, 450 ADP employees were selected randomly with the help of the human resource system, which included employees' numbers and names.

4.5.1.3 Gaining Access

The researcher had no problems in gaining access to any departments within the ADP for two reasons: first, the researcher is an ADP employee and secondly, the ADP sponsored the study. However, the researcher obtained formal permission from the Education and Scholarship Department to conduct an empirical study regarding change management. The Department then sent formal letters to all departments within the ADP to make them aware about the study and give the researcher any support he wants (see Appendix 3).

4.5.1.4 Administration of the Questionnaire and Response Rates

The questionnaire was self-administered; therefore, it was delivered personally to participants and collected personally from them. Bryman and Bell (2003), Sekaran (2003) and Oppenheim (1992) argue that self-administrated questionnaires have several advantages. First, a high response rate and accurate sampling are assured, while researcher bias is eliminated. Secondly, the researcher can collect the completed questionnaires within a short time. This method also helps the researcher to clarify any ambiguous questions for participants and he has the opportunity to encourage and motivate the respondents to give frank answers. Finally, it can help the researcher to ensure that respondents themselves answer the questions.

It has been argued (De Vaus, 2002) that self-administered questionnaires tend to obtain higher response rates than mail and internet surveys; however, it depends partly on the topic of survey. This study may have touched on some sensitive factors such as culture, which may have had an effect on response rate, making it in turn prone to bias (see Bryman and Bell, 2003). That is, significant endeavours have been made in terms of questionnaire design in order to improve response rates and minimise the bias. The

⁴ Available at www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm.

response rate in this study was 69.3%, which is acceptable (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Thus, 312 questionnaires were completed and received.

4.5.1.5 Questionnaire Analysis

The questionnaire was analysed by using the SPSS program. Thus, descriptive statistics were conducted on all questionnaire items and the main themes of the study. According to Collis and Hussey (2003), descriptive statistics is a useful means for summarising and presenting the data in tables and helps researchers to identify patterns and relationships which are not visible in the raw data. Gary (2003) also indicates that descriptive statistics assist researchers to create a summary of a sample regarding the key variables being researched. Thus, frequency distribution, including measures of central tendency (mean) and dispersion (standard deviation), was used in order to conduct a descriptive analysis of the questionnaire, which can help to make comparisons between different parts of the data and to identify overall attitudes of participants toward items (Gary, 2003). Sekaran (2003) argues that measures of central tendency and dispersion in the data will give the researcher a good idea of how the participants have reacted to the items in the questionnaire and how good the items and measures are. After that, the decision was made to employ Pearson's correlation (r) in order to examine the relationships between questionnaires items and between factors, and an independent sample t-test in order to examine differentiation between genders and between ranks (Bryman, 2008).

4.5.2 Interview Method

The findings of the questionnaire are quantifiable, measuring the views of employees on the themes of this study. These quantifiable findings require qualitative methods in order to identify hidden factors which cannot easily be identified by employing a quantitative approach alone. To do this, qualitative interviews were employed in order to complement the questionnaire survey by examining managers' and experts' views, thus providing a comprehensive picture of themes. These types of respondents prefer to be interviewed rather than complete a questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2003). Yin (2003) argues that interviews are one of the most important sources of case study information, while Myers (2009:121) states that "interviews are one of the important data gathering techniques for qualitative researchers in business and management". Bell (1993) expresses the opinion that the major advantage of the interview is flexibility, as

researchers can follow up an idea, probe for additional information and explore motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do.

There are three types of interview which a researcher can use to gain information: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Saunders et al., 2003). Structured interviews are based on questionnaires which have previously been carefully prepared. They are more formal and standardised, and are generally used in quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2003; Easterby-Smith et al., 2004). Semi-structured interviews are based on a list of questions or themes which assist the researcher to cover the research topic, but the actual questions may vary from interview to interview, depending on the conversation with each interviewee. Finally, unstructured interviews are also known as informal, non-directive or conversational. There is no prepared list of questions, so such interviews require the researcher to have a clear idea of what he wants to explore (Saunders et al., 2003).

In this research, semi-structured interviews were employed to collect data because they have the advantages of both the structured and unstructured approaches. This method gives the researcher some structure, while allowing for some improvisation (Myers, 2009). The semi-structured interview can be a powerful technique to explain the relationship between variables such as those revealed by the questionnaire survey (Bell 1993; Saunders et al., 2003). It was considered appropriate to gain rich data about attitudes, opinions and feelings toward change in the ADP. It affords the researcher the opportunity to probe more deeply into a particular answer which has been given, which can help to add depth to the data obtained. Moreover, in this study, the guide questions prepared for interviews were on complex matters such as organisational culture, requiring the researcher to explain them to interviewees in order to gather appropriate data (Saunders et al., 2003).

4.5.2.1 Semi-Structured Interview Design

It has been argued (Gray, 2004) that considerable attention should be given to interview design in order to achieve credible findings which can be trusted. Thus, an interview guide was developed in order to minimise bias. The interview guide contained a list of topics to be discussed during the interview. It was prepared to ensure that the same key areas of enquiry were pursued with each participant interviewed, thus helping to achieve consistency during all interviews (Bogdan and Taylor, 1998). Thus, the questions

included in the interview guide were clustered according to the four main themes of this study: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture (see Appendix 2). It is worth mentioning that the interview guide included questions which were open, in order to avoid bias (Easterby-Smith, 2004).

This view is supported by Silverman (2006:286), who contends that “it is important that each respondent understands the questions in the same way and that answers can be coded without the possibility of uncertainty”. He also suggests that interview schedules should be pre-tested in order to achieve reliability. Gray (2004) indicates that the validity of interviews will be strengthened by constructing an interview guide that includes questions drawn from the literature and from pilot work. Thus, the interview guide was pre-tested as a pilot study. The first draft was discussed with the supervisor, as a result of which several questions were removed because they were on sensitive issues, such as “What kind of tribalism factors affect change?” After that, the interview guide was translated to Arabic and discussed with fellow PhD students whose native language was Arabic for translation purposes. Based on this discussion several modifications were made and some statements were revised. An improved version was therefore designed. In order to establish content validity (Saunders et al, 2003) the version was given to two senior lectures in the TQM Department at the TQM College in Dubai, who indicated that the interview guide was useful in measuring the factors. Finally, some ADP managers were selected for the pilot test in order to make sure that they would have no difficulties in terms of answering the questionnaire. Based on this test, some questions were rephrased in order to keep the interview guide as simple and clear as possible for them.

4.5.2.2 Interview Sample

The main question concerning researchers in the field of qualitative research is that of how many interviewees should be selected in order to generalise the findings or achieve external validity, given the need to “interview as many subjects as necessary to find out what you need to know” (Kvale, 1996:101). The key point, according to Bryman and Bell (2003), is that the size of the sample is not important in qualitative research, because it aims to generate an in-depth analysis.

In order to accommodate issues of generalisation, a purposive sample strategy was adopted for this study. Silverman (2006) points out that many qualitative researchers

employ purposive samples because they seek out groups who are knowledgeable about the phenomena under study. This view is supported by Saunders et al. (2003), who indicate that purposive samples help researchers to select cases which are informative and enable them to answer the research questions and to achieve the research objectives. Thus, in order to have valid data, close attention should be paid to the data collection and analysis, rather than to the size of the sample (Saunders et al., 2003). Nevertheless, Silverman (2006) claims that selecting an appropriate sample will be constrained by two main factors: all research participants sampled may not fit every group within the population; and resources will not allow the whole population to be interviewed. Thus, he suggests that researchers should make practical decisions to select a number of cases. This view is supported by Gray (2004), who states that there are at least two practical guidelines which can be adopted in order to make a more plausible case for generalizing from the findings of interviews: first, the sample should be selected from different levels, which can help to view phenomena from all relevant perspectives; and the sample size should be increased to take in further perspectives until no new themes or sub-themes emerge from the data. To do this, a sample size of eight is often sufficient.

In order to select a representative sample for this study, the decision was made to include a varied sample; in other words, to make sure that interviewees came from different levels within the organisational structure and that they had experience and knowledge of change within the ADP. As the timeframe for this study was limited, the number of interviewees was restricted to twenty managers and experts. The interview sample is tabulated below.

Table 4.1: Interview Sample

Position	Number	Percentage
Top Managers	7	35 %
Middle Managers	3	15 %
Lower Managers	2	10 %
Experts	8	40 %
Total	20	100 %

Sixty percent of interviewees were from various departments within the organisational structure of the ADP at different levels (35% were top managers, 15% middle managers and 10% lower managers), while 40% of interviewees were internal experts in change management. A more detailed profile of the interviewees is presented in the next

chapter. However, the names of respondents and their exact ranks and positions have been not provided, for reasons of confidentiality.

4.5.2.3 Interview Process

A visit to the UAE was undertaken during the summer of 2008 in order to conduct interviews. Participants were contacted by telephone to set appropriate times for interviews.

In order to reduce the possibility of interviewee bias (see Saunders et al., 2003), interviewees were given a brief explanation of the purpose of this study, its importance, clarification how of the information would be used and an assurance of the confidentiality of the information. These assurances allowed interviewees to be relaxed and open during conversations and willing to give information. It is worth mentioning here that the support for and cooperation with this study were considerable. This support included the issue of permission from the Education and Scholarship Department (see Appendix 2). Obtaining this support was important to make participants aware of the study and to overcome any potential impediments posed by management routines and bureaucracy. Interviews took place in the interviewees' offices and their duration ranged from an hour to an hour and a half. The main problems facing the interviewer in this setting was being interrupted by telephone calls and knocks on the door, which sometimes extended the duration of interviews to more than two hours. This is because these interviewees held important positions within the ADP. Other interviews were conducted during the evening because the interviewees were busy during working hours.

After building trust with interviewees, the respondents were requested to give their opinions about four main themes of this study: *What is the role of leadership in the successful implementation of change within the ADP? What is the role of politics and power in the successful implementation of change within the ADP? What is the role of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change within the ADP? What is the role of organisational culture in the successful implementation of change within the ADP?* As can be seen, all of these questions were open, which allowed interviewees to answer them as they wished and so reduced interviewer bias.

Considerable attention was also given to several issues during interviews in order to increase the reliability of the findings: questions were asked exactly according to the interview guide in order to be consistent at all times; the interviewer did his best to be neutral during interviews in order not to provide any lead that might cause bias; leading and probing questions were avoided; and sensitive questions such as those related to organisational culture were left to the end of the interviews, which gave sufficient time for the interviewer to build confidence with interviewees (see Saunders et al., 2003; Easterby-Smith, 2004).

It has been indicated (Saunders et al., 2003) that recording during the interview may be done in several ways such as the taking of notes and tape-recording. While audio recording has many advantages such as allowing the researcher to concentrate on the respondent, to maintain eye contact, to listen to the interview again and to use direct quotes, this method was not employed in this study (see Saunders et al., 2003). During the pilot study, it was found that interviewees were not willing to have their voices recorded; therefore, the decision was made to record information by taking notes. The practice of note taking during the interviews, where the interviewer's writing speed was slower than the interviewees' speech, caused some gaps where the interviewer was catching up prior to moving on to the next question. These gaps were reduced in several ways. First, the researcher used an interview guide in order to help him to take notes and organise his questions (Creswell, 1998; see Appendix 2); secondly, each interview was transcribed and written up in detail soon after it finished in order to minimise the loss of information. Saunders et al. (2003) advise that recording interviews in this way is regarded as one of the most important ways to reduce bias and produce reliable data for analysis. It is important to mention here that although nine interviews were conducted in English, notes were taken in Arabic in order to allow the researcher to write as quickly as possible. Twelve other interviews were conducted in Arabic. Thus, all transcriptions of interviews were written in Arabic and were then translated into English by the researcher, who has enough knowledge of the two languages to translate them in order to retain the meaning.

4.5.2.4 Interview Analysis

Qualitative data provides rich information which is complex to analyse (Collis and Hussey, 2003). According to Collis and Hussey (2003:253), "the main challenge to qualitative data analysis is that there is no clear and accepted set of conventions for

analysis corresponding to those observed with quantitative data”. Creswell (1998) indicates that there is no consensus among qualitative researchers on the forms of analysis of qualitative data. Bogdan and Taylor (1998) argue that researchers can develop their own approach to qualitative data analysis. Notwithstanding this argument, the six-phase qualitative data analysis approach advocated by Creswell (2003) was applied here.

The first phase of the process was to organize and prepare the data for analysis. This involves typing up the notes taken during interviews. Thus, the notes were based on the questions which were asked of interviewees. The second phase was to obtain a general sense of the information. This required the researcher to gain a general impression of the information. Therefore, all the interviews were read a number of times in order for him to become familiar with the responses and make some preliminary notes.

The third phase was coding, which means “assigning a label to a chunk of textual data and classifying that chunk into a certain category” (Myers, 2009:167). Thus, it has been indicated (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996) that coding helps the researcher to reduce the size of the data, link related data drawn from different transcriptions, generate themes from data and move toward interpretation. Here, the coding process was conducted manually as follows: (1) all transcriptions were read carefully in order to jot down some ideas, (2) the main categories were named according to the main themes of the study: leadership, politics and power, organisational structure and organisational culture, (3) substantive statements were given different colours using Microsoft Word and (4) all statements were allocated to appropriate categories (see Coffey and Atkinson 1996; Creswell, 2003; Denscombe, 2003; Saunders et al., 2003; Gillham, 2005).

The fourth step was to use the coding process to generate a description of settings as well as categories for analysis. This involved detailed descriptions of settings and generated a small number of themes or categories. According to Creswell (2003), these sub-themes or sub-categories are regarded as a major finding in qualitative studies. Gillham (2005:139) also argues that “if you are not differentiating enough you are not really analysing the material. Analysis is about making distinctions within your data set so that these differences can be seen more clearly”. Thus, this phase required sub-categories to be displayed with multiple perspectives from individuals and supported by

quotations (Creswell, 2003). As a vital part of analysis, qualitative researchers should also look for patterns, themes, regularities, contrasts, paradoxes and irregularities which might lead them to modify, subdivide, integrate or create categories (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Denscombe, 2003; Saunders et al., 2003). In terms of the study, sub-themes were identified and similarities and differentiations between responses were observed and supported by quotations.

The fifth phase was data representation, or displaying data to make it easy for reading and exploring, which is a key part of the analytical process (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Creswell, 2003). Thus, the data was represented as a detailed discussion of themes (complete with sub-themes, specific illustrations, multiple perspectives from individuals and quotations). Then, major findings were represented by tables. Interconnection between sub-themes were also identified (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Denscombe, 2003; Creswell, 2003).

The final phase was interpretation of the data in order to identify the lessons learned. In qualitative research, this interpretation can take many forms, such as the researcher's personal interpretation, which involves bringing to the study his or her own culture, history and experience. Alternatively, the meaning of the data can be derived from a comparison of the results with existing information from the literature. In this case, the researcher comments that the findings confirm or contradict past information (Creswell, 2003). Both of these forms of interpretation are presented in this study.

4.5.3 Documentary Analysis

In addition to collecting data from interviews, this study also examined documents in order to identify the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in the implementation of change within the ADP. Bryman and Bell (2003) and Yin (2003) claim that documents can be a very important source of information in case studies of organisations. Documents are employed in this study as a supplement to interviews rather than on their own. Myers (2009) states that using documents can help researchers to obtain a richer picture than could be obtained by interviews alone.

Authors including Yin (2003), Gray (2004) and Myers (2009) have identified several advantages of documents as a source of data: (1) they can provide essential details of

events; (2) they can be used to triangulate findings with other sources; (3) they help to make things visible; (4) they are stable and can be reviewed repeatedly; (5) they are less expensive and quicker to use than other sources; and (6) they provide high quality data because they allow unobtrusive measures with no risk of reactive measurement effects. The documents used in this study were of different types and were qualitatively analysed by using the six-steps approach of Creswell (2003; see section 4.5.2.4).

Although employing documents as source of data has several advantages, documents may sometimes contain inaccurate information and bias (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003; Gray, 2004; Myers, 2009). Thus, considerable attention should be given to their validity and reliability. At first glance, “government publications and official statistics would seem to be an attractive proposition for the social researcher” (Denscombe, 2003:216). Such documents tend to be credible, objective and factual. Nevertheless, Denscombe (2003) states that good documentary research should use four criteria to evaluate documents, as follows.

Authenticity: The researcher can make a quick evaluation of documents by looking at the source of these documents. It has been indicated (Denscombe, 2003 and Saunders et al., 2003) that survey data from well-known organisations and government bodies are likely to be reliable and trustworthy. Thus, such documents were included in this study.

Credibility: The researcher should make sure that each document is free from bias and errors by looking at several factors such as the purpose of the document, who produced it and when it was produced. The most important point to be considered here is that a document might not give the researcher the information he needs to answer the research questions, which affects measurement validity. In other words, the measurement used in the document might not match the researcher’s need. Saunders et al. (2003) warn that there is no clear solution to this problem; therefore, the researcher must make his own decision in order to assess the validity of data.

Representativeness: The researcher should pay attention to the representative measurement of documents by looking at factors such as whether he has access to all the documents and whether they are complete. If not, this will lead to selectivity bias (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003; Gray, 2004). In order to reduce this bias, the present the researcher did his best to collect complete documents and access all the

important documents related to the main themes of this study. However, it should be considered that most of these documents are not available to public

Meaning: All documents should be clear and unambiguous. Nevertheless, Bryman and Bell (2003:414) warn that “documents cannot be regarded as providing objective accounts of a state of affairs”. Thus, documents should be used with other sources of data in order to reduce the risk of bias (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003; Gray, 2004). In this study, documents were used as supplement to questionnaires and interviews in order to reduce the bias which would be created by employing any one of these sources alone.

4.6 Confidentiality Issues

Ethical considerations were taken into account in order to improve the quality of responses and representativeness of the sample and to protect participants’ privacy (De Vaus, 2007). Thus, several issues were considered in carrying out this research. The researcher obtained permission from the ADP to start collecting data (see Appendix 3); permission was also obtained in order to copy some documents. The research questions, objectives and the use of data were explained to survey and interview participants in order to give them a holistic perspective of the research; and all participants were given the opportunity to withdraw from the study without giving any reasons or suffering any consequences. Finally, all data was and will be handled in line with anonymity and confidentiality in order to avoid any negative consequences for ADP members in the future (see Saunders et al., 2003; De Vaus, 2007).

4.7 Conclusion of the Chapter

The main objective of this chapter was to identify the relevant research design and methodology to achieve the research aim, which was to examine the roles of and relationship between critical factors of successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in the public sector in the UAE. The ADP was chosen as a case study for several reasons: it is one of the largest public sector employers in the UAE, with more than 30,000 employees. It was also considered an appropriate case because of its well documented history of successfully implementing organisational change since 2002. For instance, the ADP was awarded the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award for good performance and development. Yin (2003:41) contends that “the lessons learned from these cases are

assumed to be informative about the experiences of the average institution”, while Jankowicz (1991) explains that the case study method is employed when the research concentrates on a set of issues in a single organisation and researchers wish to identify the factors required in an in-depth study of that organisation. He also recommends the employment of the case study in cases where researchers have identified a number of variables of importance to a specific organisation they want to explore. Employing this approach allows multiple sources of data collection to be employed. This study adopts three research methods, namely questionnaire, interview and documents, as can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Research Questions and Methods

Research Questions	Research methods	Samples size and Response	Analysis Methods
1. What roles are played by leadership in the successful implementation of change?	Questionnaire	450 ADP employees sampled; 312 questionnaires returned	SPSS
2. What are the roles of power and politics in the successful implementation of change?			
3. What are the most important aspects of Emirati culture which impact upon the successful implementation of change?	Interviews	20 ADP managers and experts	Six-steps approach of Creswell (2003)
4. What are the roles of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change?	Documents	11 documents	Six steps approach

Source: Researcher’s Work

The next chapter presents the results of this empirical phase of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to present empirical evidence in an attempt to identify the roles of and relationships among leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure in the successful implementation of strategic change in the UAE context, in the ADP. In particular, it reports on the results of the questionnaire survey and is divided into three sections. The first section presents descriptive results of respondents' characteristics and their responses to questionnaire items; the second examines relationships between variables by adopting Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient; and the third section explores variations between factors by employing an independent-samples t-test.

5.2 Descriptive Analysis of Questionnaire Responses

This section presents findings of the questionnaire obtained from 312 ADP employees in order to explore their views on four critical factors affecting the implementation of strategic change. These are leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure, which are considered to have vital roles in the successful implementation of change. First, the study participants' profiles (i.e. their gender, age, rank, position, professional qualifications and length of experience) are evaluated. The data was analysed using SPSS version 15.

5.2.1 Description of Participants' Profiles

The questionnaire sought information about the gender of participants, their age, rank, position, qualifications and experience. The descriptive analysis of this data is shown in Table 5.1. An analysis by gender shows that 285 (91.3%) of respondents were male and only 27 (8.7%) female. The mean of age of participants was 30.97 years. In terms of rank, 100 (32.1%) participants were police officers and 212 (67.9%) were police men⁽¹⁾. A total of 201 (64.4%) study participants did police work, while 105 (33.6%) had managerial duties. Regarding qualifications, more than a half of the study participants 206 (66%) indicated that they held a secondary school certificate, whereas only 101

⁽¹⁾ The terms 'police officer' and 'police man' are used throughout this thesis in a special sense with reference to rank within the ADP. **Police officers** are those of middle rank. Generally, they are responsible for organising, coordinating and managing work within the ADP at operational level. According to the Police Law, they have authority to give orders and instructions to the police men to implement it. **Police men** are those in frontline positions in the fight against crime. For instance, they are responsible for conducting patrol duties, initial investigations and collecting and analysing information in order to give it to the police officers, who then take appropriate decisions.

(32.4%) held a bachelor degree and 1 (.3%) held a master's degree. Finally, analysis of experience shows that the mean length of experience of participants was 9.54 years.

Table 5.1: Participants' Profiles

Category		Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Gender	Male	285	91.3	-	-
	Female	27	8.7	-	-
Age (years)		-	-	30.97	6.64
Rank	Police Officer	100	32.1	-	-
	Police Man	212	67.9	-	-
Position	Police work	201	64.4	-	-
	Managerial Work	105	33.6	-	-
Qualification	Secondary School	206	66.0	-	-
	Bachelor Degree	101	32.4	-	-
	Master	1	.3	-	-
Experience (years)		-	-	9.54	5.72

It can be observed that the participation of females was very low in comparison with males. This can be explained by the Arab culture, which is dominated by masculinity. Thus, it can be said that the work of the police is naturally more suited to males than females.

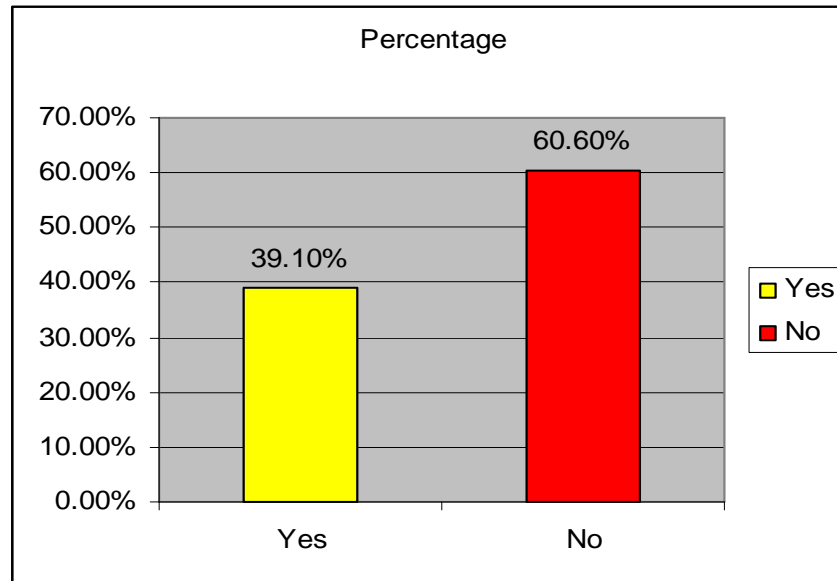
5.2.2 Descriptive Analysis of Questionnaire Statements

This section presents frequency tables which show the number of employees and the percentage belonging to each of the categories for the items in the questionnaire. A mean and standard deviation for each statement is also provided.

5.2.2.1 Attitudes towards Strategic Change Implementation

In the first section of the questionnaire the study participants were given a list of questions and statements regarding change implementation, strategic plans, vision, mission and values within the ADP. The first item asked participants to make a judgment about change implementation and was phrased as follows: "In general terms, do you think that the Abu Dhabi Police is good at implementing change?" As indicated by Figure 5.1, a clear majority of employees (189 = 60.6%) disagreed that the ADP was good at implementing change, while only 122 (39.1%) of employees agreed with this statement.

Figure 5.1: Participants' views of change implementation within ADP



Other statements in the questionnaire asked employees to give their views of the strategic plan, vision, mission and values within the ADP.

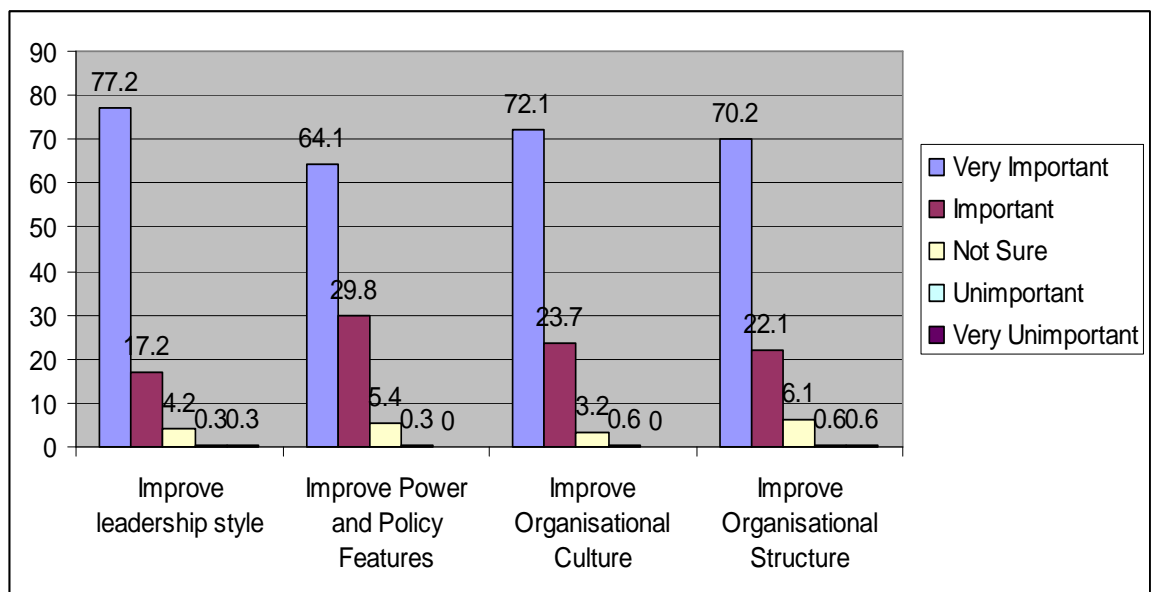
Table 5.2: Participants' Views of Strategic Change Implementation

N	Question	Response	Frequency	%
2	Are you familiar with the organisation's strategic plan?	Yes	248	79.5
		No	64	20.5
2.1	If your answer is yes, is the strategy statement clear and understandable?	Clear	32	10.3
		Not Sure	153	49.0
		Not Clear	63	20.2
3	Are you familiar with the organisation's vision statement?	Yes	242	77.6
		No	70	22.4
3.1	If your answer is yes, is the vision statement clear and understandable?	Clear	47	15.1
		Not Sure	135	43.3
		Not Clear	60	19.2
4	Is the vision statement consistent with the strategic plan?	Yes	77	24.7
		Not Sure	146	46.8
		No	86	27.6
5	Are you familiar with the organisation's mission statement?	Yes	251	80.4
		No	61	19.6
5.1	If your answer is yes, is the mission statement clear and understandable?	Clear	55	17.6
		Not Sure	124	39.7
		Not Clear	72	23.1
6	Is there a clear link between the mission and the vision statements?	Yes	86	27.6
		Not Sure	129	41.3
		No	94	30.1
7	Are you familiar with the organisation's values statement?	Yes	267	85.6
		No	45	14.4
7.1	If your answer is yes, are the values consistent with the mission?	Clear	70	22.4
		Not Sure	113	36.2
		Not Clear	84	26.9

As can be seen from Table 5.2, a majority of participants were familiar with the strategic plan, vision, mission and values of the ADP, while a majority tended to be neutral or to disagree with the clarity of the strategic plan, vision, mission and values.

The participants were also asked four main questions in order to elicit their views on the most important factors to be considered by ADP in order to implement change successfully. Figure 5.2 shows that more than two-thirds of the respondents identified leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure as the most important factors.

Figure 5.2: Participants' opinions on the importance of factors



The next section examines the themes which emerged from the analysis of the questionnaire data for each of these factors.

5.2.3 Critical Factors in Successful Implementation of Strategic Change

In the second part of the questionnaire, the participants were given a list of questions reflecting the main themes of this study: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture. The following subsections examine these in turn.

5.2.3.1 Leadership

It emerged from the review of literature on change management that leadership was one of the most important factors in implementing successful change. Thus, effective change leaders should have abilities such as (1) creating clear vision of change, (2) communicating change to employees, (3) encouraging their participation in change, (4)

providing training and resources, (5) empowering employees to implement change and (6) providing motivation to change. In order to identify the role of leadership in change within ADP, the participants were given a list of statements to examine these characteristics of effective change leadership.

5.2.3.1.1 Creating Clear Vision of Change

The questionnaire presented seven statements to examine leaders' vision of change as follows:

Table 5.3: Frequencies and percentages concerning leadership and clear vision of change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organisation	F.	33	70	65	106	38	2.852	1.207
		%	10.6	22.4	20.8	34.0	12.2		
2	I understand how change will help the organisation in the long term	F.	34	63	96	113	6	3.019	1.039
		%	10.9	20.2	30.8	36.2	1.9		
3	Understanding why change is happening and necessary for organisation	F.	36	58	88	120	8	2.980	1.070
		%	11.5	18.6	28.2	38.5	2.6		
4	I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job	F.	28	43	93	135	12	2.807	1.026
		%	9.0	13.8	29.8	43.3	3.8		
5	The vision statement of the organisation is relevant to the change project.	F.	26	50	121	108	6	2.942	.958
		%	8.3	16.0	38.8	34.6	1.9		
6	I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.	F.	16	49	94	128	24	2.694	.996
		%	5.1	15.7	30.1	41.0	7.7		
7	Generally, there are obvious connections between the goals of change and the way change is implemented.	F.	28	59	114	99	12	2.974	1.0108
		%	9.0	18.9	36.5	31.7	3.8		

In this sub-theme, examining the means indicates that item 2 “I understand how change will help the organisation in the long term” had the highest mean (3.019), while item 6 “I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project” had the lowest mean score (2.69). According to these results, it can be said that employees' views tended to be moderate and that they disagreed with the capabilities of ADP managers to create a clear vision of change.

5.2.3.1.2 Communication of Change

Communication is also one of the crucial elements of effective change leadership. Thus, the questionnaire included six items to investigate the change communication process of ADP leaders.

Table 5.4: Frequencies and percentages concerning leadership and communication

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
8	My manager sets clear and precise strategic plans for the department in order to implement the change vision.	F.	20	50	120	94	28	2.807	1.021
		%	6.4	16.0	38.5	30.1	9.0		
9	My manager has explained to employees the goals of the change programme	F.	14	37	100	110	51	2.528	1.0421
		%	4.5	11.9	32.1	35.3	16.3		
10	My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she needs to communicate the required change	F.	51	118	81	40	22	3.435	1.1208
		%	16.3	37.8	26.0	12.8	7.1		
11	My manager keeps me informed about the departmental changes	F.	20	57	50	150	35	2.605	1.103
		%	6.4	18.3	16.0	48.1	11.2		
12	My manager listens to subordinates' views about change.	F.	36	72	83	92	27	2.993	1.160
		%	11.5	23.1	26.6	29.5	8.7		
13	My manager tries to create commitment to the change project.	F.	32	83	67	103	23	2.993	1.149
		%	10.3	26.6	21.5	33.0	7.4		

Table 5.4 shows that the highest mean was for item 10: “My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she needs to communicate the required change” (mean=3.43), while the lowest was item 9: “My manager has explained to employees the goals of the change programme” (mean=2.52), followed by item 11: “My manager keeps me informed about the departmental changes” (mean=2.60). It is notable here that although ADP managers used various communication methods to inform employees about change, these methods might be used to direct employees to change rather than to explain the goals of change and listen to employees’ views.

5.2.3.1.3 Participation and Involvement in Change

In order to be successful in change, leaders should encourage employees to participate and be involved in change. Thus, the questionnaire contained some items to evaluate employees’ participation in change, as shown in Table 5.5. The results suggest that

ADP managers did not involve employees in change overall, which suggests that the ADP adopted a top-down approach to change.

Table 5.5: Frequencies and percentages concerning participation and involvement in change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
14	I have been involved in discussions about new ways in which the organisation's structures and practices will change	F.	13	39	45	165	50	2.359	1.0266
		%	4.2	12.5	14.4	52.9	16.0		
15	My manager involves employees in the change planning processes of the department	F.	9	32	118	107	45	2.657	2.483
		%	2.9	10.3	37.8	34.3	14.4		
16	Employees have been given full opportunity to participate in the change process.	F.	11	34	141	95	31	2.676	.921
		%	3.5	10.9	45.2	30.4	9.9		
17	Managers clarify the reasons for change before implementing changes.	F.	16	41	87	127	39	2.574	1.036
		%	5.1	13.1	27.9	40.7	12.5		
18	My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions about change which affects them	F.	19	38	122	104	29	2.724	.998
		%	6.1	12.2	39.1	33.3	9.3		

5.2.3.1.4 Training and Resources

Training employees and providing the appropriate resource are among the main functions of effective change leadership. Thus, this function was examined by questionnaire items 19 to 22, as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Frequencies and percentages concerning the provision of training and resources

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
19	I have been given the appropriate skills to achieve the change objectives associated with my department	F.	25	109	106	50	22	3.208	1.035
		%	8.0	34.9	34.0	16.0	7.1		
20	I am rewarded for developing skills that support change	F.	19	67	104	78	42	2.816	1.106
		%	6.1	21.5	33.3	25.0	13.5		
21	The training which is provided is relevant to the new skills required by the change project	F.	22	88	153	30	18	3.212	.922
		%	7.1	28.2	49.0	9.6	5.8		
22	Managers provide the resources which are needed to achieve change objectives for my department	F.	32	123	90	42	23	3.319	1.069
		%	10.3	39.4	28.8	13.5	7.4		

The table shows that the highest mean was for the item 22: "Managers provide the resources which are needed to achieve change objectives for my department"

(mean=3.319), followed by item 21: “The training which is provided is relevant to the new skills required by the change project” (mean=3.212) and by item 19: “I have been given the appropriate skills to achieve the change objectives associated with my department” (mean=3.208). These results indicate that ADP employees agreed that their managers provided the training and resource required to implement change overall.

5.2.3.1.5 Delegating Authority to Carry out Change

Leaders should delegate authority to employees in order to implement successful change. Thus, employees were asked to give their opinions about the delegation of authority. Table 5.7 shows that employees agreed that their managers controlled “all change initiatives at the department” (mean=3.620) and “interfere[d] in their work” (mean=3.75). Employees also disagreed with item 24: “Employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change” (mean=2.71). This indicates that ADP managers preferred not to delegate authority.

Table 5.7: Frequencies and percentages concerning the delegation of authority to carry out change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
23	My manager controls all change initiatives in the department	F.	64	116	85	33	10	3.620	1.031
		%	20.5	37.2	27.2	10.6	3.2		
24	Employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change	F.	27	62	74	87	59	2.712	1.231
		%	8.7	19.9	23.7	27.9	18.9		
25	My manager interferes in his/her employees' work	F.	93	107	62	42	8	3.753	1.099
		%	29.8	34.3	19.9	13.5	2.6		
26	My manager shows complete confidence in employees' ability to carry out delegated tasks.	F.	40	77	85	71	38	3.032	1.217
		%	12.8	24.7	27.2	22.8	12.2		

5.2.3.1.6 Motivation to change

Finally, effective leaders should motivate employees to change. Employees of ADP were therefore asked about their managers regarding motivation to change. The results, listed in Table 5.8, indicate that employees were not well motivated to implement change in the workplace (mean=2.39). However, the results also show that effective change was rewarded in this organisation (mean=3.56). These contradictory results might be explained by the fact that the motivation systems used by ADP managers were not effective.

Table 5.8: Frequencies and percentages concerning leadership, motivation and change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Standard deviation
27	My manager rewards those who demonstrate appropriate responses to change.	F.	28	59	94	91	38	2.832	1.145
		%	9.0	19.0	30.3	29.4	12.3		
28	Generally, employees are well motivated to implement change in the workplace	F.	14	40	78	102	78	2.391	1.125
		%	4.5	12.8	25.0	32.7	25.5		
29	Effective change is rewarded in this organisation	F.	69	98	96	31	15	3.566	1.0899
		%	22.1	31.4	30.8	9.9	4.8		

5.2.3.2 Power and Politics

The second theme of this study is power and politics. In order to be successful in change, power and politics should be employed in appropriate ways; otherwise change is likely to fail. Thus, employees of ADP were given a list of questions in order to identify their opinions about power and politics within the organisation. Since it has been found that politics can be used negatively or positively to implement change, this section was divided into three subsections: (1) the positive role of politics, (2) the negative role of politics and (3) power and change.

5.2.3.2.1 Positive Role of Politics in Change

Table 5.9: Frequencies and percentages concerning the positive role of politics in change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
30	Manager should have good political skills to implement change successfully in this organisation.	F.	153	129	26	3	-	4.389	.6813
		%	49.0	41.3	8.3	1.0	-		
31	Managers should be very persuasive to implement change successfully in this organisation.	F.	157	139	12	3	1	4.435	.6483
		%	50.3	44.6	3.8	1.0	0.3		
32	Managers should be quite crafty to introduce change successfully in this organisation	F.	144	148	17	3	-	4.387	.6367
		%	46.2	47.4	5.4	1.0	-		
33	Change requires managers to control organisational resources to implement change	F.	116	126	56	9	3	4.106	.8655
		%	37.2	40.4	17.9	2.9	1.0		
34	The necessary information system is in place for me to carry out my duties effectively	F.	45	67	64	96	40	2.939	1.270
		%	14.4	21.5	20.5	30.8	12.8		

The positive role of politics is one feature of the way in which politics is used by managers to implement change. Thus, employees were given a list of questions

designed to identify their attitudes towards politics within the ADP. According to the results shown in Table 5.9, employees strongly agreed with item 30: “Managers should have good political skills to implement change successfully in this organisation” (mean=4.38). They also felt that managers should be very persuasive to implement change (mean=4.43), that managers should be quite crafty to introduce change (mean=4.38) and that managers should control organisational resources to implement change (mean=4.10). These results show that the political role was seen as very important in implementing change.

5.2.3.2.2 Negative Role of Politics in Change

The converse feature of politics is that employing negative politics can badly affect change. Thus, employees were given seven items in order to examine the possible negative role of politics in the context of change in the ADP, as listed in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Frequencies and percentages concerning the negative role of politics in change

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
35	Politics can be used to slow down or block change initiatives	F.	78	111	101	17	2	3.796	.9048
		%	25.0	35.6	32.4	5.4	.6		
36	One of the main sources of resistance to change in this organisation is employees trying to defend their personal power and interests	F.	82	117	90	19	2	3.832	.9124
		%	26.3	37.5	28.8	6.1	.6		
37	Change always creates winners and losers	F.	93	136	67	14	1	3.983	.8517
		%	29.8	43.6	21.5	4.5	.3		
38	Communication about change is limited to those directly concerned with the project	F.	68	137	89	11	5	3.812	.8723
		%	21.8	43.9	28.5	3.5	1.6		
39	Good ideas for change are often hidden and then used to promote personal agendas	F.	78	91	117	15	9	3.690	.9955
		%	25.0	29.2	37.5	4.8	2.9		
40	Employees in this organisation often feel that change has been imposed on them	F.	86	124	77	19	6	3.839	.9588
		%	27.6	39.7	24.7	6.1	1.9		
41	Managers use their position of power to control resistance to change	F.	76	112	93	18	6	3.767	.9570
		%	24.4	35.9	29.8	5.8	1.9		

The table shows that employees agreed with item 35: “Politics can be used to slow down or block change initiatives” (Mean=3.79). It also seems that politics was employed to affect change negatively within the ADP, indicated by responses to item 35: “One of the main sources of resistance to change in this organisation is employees trying to defend their personal power and interests” (mean=3.83), 38: “Communication about change is limited to those directly concerned with the project” (mean=3.81) and

39: “Good ideas for change are often hidden and then used to promote personal agendas” (mean=3.69). Employees also felt that change had been imposed on them (mean=3.83) and that managers used their positions of power to control resistance to change (mean=3.76).

5.2.3.2.3 Power

Employees of ADP were also asked about the most important types of power in implementing change. Their responses, shown in Table 5.11, indicated that they saw three types of power as being important in managing change successfully: reward power (mean=4.48), referent power (mean=4.36), legitimate power (mean=4.04) and expert power (mean=4.40). At the same time, they tended to disagree with the use of coercive power (mean=2.98).

Table 5.11: Frequencies and percentages concerning power used for change

N	What are the most important types of power required to manage change successfully?	F/%	Very Important	Important	Not sure	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Mean	Standard Deviation
42	Reward power (i.e. incentive-based).	F.	188	96	19	9	0	4.484	.7391
		%	60.3	30.8	6.1	2.9	0		
43	Coercive power (i.e. threat-based)	F.	58	67	57	71	59	2.980	1.395
		%	18.6	21.5	18.3	22.8	18.9		
44	Referent power (i.e. respect-based)	F.	158	118	29	5	2	4.362	.7693
		%	50.6	37.8	9.3	1.6	.6		
45	Legitimate power (i.e. position-based)	F.	101	138	62	8	3	4.044	.8436
		%	32.4	44.2	19.9	2.6	1.0		
46	Expert power (i.e. knowledge-based)	F.	159	125	25	1	2	4.403	.7062
		%	51.0	40.1	8.0	.3	.6		

5.2.3.3 Culture

The third theme investigated by this study was organisational culture. It has been argued that this is an intangible factor, so the decision was made to examine its visible elements. This section is therefore divided into three subsections, regarding the general elements of organisational culture, uncertainly avoidance culture, and evaluation and time culture.

5.2.3.3.1 General Elements of Organisational Culture

This sub-theme reflects some elements of organisational culture which might be visible within the organisation. These elements are listed in Table 5.13, with the results for items seeking ADP employees' opinions of them.

Table 5.13: Frequencies and percentages concerning general elements of organisational culture

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard deviation
47	Management are happy to receive feedback from employees about change processes.	F.	35	52	104	98	22	2.935	1.1023
		%	11.2	16.7	33.3	31.4	7.1		
48	New ideas are openly encouraged within the implementation of change	F.	66	136	76	20	13	3.713	1.0056
		%	21.2	43.6	24.4	6.4	4.2		
49	Sensitive issues concerning change are discussed openly	F.	16	48	90	125	29	2.665	1.0186
		%	5.1	15.4	28.8	40.1	9.3		
50	There is a willingness to give employees autonomy during change processes	F.	20	56	87	120	27	2.748	1.0556
		%	6.4	17.9	27.9	38.5	8.7		
51	Information-sharing between employees is encouraged during change processes	F.	25	59	78	125	23	2.800	1.0847
		%	8.0	18.9	25.0	40.1	7.4		
52	Key executives encourage change within the organisation	F.	59	116	92	20	20	3.566	1.0746
		%	18.9	37.2	29.5	6.4	6.4		
53	Progress towards change objectives are publicised	F.	43	74	53	92	49	2.903	1.3089
		%	13.8	23.7	17.0	29.5	15.7		
54	Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department.	F.	86	91	110	17	6	3.754	.9842
		%	27.6	29.2	35.3	5.4	1.9		
55	Teamwork is encouraged and practised in my department in order to achieve change objectives	F.	37	66	54	100	55	2.775	1.2909
		%	11.9	21.2	17.3	32.1	17.6		
56	Employees prefer to avoid direct confrontation with their managers about issues regarding change	F.	93	119	70	26	2	3.887	.9537
		%	29.8	38.1	22.4	8.3	.6		
57	Mistakes in implementation of change are seen as opportunities to learn	F.	48	54	78	95	39	2.926	1.2619
		%	15.4	17.3	24.4	30.4	12.5		

The results show that employees tended to disagree with some elements of organisational culture, such as item 49: "Sensitive issues concerning change are discussed openly" (mean=2.66), item 50: "There is a willingness to give employees autonomy during change processes" (mean=2.74), item 55: "Teamwork is encouraged and practised in my department in order to achieve change objectives" (mean=2.77), item 51: "Information-sharing between employees is encouraged during change processes" (mean=2.80) and item 57: "Mistakes in implementation of change are seen

as opportunities to learn” (mean=2.92). The table also shows that the highest mean was for item 56: “Employees prefer to avoid direct confrontation with their managers about issues regarding change” (mean=3.88), followed by item 45: “Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department” (mean=3.75). Thus, it can be said that the ADP was dominated by these elements of organisational culture.

5.2.3.3.2 Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is another feature of organisational culture which can affect the implementation of change. This feature therefore was investigated in a set of items listed in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Frequencies and percentages concerning uncertainty avoidance

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard deviation
58	Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change.	F.	70	105	117	11	8	3.701	.9421
		%	22.4	33.7	37.5	3.5	2.6		
59	Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change	F.	68	89	97	37	20	3.591	1.0209
		%	21.8	28.5	31.1	11.9	6.4		
60	Generally, employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives.	F.	61	113	98	27	12	3.591	1.0209
		%	19.6	36.2	31.4	8.7	3.8		
61	A detailed plan is required in order to manage change successfully	F.	141	138	22	5	1	4.345	.7126
		%	45.2	44.2	7.1	1.6	.3		
62	Continuous change (rather than big events) is preferred in this organisation	F.	42	67	66	65	71	2.819	1.3606
		%	13.5	21.5	21.2	20.8	22.8		
63	Employees feel worried about change	F.	95	92	85	20	6	3.838	1.0154
		%	30.4	29.5	27.2	6.4	1.9		
64	Generally, managers in this organisation are willing to take risks when implementing change.	F.	30	57	123	75	25	2.974	1.067
		%	9.6	18.3	39.4	24.0	8.0		

Overall, it is clear that the ADP was dominated by a strong uncertainty avoidance culture, because employees tended to agree with item 61: “A detailed plan is required in order to manage change successfully” (mean=4.34), item 63: “Employees feel worried about change” (mean=3.83), item 58: “Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change” (mean=3.70) and item 59: “Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change” (mean=3.59), whereas they tended to disagree with item 62: “Continuous change (rather than big events) is preferred in this organisation” (mean=2.81) and item 64: “Managers in this organisation are willing to take risks when implementing change” (mean= 2.97).

5.2.3.3.3 Evaluation and Time

The final feature of organisational culture which is examined in this study is how evaluation and time were seen in relation to change implementation at the ADP. From the results reported in Table 5.15, it can be observed that the mean scores were mostly moderately negative, which might indicate that evaluation and time of change were not taken seriously as factors by ADP employees.

Table 5.15: Frequencies and percentages concerning evaluation and time culture

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
65	The timescales associated with change projects are often unrealistic.	F.	53	78	157	16	8	3.487	.92125
		%	17.0	25.0	50.3	5.1	2.6		
66	A clear timetable was devised for the various phases of the change projects	F.	16	34	131	75	55	2.679	1.5236
		%	5.1	10.9	42.0	24.0	17.6		
67	The organisation regularly reviews the change plan of my department	F.	21	61	148	49	32	2.967	1.0186
		%	6.7	19.6	47.4	15.7	10.3		
68	There is a means of measuring the success of the change project.	F.	17	47	101	86	59	2.603	1.1208
		%	5.4	15.1	32.4	27.6	18.9		
		%	12.2	26.6	50.3	8.7	1.9		

5.2.3.4 Organisational Structure

The final theme of this study is structure. Thus, employees of ADP were given a list of question in order to investigate the organisational structure as follows:

Table 5.16: Frequencies and percentages concerning organisational structure

N	Factors	F/%	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
69	My manager expects me to comply completely with the organisation's procedures	F.	124	144	38	3	2	4.237	.75004
		%	39.7	46.2	12.2	1.0	.6		
70	All policies and procedures related to my work are written	F.	86	126	73	18	8	3.848	.97699
		%	27.6	40.4	23.4	5.8	2.6		
71	The roles and objectives of my job are clarified by a job description system	F.	85	158	45	15	7	3.963	.9041
		%	27.2	50.6	14.4	4.8	2.2		
72	There are open communication channels in my department.	F.	39	68	47	127	31	2.862	1.2281
		%	12.5	21.8	15.1	40.6	9.9		
73	Formal communication is encouraged in this organisation	F.	87	130	75	9	10	3.884	.9568
		%	27.9	41.7	24.0	2.9	3.2		
74	Authority to make decisions is centralised	F.	97	112	82	17	3	3.910	.9358
		%	31.1	35.9	26.3	5.4	1.0		

As can be seen from Table 5.16, the highest mean score was for item 69: “My manager expects me to comply completely with the organisation’s procedures” (mean=4.23), followed by item 71: “The roles and objectives of my job are clarified by a job description system” (mean=3.96) and item 74: “Authority to make decisions is centralised” (mean=3.91), while the lowest mean score was for item 72: “There are open communication channels in my department” (mean=2.86). Overall, it can be said that the ADP was perceived to have a hierarchical and bureaucratic structure.

5.2.3.5 Section Summary

The scores for each sub-theme were integrated in order to give a standardised mean score for the main themes. Overall, as can be seen in Table 5.17, the power and politics theme had the highest mean score, followed by organisational culture and organisational structure, while leadership had the lowest mean score.

Table 5.17: Cumulative response to themes

Themes	Number of items in each section	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	285	2.9366	.67780
Politics and Power	298	3.9516	.40711
Organisational Culture	283	3.2253	.49119
Organisational Structure	307	3.7915	.59115
Valid N (listwise)	257	-	-

5.2.3 Correlation Analysis of Questionnaire Statements

This section examines the relationships among variables; a correlation test is employed in order to identify positive or negative relationships. To do this, Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson’s r) is the most appropriate method for this study, because it is suitable for uncovering relationships between groups of items (Bryman, 2008).

The positive or negative correlation results were measured by using the scales presented in Table 5.18 (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The percentage of variance is also listed in the table (see Rees and Eldridge, 2007).

Table 5.18: Scores of Correlation

Scores of Correlation	Interpreting correlation	Validity coefficient	% variance explained
r = 0.90 to 0.99	Very high positive correlation	0.00	00
r = 0.70 to 0.89	High positive correlation	0.10	1
r = 0.40 to 0.69	Medium positive correlation	0.20	4
r = 0 to 0.39	Low positive correlation	0.30	9
r = 0 to -0.39	Low negative correlation	0.40	16
r = 0.40 to -0.69	Medium negative correlation	0.50	25
r = 0.70 to -0.89	High negative correlation	0.60	36
r = 0.90 to -0.99	Very high negative correlation	0.70	49
-	-	0.80	64
-	-	0.90	81

Therefore, correlations were performed between items within the 14 sub-themes which comprise the four main themes of this study, followed by correlations between the 14 sub-themes and the four themes.

5.2.3.1 Leadership

As mentioned, Pearson's r was calculated in order to investigate the relationships between items.

5.2.3.1.1 Creating a Clear Vision of Change

As seen in Table 5.19 below, at a significance level of $p < .01$, items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 showed a statistically significant ($p = .000$), medium positive correlation between items. The table also shows a high correlation between items and sub-theme (vision). It can also be observed from the table that item 1, "There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organisation", had a medium positive correlation with item 2, "I understand how change will help the organisation in the long term" ($r = .661$). This means that employees who had higher scores on item 1 tended to score highly on item 2.

Table 5.19: Correlations between vision items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organisation	Pearson	1	.661**	.459**	.446**	.449**	.444**	.461**	.736**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	310	311	311	311	312	307
2. I understand how change will help the organisation in the long term	Pearson	.661**	1	.578**	.559**	.548**	.450**	.505**	.801**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	310	311	311	311	312	307
3. Understanding why change is happening and necessary for the organisation	Pearson	.459**	.578**	1	.754**	.655**	.552**	.504**	.826**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	310	310	310	309	309	309	310	307
4. I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job	Pearson	.446**	.559**	.754**	1	.694**	.546**	.505**	.824**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	311	311	309	311	310	310	311	307
5. The vision statement of the organisation is relevant to the change project	Pearson	.449**	.548**	.655**	.694**	1	.552**	.514**	.807**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	311	311	309	310	311	310	311	307
6. I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.	Pearson	.444**	.450**	.552**	.546**	.552**	1	.471**	.732**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	311	311	309	310	310	311	311	307
7. Generally, there are obvious connections between the goals of change and the way change is implemented.	Pearson	.461**	.505**	.504**	.505**	.514**	.471**	1	.725**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	312	312	310	311	311	311	312	307
8. Vision	Pearson	.736**	.801**	.826**	.824**	.807**	.732**	.725**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	307	307	307	307	307	307	307	307

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

5.2.3.1.2 Communication of Change

The results listed in Table 5.20 indicate that items 9, 10, 12, 13, 14 and 15 showed a statistically significant ($p=.000$), medium positive correlation between them, while item 11 had a low positive correlation with items 9, 10 and 14 ($r=.253$; $r=.328$; $r=.353$) at a significance level of $p<.01$. The table also shows medium and high positive correlations between items and sub-theme (item 15). The interesting result here is that item 13, “My manager listens to subordinates’ views about change”, is correlated medium positively with item 14, “My manager tries to create commitment to the change project” ($r=.611$). This indicates that the higher the score on item 13 the higher the score on item 14.

Table 5.20: Correlations between communication items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
9. My manager sets clear and precise strategic plans for the department in order to implement the change vision	Pearson	1	.513**	.253**	.483**	.419**	.457**	.688**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	310	308	306
10. My manager has explained to employees the goals of the change programme	Pearson	.513**	1	.328**	.573**	.481**	.460**	.746**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	310	308	306
11. My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she needs to communicate the required change	Pearson	.253**	.328**	1	.451**	.521**	.353**	.653**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	310	308	306
12. My manager keeps me informed about the departmental changes.	Pearson	.483**	.573**	.451**	1	.578**	.500**	.804**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	310	308	306
13. My manager listens to subordinates' views about change.	Pearson	.419**	.481**	.521**	.578**	1	.611**	.821**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	310	310	310	310	310	306	306
14. My manager tries to create commitment to the change project.	Pearson	.457**	.460**	.353**	.500**	.611**	1	.761**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	308	308	308	308	306	308	306
15. Communication of change	Pearson	.688**	.746**	.653**	.804**	.821**	.761**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	306	306	306	306	306	306	306

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

5.2.3.1.3 Participation and Involvement in Change

Table 5.21: Correlations between participation and involvement items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	16	17	18	19	20	21
16. I have been involved in discussions about new ways in which the organisation's structures and practices will change	Pearson	1	.312**	.446**	.502**	.476**	.677**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	310	312	310
17. My manager involves employees in the change planning processes of the department	Pearson	.312**	1	.262**	.263**	.349**	.775**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	310	312	310
18. Employees have been given full opportunity to participate in the change process.	Pearson	.446**	.262**	1	.565**	.584**	.678**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	310	312	310
19. Managers clarify the reasons for change before implementing changes.	Pearson	.502**	.263**	.565**	1	.651**	.712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	310	310	310	310	310	310
20. My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions about change which affects them	Pearson	.476**	.349**	.584**	.651**	1	.754**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	312	312	312	310	312	310
21. Participation and involvement in change	Pearson	.677**	.775**	.678**	.712**	.754**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	310	310	310	310	310	310

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21 showed a statistically significant ($p = .000$), low and medium positive correlation between items, as can be seen from Table 5.21, which also shows medium and high positive correlations between items and sub-theme (item 21).

5.2.3.1.4 Training and Resources to Implement Change

Table 5.22: Correlations between training and resource items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	22	23	24	25	26
22. I have the appropriate skills to achieve the change objectives associated with my department	Pearson	1	.567**	.587**	.553**	.843**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	312	310	311	310	308
23. I am rewarded for developing skills that support change	Pearson	.567**	1	.516**	.457**	.804**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	310	310	309	309	308
24. The training which is provided is relevant to the new skills required by the change project	Pearson	.587**	.516**	1	.468**	.784**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	311	309	311	309	308
25. Managers provide the necessary resources which are needed to achieve change objectives for my department	Pearson	.553**	.457**	.468**	1	.778**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	310	309	309	310	308
26. Training and resources to implement change	Pearson	.843**	.804**	.784**	.778**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	308	308	308	308	308

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) and medium positive correlations between them, as can be seen from Table 5.22, which also shows a high positive correlation between items and sub-theme (item 26).

5.2.3.1.5 Delegation of Authority to Carry out Change

Table 5.23: Correlations between authority delegation items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	27	28	29	30	31
27. My manager controls all change initiatives in the department	Pearson	1	.192**	.218**	.136*	.612**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000	.018	.000
	N	308	308	307	305	304
28. My manager interferes in his/her employees' work.	Pearson	.192**	1	-.033	-.085	.430**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.568	.134	.000
	N	308	312	311	309	304
29. My manager shows complete confidence in employees' ability to carry out delegated tasks.	Pearson	.218**	-.033	1	.396**	.697**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.568		.000	.000
	N	307	311	311	308	304
30. Employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change	Pearson	.136*	-.085	.396**	1	.647**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.134	.000		.000
	N	305	309	308	309	304
31. Delegation of authority to carry out change	Pearson	.612**	.430**	.697**	.647**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	304	304	304	304	304

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p > .01$, items 27 and 28, 27 and 29, and 29 and 30 showed some statistically significant ($p = .001$; $p = .000$; $p = .000$) low positive correlation: $r = .192$; $r = .218$; $r = .396$ respectively. At a significance level of $p > .05$, items 27 and 30 showed a statistically significant ($p = .081$) low positive correlation ($r = .136$). Table 5.23 shows that there was no significant correlation between item 28, “My manager interferes in his/her employees’ work”, and these items: 29, “My manager shows complete confidence in employees’ ability to carry out delegated tasks” ($r = -.033$), and 30, “Employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change” ($r = -.085$). However, the table indicates that the higher score on 29 the higher score on item 30.

5.2.3.1.6 Motivation to Change

Table 5.24: Correlations between motivation items - leadership

Factors	Correlation	32	33	34	35
32. My manager rewards those who demonstrate appropriate responses to change.	Pearson	1	.631**	.227**	.840**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	310	310	305	307
33. Generally, employees are well motivated to implement change in the workplace.	Pearson	.631**	1	.244**	.830**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	310	312	307	307
34. Key executives encourage change within the organisation	Pearson	.227**	.244**	1	.298**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	305	307	307	303
35. Motivation to change	Pearson	.840**	.830**	.298**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	307	307	303	307

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 32, 33 and 34 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$), low and high positive correlations between them, as can be seen from Table 5.24, which also shows a positive correlation between items and sub-theme (item 35). The interesting result here is that item 33, “Employees are well motivated to implement change in the workplace”, correlated medium positively with item 32, “My manager rewards those who demonstrate appropriate responses to change” ($r = .631$). Thus, the higher the score on item 33 the higher the score on 32.

5.2.3.2 Power and Politics

Pearson’s r was also calculated for the power and politics items in order to investigate the relationships between them as follows.

5.2.3.2.1 Positive Role of Politics

Table 5.25: Correlations between positive role of politics items - power and politics

Factors	Correlation	36	37	38	39	40	41
36. Managers should have good political skills to implement change successfully in this organisation.	Pearson	1	.592**	.438**	.304**	.089	.677**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.119	.000
	N	311	311	311	309	311	309
37. Managers should be very persuasive to implement change successfully in this organisation.	Pearson	.592**	1	.477**	.228**	.025	.627**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.666	.000
	N	311	312	312	310	312	309
38. You have to be quite crafty to introduce change successfully in this organisation.	Pearson	.438**	.477**	1	.311**	.097	.645**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.088	.000
	N	311	312	312	310	312	309
39. Change requires managers to control organisational resources to implement change	Pearson	.304**	.228**	.311**	1	.082	.600**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.151	.000
	N	309	310	310	310	310	309
40. The necessary information system is in place for me to carry out my duties effectively	Pearson	.089	.025	.097	.082	1	.583**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.119	.666	.088	.151		.000
	N	311	312	312	310	312	309
41. Positive role of politics in change	Pearson	.677**	.627**	.645**	.600**	.583**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	309	309	309	309	309	309

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 36, 37, 38 and 39 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$), low and medium positive correlations between them, while item 40 showed no significant correlation with other items.

5.2.3.2.2 Negative Role of Politics

As Table 5.26 shows, at a significance level of $p < .01$, items 42, 46, 47 and 48 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$), low to medium correlations with each other. Items 44 and 42 showed no statistically significant ($p = .166$) correlation ($r = .079$), while item 44 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$; $p = .000$; $p = .003$; $p = .000$; $p = .009$) medium and low correlations with items 43, 45, 46, 47 and 48 respectively ($r = .429$; $r = .236$ $r = .168$; $r = .227$; $r = .147$). Item 43 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$; $p = .000$; $p = .000$; $p = .001$) low positive correlations ($r = .247$; $r = .249$ $r = .246$; $r = .182$) with items 42, 46, 47 and 48 in that order, while items 43 and 45 showed no statistically significant ($p = .197$) correlation ($r = .074$). Finally, item 45 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) low and medium positive correlations ($r = .322$; $r = .236$ $r = .372$; $r = .527$; $r = .384$) with items 42, 46, 47 and 48 respectively.

Table 5.26: Correlations between negative role of politics items - power and politics

Factors	Correlation	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49
42. Politics can be used to slow down or block change initiatives	Pearson	1	.247**	.079	.322**	.289**	.358**	.482**	.612**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.166	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	309	307	308	307	304	309	309	299
43. One of the main sources of resistance to change in this organisation is employees trying to defend their personal power and interests	Pearson	.247**	1	.429**	.074	.249**	.246**	.182**	.549**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.197	.000	.000	.001	.000
	N	307	310	310	308	303	308	310	299
44. Change always creates winners and losers	Pearson	.079	.429**	1	.236**	.168**	.227**	.147**	.490**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.166	.000		.000	.003	.000	.009	.000
	N	308	310	311	309	304	309	311	299
45. Communication about change is limited to those directly concerned with the project	Pearson	.322**	.074	.236**	1	.372**	.527**	.384**	.651**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.197	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	307	308	309	310	303	308	310	299
46. Managers use their position of power to control resistance to change	Pearson	.289**	.249**	.168**	.372**	1	.296**	.376**	.619**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.003	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	304	303	304	303	305	305	305	299
47. Good ideas for change are often hidden and then used to promote personal agendas	Pearson	.358**	.246**	.227**	.527**	.296**	1	.397**	.697**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	309	308	309	308	305	310	310	299
48. Employees in this organisation often feel that change has been imposed on them	Pearson	.482**	.182**	.147**	.384**	.376**	.397**	1	.663**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.009	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	309	310	311	310	305	310	312	299
49. Negative role of politics	Pearson	.612**	.549**	.490**	.651**	.619**	.697**	.663**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	299	299	299	299	299	299	299	299

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

5.2.3.2.3 Power

Table 5.27: Correlations between power items - power and politics

Factors	Correlation	50	51	52	53	54	55
50. Reward power (i.e. incentive-based)	Pearson	1	.084	.313**	.171**	.253**	.518**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.139	.000	.002	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312
51. Coercive power (i.e. threat-based)	Pearson	.084	1	.066	.304**	.080	.665**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.139		.242	.000	.160	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312
52. Referent power (i.e. respect-based)	Pearson	.313**	.066	1	.337**	.363**	.596**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.242		.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312
53. Legitimate power (i.e. position-based)	Pearson	.171**	.304**	.337**	1	.304**	.682**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312
54. Expert power (i.e. knowledge-based)	Pearson	.253**	.080	.363**	.304**	1	.562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.160	.000	.000		.000
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312
55. Power used to change	Pearson	.518**	.665**	.596**	.682**	.562**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	312	312	312	312	312	312

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 50, 52, 53 and 54 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$), low and medium positive correlations between them, while item 51 showed no significant correlation with items 50, 52 and 54. However, items 51 and 53 showed a statistically significant ($p = .000$) low positive correlation ($r = .304$). Thus, coercive power was correlated positively with legitimate power, and legitimate power with

correlated with all other types of power. This indicates that an increase in coercive power; an increase in legitimate power, while an increase in legitimate power; an increase all types of power: reward, coercive, referent and expert power.

5.2.3.3 Organisational Culture

Pearson's r was also calculated in order to investigate the relationship between items of organisational culture, as discussed in the following subsections.

5.2.3.3.1 General Elements of Organisational Culture

At a significance level of $p < .01$, Table 5.28 shows that items 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 63, 65 and 66 had statistically significant ($p = .000$), low and medium positive correlations between them. Item 62, referring to favouritism, showed no statistically significant correlation with items 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 65 and 66. The interesting point here is that item 62, "Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department", was positively correlated with item 61, "Effective change is rewarded in this organisation" ($r = .205$) and item 64, "Employees prefer to avoid direct confrontation with their managers about issues regarding change" ($r = .391$). Thus, the higher the score on favouritism, the higher the score on reward and avoiding confrontation with managers.

The table also shows that at a significance level of $p < .05$, item 62 on favouritism was correlated with item 63, "Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in my department in order to achieve change objectives" ($r = -.144$). This means that an increase in favouritism; a decrease in teamwork. In addition, at a significance level of $p < .01$, item 64, "Employees prefer to avoid direct confrontation with management", was correlated negatively with item 63, "Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in my department in order to achieve change objectives" ($r = -.210$). This means that an increased avoidance of direct confrontation with management; a decrease in teamwork.

Table 5.28: Correlations between general elements of organisational culture

Factors	Correlation	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67
56. Management is happy to receive feedback from employees about change processes.	Pearson	1	.280**	.532**	.577**	.615**	.290**	-.087	.538**	.000	.416**	.489**	.747**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.125	.000	.999	.000	.000	.000
	N	311	311	308	310	309	309	309	311	310	311	310	296
57. New ideas are openly encouraged within the implementation of change	Pearson	.280**	1	.347**	.376**	.360**	.275**	.069	.260**	.021	.190**	.246**	.516**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.227	.000	.707	.001	.000	.000
	N	311	311	308	310	309	309	309	311	310	311	310	296
58. Sensitive issues about change are discussed openly	Pearson	.532**	.347**	1	.674**	.709**	.313**	-.057	.514**	-.087	.393**	.490**	.757**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.320	.000	.128	.000	.000	.000
	N	308	308	308	307	306	306	306	308	307	308	307	296
59. There is willingness to give employees autonomy during change processes.	Pearson	.577**	.376**	.674**	1	.783**	.420**	-.007	.515**	-.092	.435**	.486**	.794**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.901	.000	.108	.000	.000	.000
	N	310	310	307	310	308	308	308	310	309	310	309	296
60. Information-sharing between employees is encouraged during change processes.	Pearson	.615**	.360**	.709**	.783**	1	.361**	-.024	.544**	-.107	.466**	.535**	.812**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.678	.000	.060	.000	.000	.000
	N	309	309	306	308	310	307	308	310	308	310	309	296
61. Effective change is rewarded in this organisation.	Pearson	.290**	.275**	.313**	.420**	.361**	1	.205**	.274**	-.039	.215**	.383**	.470**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.490	.000	.000	.000
	N	309	309	306	308	307	309	308	309	309	309	308	295
62. Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department.	Pearson	-.087	.069	-.057	-.007	-.024	.205**	1	-.144*	.391**	-.034	-.072	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.125	.227	.320	.901	.678	.000		.011	.000	.555	.206	.089
	N	309	309	306	308	308	308	310	310	309	310	309	296
63. Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in my department in order to achieve change objectives	Pearson	.538**	.260**	.514**	.515**	.544**	.274**	-.144*	1	-.210**	.477**	.617**	.729**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.011		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	311	311	308	310	310	309	310	312	310	312	311	296
64. Employees prefer to avoid direct confrontation with their managers about issues regarding change	Pearson	.000	.021	-.087	-.092	-.107	-.039	.391**	-.210**	1	-.003	-.118*	.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.999	.707	.128	.108	.060	.490	.000	.000		.953	.038	.293
	N	310	310	307	309	308	309	309	310	310	310	309	296
65. Mistakes in implementation of change are seen as opportunities to learn	Pearson	.416**	.190**	.393**	.435**	.466**	.215**	-.034	.477**	-.003	1	.343**	.615**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.555	.000	.953		.000	.000
	N	311	311	308	310	310	309	310	312	310	312	311	296
66. Progress toward change objectives are publicised	Pearson	.489**	.246**	.490**	.486**	.535**	.383**	-.072	.617**	-.118*	.343**	1	.684**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.206	.000	.038	.000		.000
	N	310	310	307	309	309	308	309	311	309	311	311	296
67. Relationship Culture	Pearson	.747**	.516**	.757**	.794**	.812**	.470**	.099	.729**	.061	.615**	.684**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.089	.000	.293	.000	.000	
	N	296	296	296	296	296	295	296	296	296	296	296	296

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

5.2.3.3.2 Uncertainly Avoidance Culture

Table 5.29: Correlations between uncertainly avoidance items - organisational culture

Factors	Correlation	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75
68. Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change.	Pearson	1	.508**	.504**	.163**	-.102	.191**	.057	.679**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.004	.073	.001	.320	.000
	N	311	310	310	306	310	298	310	292
69. Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change	Pearson	.508**	1	.671**	.008	-.290**	.359**	.025	.687**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.883	.000	.000	.664	.000
	N	310	311	310	306	310	297	309	292
70. Generally, employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives.	Pearson	.504**	.671**	1	.059	-.348**	.253**	-.074	.605**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.307	.000	.000	.198	.000
	N	310	310	311	306	310	298	309	292
71. A detailed plan is required in order to manage change successfully	Pearson	.163**	.008	.059	1	-.042	.038	.002	.267**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.883	.307		.462	.519	.969	.000
	N	306	306	306	307	306	294	305	292
72. Continuous change (rather than big events) is preferred in the organisation	Pearson	-.102	-.290**	-.348**	-.042	1	-.258**	.354**	.174**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.073	.000	.000	.462		.000	.000	.003
	N	310	310	310	306	311	297	309	292
73. Employees feel worried about change	Pearson	.191**	.359**	.253**	.038	-.258**	1	-.156**	.416**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.519	.000		.007	.000
	N	298	297	298	294	297	298	298	292
74. Generally, managers in this organisation are willing to take risks when implementing change.	Pearson	.057	.025	-.074	.002	.354**	-.156**	1	.381**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.320	.664	.198	.969	.000	.007		.000
	N	310	309	309	305	309	298	310	292
75. Uncertainty avoidance	Pearson	.679**	.687**	.605**	.267**	.174**	.416**	.381**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	
	N	292	292	292	292	292	292	292	292

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As Table 5.29 shows, at a significance level of $p < .01$, items 68 and 69, 68 and 70, and 69 and 70 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) medium positive correlations ($r = .508$; $r = .504$; $r = .671$ respectively). Items 71 and 68 showed a statistically significant ($p = .004$) low positive correlation ($r = .163$), while item 71 was not correlated significantly with any other items.

The table also show that item 72, “Continuous change is preferred”, had a low negative correlation with item 69, “Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change”, ($r = -.290$), item 70, “Generally, employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives” ($r = -.348$) and item 73, “Employees feel worried about change” ($r = -.258$). Thus, the higher the score on item 72, the lower the score on items 69, 70 and 73.

It can also be seen that item 72 on continuous change and item 74, “Generally, managers in this organisation are willing to take risks when implementing change”, showed a statistically significant ($p=.000$), low positive correlation ($r=.354$). Thus, the higher the score on preference for continuous change among employees, the higher the score on willingness in managers to take risks.

Additionally, item 73, referring to employees feeling worried about change, showed a statistically significant ($p=.000$), low positive correlation with items 68, 69 and 70 ($r=.191$; $r=.459$; $r=.254$ respectively), while items 73 and 74 showed a statistically significant ($p=.007$), low negative correlation ($r=-.156$). This means that the higher the score on worries about change, the higher the score on past change interventions having created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change, on employees preferring to maintain the status quo and on employees feeling that they could not cope with change initiatives. On other hand, employees who had a high score on being worried about change tended to have a low score on perceiving managers as willing to take risks.

5.2.3.3.3 Evaluation and Time Culture

Table 5.30: Correlations between evaluation and time items - organisational culture

Factors	Correlation	76	77	78	79	80
76. The timescales associated with change projects are often unrealistic.	Pearson	1	.176**	.089	.125*	.440**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.117	.028	.000
	N	312	312	311	310	309
77. A clear timetable was devised for the various phases of the change projects	Pearson	.176**	1	.305**	.504**	.799**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002		.000	.000	.000
	N	312	312	311	310	309
78. The organisation regularly reviews the change plan of my department	Pearson	.089	.305**	1	.532**	.676**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.117	.000		.000	.000
	N	311	311	311	309	309
79. There is a means of measuring the success of the change project.	Pearson	.125*	.504**	.532**	1	.795**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.000	.000		.000
	N	310	310	309	310	309
80. Evaluation and time culture	Pearson	.440**	.799**	.676**	.795**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	309	309	309	309	309

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

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

According to Table 5.30, at a significance level of $p<.01$, items 76 and 77, 77 and 78, 77 and 79, and 78 and 79 showed statistically significant ($p=.002$; $p=.000$; $p=.000$; $p=.000$) low and medium positive correlations ($r=.176$; $r=.305$; $r=.504$; $r=.532$ respectively). At a significance level of $p<.05$, items 76 and 79 showed a statistically significant ($p=.028$) low positive correlation ($r=.125$).

5.2.3.4 Organisational Structure

Pearson's r was also calculated for organisational structure items in order to investigate the relationships between them, as shown in Table 5.31.

Table 5.31: Correlations between organisational structure items

Factors	Correlation	81	82	83	84	85	86	87
81. My manager expects me to comply completely with the organisation's procedures	Pearson	1	.318**	.366**	.163**	.281**	.303**	.603**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000
	N	311	310	309	311	310	310	307
82. All policies and procedures related to my work are written	Pearson	.318**	1	.503**	.110	.364**	.345**	.701**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.053	.000	.000	.000
	N	310	311	309	311	310	310	307
83. The roles and objectives of my job are clarified by a job description system	Pearson	.366**	.503**	1	.042	.492**	.222**	.672**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.459	.000	.000	.000
	N	309	309	310	310	309	310	307
84. There are open communication channels in my department.	Pearson	.163**	.110	.042	1	.154**	.076	.491**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.053	.459		.007	.179	.000
	N	311	311	310	312	311	311	307
85. Formal communication is encouraged in this organisation	Pearson	.281**	.364**	.492**	.154**	1	.317**	.687**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.007		.000	.000
	N	310	310	309	311	311	310	307
86. Authority to make decisions is centralised	Pearson	.303**	.345**	.222**	.076	.317**	1	.595**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.179	.000		.000
	N	310	310	310	311	310	311	307
87. Structure	Pearson	.603**	.701**	.672**	.491**	.687**	.595**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	307	307	307	307	307	307	307

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

At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 81, 82, 83, 85 and 86 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) low and medium positive correlations between them, as can be seen from Table 5.31. At a significance level of $p < .01$, items 84 and 81, and 84 and 85 showed statistically significant ($p = .004$; $p = .007$) low positive correlations ($r = .163$; $r = .154$), while item 84 showed no statistically significant correlation with any of items 82, 83 and 86.

5.2.3.5 Correlation between Sub-Themes

All questionnaire items were conflated to the sub-themes in order to calculate the correlations between these sub-themes, as shown in Table 5.32. Overall, at a significance level of $p < .01$, items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12 and 13 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$), low, medium and high positive correlations with each other, as can be seen from the table. At a significance level of $p < .01$, item 8 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) low positive correlations ($r = .224$; $r = .374$; $r = .374$; $r = .332$) with items 7, 9, 11 and 13 respectively, but no statistically significant correlation with any other. Finally, at a significance level of $p < .01$, item 9 showed statistically significant ($p = .000$) low positive correlations ($r = .315$; $r = .228$; $r = .289$) with items 7, 11 and 13 respectively, but no statistically significant correlation with any other.

Table 5.32: Correlations between sub-themes

Factors	Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Vision	Pearson	1	.673**	.636**	.403**	.537**	.557**	.363**	-.080	.011	.679**	.134*	.454**	.286**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.172	.853	.000	.023	.000	.000
	N	307	301	305	303	299	303	304	296	307	297	288	304	302
2. Communication	Pearson	.673**	1	.676**	.629**	.601**	.684**	.383**	.054	.067	.691**	.265**	.447**	.312**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.354	.243	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	301	306	304	303	299	301	303	295	306	296	288	303	302
3. Participation	Pearson	.636**	.676**	1	.542**	.488**	.536**	.239**	-.031	.004	.538**	.211**	.352**	.277**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.597	.946	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	305	304	310	306	302	305	307	298	310	299	290	307	305
4. Training	Pearson	.403**	.629**	.542**	1	.492**	.584**	.222**	.084	.051	.477**	.311**	.298**	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.146	.369	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	303	303	306	308	300	303	305	298	308	299	289	305	304
5. Delegation	Pearson	.537**	.601**	.488**	.492**	1	.518**	.308**	.035	.067	.580**	.278**	.347**	.332**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.556	.242	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	299	299	302	300	304	299	301	292	304	294	284	301	299
6. Motivation	Pearson	.557**	.684**	.536**	.584**	.518**	1	.361**	-.030	.088	.712**	.230**	.429**	.285**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.612	.123	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	303	301	305	303	299	307	305	297	307	300	289	305	303
7. Positive role of politics	Pearson	.363**	.383**	.239**	.222**	.308**	.361**	1	.224**	.315**	.379**	.186**	.270**	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	304	303	307	305	301	305	309	298	309	299	290	307	305
8. Negative role of politics	Pearson	-.080	.054	-.031	.084	.035	-.030	.224**	1	.374**	-.045	.378**	-.035	.332**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.172	.354	.597	.146	.556	.612	.000		.000	.439	.000	.546	.000
	N	296	295	298	298	292	297	298	300	300	293	284	298	296
9. Power	Pearson	.011	.067	.004	.051	.067	.088	.315**	.374**	1	.086	.228**	-.011	.289**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.853	.243	.946	.369	.242	.123	.000	.000		.139	.000	.842	.000
	N	307	306	310	308	304	307	309	300	312	301	292	309	307
10. Cultural elements	Pearson	.679**	.691**	.538**	.477**	.580**	.712**	.379**	-.045	.086	1	.285**	.592**	.345**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.439	.139		.000	.000	.000
	N	297	296	299	299	294	300	299	293	301	301	284	299	297
11. Uncertainty avoidance	Pearson	.134*	.265**	.211**	.311**	.278**	.230**	.186**	.378**	.228**	.285**	1	.234**	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	288	288	290	289	284	289	290	284	292	284	292	291	289
12. Evaluation culture	Pearson	.454**	.447**	.352**	.298**	.347**	.429**	.270**	-.035	-.011	.592**	.234**	1	.191**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.546	.842	.000	.000		.001
	N	304	303	307	305	301	305	307	298	309	299	291	309	305
13. Structure	Pearson	.286**	.312**	.277**	.342**	.332**	.285**	.342**	.332**	.289**	.345**	.342**	.191**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	
	N	302	302	305	304	299	303	305	296	307	297	289	305	307

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

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

5.2.3.6 Correlation between main themes

Finally, sub-themes were conflated to the main themes in order to examine the correlations between these themes, as Table 5.33 shows.

Table 5.33: Correlations between main themes

Factors	Correlation	1	2	3	4
1. Leadership	Pearson	1	.165**	.737**	.373**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006	.000	.000
	N	285	276	265	283
2. Power and Politics	Pearson	.165**	1	.212**	.450**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006		.000	.000
	N	276	298	274	294
3. Organisational Culture	Pearson	.737**	.212**	1	.372**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	265	274	283	280
4. Organisational Structure	Pearson	.373**	.450**	.372**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	283	294	280	307

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

Generally, there was a positive correlation between themes at a significance level of $p < .01$. It can be observed that the leadership factor was highly positively correlated with the culture factor ($r = .737$), while the power and politics factor also showed a medium positive correlation with organisational structure ($r = .450$).

This section has examined correlations between items, sub-themes and themes; the final section explores differences between the various groups by employing the t-test.

5.2.4 Group Comparisons

The aim of this section is to explore the extent to which the variance in the sub-themes and themes is explained by different variable factors. These variables are gender and rank. In order to measure the variation, an independent-sample t-test was employed, because the variables contain two sub-groups (Bryman, 2008). However, because of the lack of space and the large number of items, the test was carried out only on sub-themes and themes, rather than on individual questionnaire items.

5.2.4.1 Variance by Gender

First of all, an independent-sample *t*-test was carried out on sub-themes of this study in order to compare scores between male and female. There was no significant difference between male and female for all but two sub-themes: 7, positive role of politics in change, and 11, uncertainty avoidance culture. For sub-theme 7, the mean for males was 20.3 and for females 19.2 ($t = 2.264$; $df = 307$, $p = .024$). For sub-theme 11, there the mean for males was 24.8 and for females 23.2 ($t = 2.263$; $df = 290$, $p = .024$). These results are illustrated in Tables 5.34 and 5.35.

Table 5.34: Group statistics – variance of sub-themes by gender

Sub-theme	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
7. Positive role of politics	Male	282	20.3723	2.47112	.14715
	Female	27	19.2222	3.01705	.58063
8. Uncertainly avoidance culture	Male	268	24.8321	3.33938	.20399
	Female	24	23.2500	2.50651	.51164

Table 5.35: Levene's test for equality of variance on sub-themes 7 and 11

factors		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									lower	upper
7. Positive Role of politics	Equal variances assumed	1.850	.175	2.264	307	.024	1.15012	.50805	.15042	2.14982
	Equal variances not assumed			1.920	29.436	.065	1.15012	.59899	-.07416	2.37440
11. Uncertainty avoidance	Equal variances assumed	2.422	.121	2.263	290	.024	1.58209	.69909	.20616	2.95802
	Equal variances not assumed			2.872	30.826	.007	1.58209	.55080	.45846	2.70572

Following this, an independent-sample *t*-test was also carried out on the main themes of this study in order to compare scores between male and female. The results indicate that there was no significant difference between males and females in terms of leadership and organisational culture. However, the results show that there were significant differences between males and females in terms of power and politics and of organisational structure. For power and politics the mean for males was 67.4 and for females 64.5 ($t=2.017$; $df=296$, $p=.045$). Regarding organisational structure, the mean for males was 22.8 and for females it was 21.2 ($t=2.243$; $df=305$, $p=.026$), as can be seen from Tables 5.36 and 5.37.

Table 5.36: Group statistics – variance of themes by gender

Theme	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1. Leadership	Male	261	85.6513	19.82260	1.22699
	Female	24	79.8333	17.21896	3.51481
2. Power and Politics	Male	273	67.4212	6.83486	.41366
	Female	25	64.5200	7.43371	1.48674
3. Organisational Culture	Male	262	71.2290	10.90507	.67372
	Female	21	67.5714	9.03090	1.97070
4. Organisational Structure	Male	280	22.8893	3.49478	.20885
	Female	27	21.2963	3.82114	.73538

Table 5.37: Levene's test for equality of variance by gender on themes

Factors		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									lower	upper
1. Leadership	Equal variances assumed	1.105	.294	1.390	283	.166	5.81801	4.18583	-2.42131	14.05733
	Equal variances not assumed			1.563	28.909	.129	5.81801	3.72282	-1.79704	13.43306
2. Power and Politics	Equal variances assumed	.050	.824	2.017	296	.045	2.90125	1.43874	.06978	5.73271
	Equal variances not assumed			1.880	27.845	.071	2.90125	1.54322	-.26068	6.06317
3. Organisational Culture	Equal variances assumed	.833	.362	1.496	281	.136	3.65758	2.44540	-1.15605	8.47121
	Equal variances not assumed			1.756	24.922	.091	3.65758	2.08268	-.63247	7.94763
4. Organisational Structure	Equal variances assumed	.281	.597	2.243	305	.026	1.59299	.71010	.19568	2.99030
	Equal variances not assumed			2.084	30.345	.046	1.59299	.76446	.03249	3.15349

5.2.4.2 Variance by Rank

The *t*-test was also conducted on sub-themes in order to examine differences in scores between police officers and police men. The results revealed a significant difference between these ranks on the sub-themes of vision, communication, participation, delegation, motivation, positive role of politics, general elements of organisational culture and evaluation culture, as can be seen from Tables 5.38 and 5.39.

Table 5.38: Group statistics – variance of sub-themes by rank

Sub-theme	Rank	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vision	Police Officers	99	23.7374	5.74915	.57781
	Police Men	208	18.6298	4.86062	.33702
Communication	Police Officers	99	19.6667	4.87601	.49006
	Police Men	207	16.3140	4.58606	.31875
Participation	Police Officers	100	13.9300	4.39755	.43976
	Police Men	99	23.7374	5.74915	.57781
Delegation	Police Officers	94	14.0745	2.87084	.29610
	Police Men	210	12.7095	2.59119	.17881
Motivation	Police Officers	99	9.6162	2.63302	.26463
	Police Men	94	14.0745	2.87084	.29610
Positive role of politics	Police Officers	100	21.0000	2.57807	.25781
	Police Men	209	19.9234	2.45025	.16949
General elements of organisational culture	Police Officers	95	38.4421	7.20921	.73965
	Police Men	206	33.0680	6.70458	.46713
Evaluation culture	Police Officers	99	12.5354	2.89021	.29048
	Police Men	210	11.3524	3.28395	.22661

Table 5.39: Levene's test for equality of variance by rank on sub-themes

Factors		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									lower	upper
Vision	Equal variances assumed	11.353	.001	8.102	305	.000	5.10757	.63039	3.86711	6.34802
	Equal variances not assumed			7.636	166.880	.000	5.10757	.66892	3.78693	6.42820
Communication	Equal variances assumed	.740	.390	5.861	304	.000	3.35266	.57206	2.22696	4.47836
	Equal variances not assumed			5.735	182.890	.000	3.35266	.58460	2.19922	4.50609
participation	Equal variances assumed	2.949	.087	2.443	308	.015	1.39667	.57176	.27162	2.52171
	Equal variances not assumed			2.528	212.845	.012	1.39667	.55242	.30775	2.48559
Delegation	Equal variances assumed	.348	.556	4.103	302	.000	1.36494	.33263	.71037	2.01952
	Equal variances not assumed			3.946	163.518	.000	1.36494	.34591	.68193	2.04796
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	.072	.789	3.857	305	.000	1.21232	.31434	.59376	1.83087
	Equal variances not assumed			3.811	187.108	.000	1.21232	.31812	.58476	1.83987
Positive politics	Equal variances assumed	.513	.474	3.553	307	.000	1.07656	.30303	.48028	1.67284
	Equal variances not assumed			3.489	186.488	.001	1.07656	.30853	.46790	1.68521
General elements of organisational culture	Equal variances assumed	1.974	.161	6.310	299	.000	5.37414	.85167	3.69813	7.05016
	Equal variances not assumed			6.143	171.435	.000	5.37414	.87481	3.64736	7.10093
Evaluation culture	Equal variances assumed	.287	.592	3.067	307	.002	1.18297	.38568	.42405	1.94189
	Equal variances not assumed			3.211	216.063	.002	1.18297	.36842	.45682	1.90912

Following this, an independent-sample *t*-test was also conducted on the main themes in order to compare scores between police officers and police men. The results show no significant difference for power and politics, while there were significant differences for leadership, organisational culture and organisational structure. For leadership, the mean for police officers was 93.8 and for police men 81.1 ($t=5.295$; $df=283$, $p=.000$). For organisational culture, the mean for police officers was 65.4 and for police men 68.9

($t=4.839$; $df=281$, $p=.000$). For organisational structure, the mean for police officers was 23.3 and for police men 22.4 ($t=2.214$; $df=305$, $p=.028$). These results are shown in Tables 5.40 and 5.41.

Table 5.40: Group statistics – variance of themes by rank

Theme	Rank	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Leadership	Police Officers	90	93.8333	20.20694	2.13000
	Police Men	195	81.1590	18.09113	1.29553
Power and Politics	Police Officers	95	68.0211	6.42465	.65916
	Police Men	203	66.7833	7.12215	.49988
Organisational Culture	Police Officers	87	75.4483	10.20460	1.09405
	Police Men	196	68.9643	10.48583	.74899
Organisational Structure	Police Officers	100	23.3900	3.75754	.37575
	Police Men	207	22.4396	3.40687	.23679

Table 5.41: Levene's test for equality of variance by rank on themes

Factors		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									lower	upper
Leadership	Equal variances assumed	6.236	.013	5.295	283	.000	12.67436	2.39349	7.96306	17.38566
	Equal variances not assumed			5.084	157.163	.000	12.67436	2.49305	7.75015	17.59856
Power and politics	Equal variances assumed	1.986	.160	1.441	296	.151	1.23780	.85875	-.45223	2.92784
	Equal variances not assumed			1.496	202.105	.136	1.23780	.82726	-.39337	2.86897
Organisational culture	Equal variances assumed	.433	.511	4.839	281	.000	6.48399	1.33987	3.84653	9.12145
	Equal variances not assumed			4.890	169.120	.000	6.48399	1.32587	3.86661	9.10137
Organisational structure	Equal variances assumed	1.551	.214	2.214	305	.028	.95039	.42922	.10577	1.79500
	Equal variances not assumed			2.140	179.631	.034	.95039	.44414	.07398	1.82679

5.2.5 Summary of Questionnaire Findings

As part of the empirical data collection for this study, 312 employees of ADP were surveyed in order to gain their views and perceptions of four critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure. The data was analysed using SPSS

15. This section has presented the questionnaire findings. These are first summarised in Table 5.42 and then explained synoptically.

Table 5.42: Summary of questionnaire findings

Main themes	Sub-themes	Item statistics	Correlation		Group Comparisons	
			Items	Sub-themes	Sub-themes	
					Gender	Rank
Leadership	Vision	Overall, employees were neutral towards items	Significant correlation between items	Overall, the sub-themes were correlated significantly with each other. However, sub-theme 8 was correlated significantly with sub-themes 7, 9, 11 and 13, but not with others. Also, sub-theme 9 was significantly correlated with 7, 11 and 13 but not with others.	No significant variance	Significant variance
	Communication of change	Overall, employees disagreed, except with item 10	Significant correlation between items		No significant variance	Variance significant
	Participation and involvement	Overall, employees disagreed with items	Significant correlation between items		No significant variance	Significant variance
	Training and resources	Overall, employees agreed, except with item 20	Significant correlation between items		No significant variance	No significant variance
	Delegation	Overall, employees agreed, except with item 24	No correlation of item 28 with items 29 and 30		No significant variance	Significant variance
	Motivation	Overall, employees disagreed, except with item 29	Significant correlation between items		No significant variance	Significant variance
Politics and power	Positive role of politics	Overall, employees agreed, except with item 34	No correlation between item 40 and other items	Significant variance	Significant variance	
	Negative role of politics	Overall, employees agreed with items	No correlation between items 44 and 42, or 43 and 45	No significant variance	No significant variance	
	Power	Overall, employees agreed, except with item 43	No correlation between item 51 and items 50, 52 and 54	No significant variance	No significant variance	
Organisational culture	Elements of culture	Overall, employees agreed with items 48, 52, 42 but disagreed with items 47, 49, 50, 53, 55 and 57	No correlation between item 62 and items (6, 57, 58, 59, 60 and 66)	No significant variance	Significant variance	
	Uncertainly avoidance culture	Overall, employees agreed, except with items 62 and 64	No correlation between item 71 and other items	Significant variance	No significant variance	
	Evaluation and time culture	Overall, employees disagreed, except with item 65	Significant correlation between items	No significant variance	Significant variance	
Organisational structure		Overall, employees agreed, except with item 72	No correlation between item 84 and items 82, 83, and 86	Significant variance	Variance significant	

Thus, the results indicated that a majority of the employees of ADP (189 respondents; 60.6%) disagreed that the ADP was good at implementing with change, while only 122 (39.1%) agreed. The results also showed that a majority of participants were aware of the strategic plan, vision, mission and values of the ADP, but that these elements were not clear to them. The participants agreed that leadership, power and politics,

organisational culture and organisational structure were the most important factors to be considered in order to implement change successfully.

Regarding descriptive analysis of the questionnaire responses, agreement was observed with some items and some disagreement with other items, as can be seen from Table 5.42. Overall, the variance between themes in terms of mean score was that the power and politics theme had the highest mean score (3.951), while leadership had the lowest (2.936). With respect to the two other themes, organisational culture had a mean of 3.225 and organisational structure 3.791.

The Pearson product moment correlation was calculated on all items, sub-themes and themes in order to explore positive or negative correlations between them. Generally, the results showed positive correlations between the main themes (leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure).

The final analysis of the data was an independent-sample *t*-test, which was conducted on the main themes and sub-themes in order to identify the variation by gender and by rank. The results showed significant differences between males and females in terms of power and politics and of organisational structure. Regarding rank, the results showed significant differences between police officers and police men for leadership, organisational culture and organisational structure.

In order to obtain a more holistic picture and explanation of the findings of the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with senior managers and experts of the ADP. Thus, the next chapter deals with the results of these interviews.

CHAPTER SIX: INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has presented the quantitative findings from a survey of 312 ADP employees. The present chapter complements these by providing an analysis of the qualitative data derived from the transcripts of interviews conducted with 20 managers and experts in change management in the ADP. As indicated in the methodology chapter, these interviews were conducted with these key personnel in order to help the researcher to gain rich insights into their opinions, experiences and feelings related to change. The analysis of the interview data will also help to explain some of the findings of the questionnaires which could be explained only through such in-depth probing.

The interviewees, who are identified in this chapter by code numbers [IR1-IR20] only, were asked four main questions: *What is the role of leadership in successful implementation of change at ADP? What is the role of power and politics in the successful implementation of change at ADP? What is the role of organisational culture in the successful implementation of change at ADP? What is the role of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change at ADP?* The results of interviews analysis are presented according to the main themes of this study: leadership, power and politics, organisational culture and organisational structure. However, it begins with a general profile of the interviewees.

6.2 Profile of Interviewees

The 20 interviewees were selected from various functions at different levels within the organisational structure of the ADP. Twelve were managers from the top, middle and lower levels, while the other eight were experts in change management. They were selected because all of them had had moderate to extensive first-hand contact with change and were thought to be the most influential people within the ADP. Therefore, the researcher interviewed people whose functions involved the management of change within the ADP.

A summary of the interviewees' profiles is given in Table 6.1, which shows that 95% of them were male and 5% female. In order to obtain more detail and different perspectives during the data analysis, these interviewees were divided into four groups based on the nature of their position: 35% of interviewees were top managers, 15%

middle managers, 10% lower managers and 40% experts in change. The table also indicates that half held a master's qualification, 35% a bachelor degree and 10% a doctorate, while 5% of participants did not hold a university degree. In terms of nationality, 60% of interviewees were Emirati and the remainder had UK Nationality. Finally, it was observed that the majority of participants (55%) had more than 20 years experience, while 25% of them had served between 5 and 10 years, followed by 20% with between 11 and 20 years experience.

Table 6.1: Participants' Profiles

Categories		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	19	95
	Female	1	5
Position	Top Manager	7	35
	Middle Manager	3	15
	Lower Manager	2	10
	Expert	8	40
Qualification	Secondary School	1	5
	Bachelor Degree	7	35
	Master	10	50
	PhD	2	10
Nationality	UAE	12	60
	UK	8	40
Length of Experience	5-10 years	5	25
	11-20 years	4	20
	More than 20 years	11	55

6.3 Leadership

As mentioned before, leadership is the first of the four main themes which is required in order to implement successful strategic change. The main objective of this section is to investigate the characteristics of effective leadership of change. In this regard, interviewees were asked what they considered the role of ADP managers in the successful implementation of change. There were various responses to this question; however, there was a general consensus that senior managers of ADP should be more capable of implementing change and that they needed certain skills in order to do so successfully. One of these which was often mentioned was strategic planning and communicating the vision. Some statements by interviewees illustrate this point:

“Senior managers need to play a more effective role in order to be successful. By this I mean ADP requires managers to pay attention to the future plan and strategic implementation rather than spend their time on routine work. I can summarize that we need leaders not managers in order to be successful in all change initiatives required by the government. Therefore, we need our leaders to

have the ability to see the future and communicate their vision to employees in order to achieve successful change” [IR1].

“Senior Managers in ADP have some weaknesses such as (1) they do not have the skill to plan for the future and (2) they do not have the ability to communicate the vision to employees” [IR3].

“I think that at this time ADP needs senior managers with clear vision of the future rather than managers who concentrate on daily work” [IR6].

“Generally, the leadership style that dominates the ADP is knee jerk reactions without thinking. I mean some leaders don’t know how to plan for the future. Also, senior managers in the Abu Dhabi Police spend their time in solving daily work problems, not in planning, and they are comfortable with this situation” [IR7].

These extracts show that senior managers were seen to concentrate on daily work rather than strategic planning and communicating a vision to employees, which was regarded as a weakness in their leadership ability. One interviewee gave an example to support these views:

“There are huge projects in Abu Dhabi such as tourism projects. We do not know how this will affect police work. I can confirm that there will be a motor racing Grand Prix in Abu Dhabi in 2009 but so far we do not have plans for this event. This means there is no planning for the long term. When this event comes near, the senior manager will ask for a plan. By this I mean that ADP needs senior managers to give thought to strategic plans. In general, managers need a clear vision and communication skills in order to achieve change.” [IR4]

This situation was seen to create a new cultural concept within the ADP known as “knowing everything”. One interviewee stated:

“Our culture has become dominated by ‘knowing everything’. I mean that our senior managers want to know all details of daily work within the organisation. This behaviour causes delay in the implementation of change. I think that managers should give attention to the strategic level rather than focusing on daily work” [IR15].

This indicates that ADP management, as is common in the Arab context, was dominated by a bureaucratic culture.

In addition to strategic planning and communicating the vision, one interviewee indicated that senior managers needed to motivate their employees in order to implement successful change: “senior managers should pay attention to motivating their employees to achieve change” [IR3].

Other interviewees were concerned with the delegation of authority and the ability of managers to take decisions in order to be effective in change. One interviewee stated:

“I think that senior managers in the ADP need some skills in order to be successful in change, such as delegating their authority to employees, having the ability to take decisions and trusting their employees” [IR11].

A similar view was presented by another interviewee, who argued that *“in order to be successful in change, senior managers must delegate their authority to employees” [IR12]*, while a third said:

“It can be said that in order to be successful in change, senior managers of ADP need several skills such as clear plans for the future and knowing how to communicate this vision to employees, to delegate their power and the ability to make decisions” [IR18].

Another of the main elements of effective leadership in change was identified as involvement; one interviewee stated that *“in addition to strategic planning and communication skills, senior managers of ADP need to involve staff in change” [IR20]*.

An important topic which arose during interviews was that of types of leadership within the ADP and their different effects on the process of change, as can be seen from the following interview extracts:

“In my experience, managers can be divided into several groups within the ADP. First, those managers who support change and have a clear vision of the future and know the importance of change. This level includes the Director General of the ADP and the managers in his office. Second, managers who resist change because they are afraid that it will not be in their interest. Third, managers who say that they support change, but they are scheming politically to destroy change. Finally, there are managers who are neutral and waiting to see what will happen.” [IR6]

“There are four types of leadership within ADP and all have an impact on change. The first style is supportive leaders, which includes the Director General of the ADP and his staff. These leaders have a clear vision for change and support all change initiatives and development within the ADP. The second style is neutral leaders. They are waiting to see what will happen and they do not resist change. These leaders have no power to affect change. The third style is resistive leaders. These leaders resist change in order to maintain their own interests. The final style is supportive leaders but in their own way. These leaders are willing to accept change but in different directions. They have their own interpretations of change which cause conflict in terms of change implementation” [IR9].

“In my opinion, change within ADP creates three types of leadership. The first is supportive leadership, which includes those who have a clear understanding of

change and give full support to change implementation within the ADP. These leaders are regarded as drivers of change within the ADP. Then there are neutral leaders who are watching change within the ADP. They adopt the concept which says 'Go with the flow'. Group three is the resistive leaders. Some of them play a political role in order to delay change" [IR10].

According to this group of interviewees, change itself caused various styles of leadership to appear within the ADP. It is obvious from the above responses that the top leaders of the ADP were seen as supporting change and having a clear vision of change. However, there were three other groups, each recognised as having its own way of reacting to change. These were resistive leaders, neutral leaders and political leaders.

One interviewee argued that *"these styles of leadership have been created because of a lack of common understanding of change and lack of strategic thinking"* [IR10]. However, one interviewee indicated that leaders generally tended to be supportive of change, because *"the ADP faces external pressure to change; therefore there is no room for leaders to resist change"* [IR9].

To sum up, the views raised strongly emphasise the need for senior managers who have the certain abilities to implement change, such as planning strategically, communicating the vision, motivating employees to change, delegating authority, making decisions and involving staff in change. The interviewees also identified various styles of leadership which they saw as caused by change: supportive leaders, resistive leaders, neutral leaders and political leaders. They indicated that these styles of leadership were created because there was a lack of common understanding of change between them.

6.4 Politics and Power

This section explores the second of the four factors believed to be important in the successful implementation of strategic change. To investigate the impact of politics and power on change, the interviewees were asked what they thought the role of politics and power was in the successful implementation of strategic change in the ADP. Some responses are shown below:

"I will be frank with you regarding this matter, successful change is closely linked to politics and the power used by those who control change." [IR1]

"I believe that the political role is very important to achieve successful change." [IR2]

“Yes...it is an important question... politics and power are important factors to achieve change, but it depends on how these factors are used.” [IR3]

“In any organisation in all countries in the world, the political and power role is very important, whether to support or impede change.” [IR11]

These responses show that interviewees agreed that politics and power were among the most important factors which can be used to support or impede change. The remainder of this section is divided into two parts, dealing with politics and power respectively.

6.4.1 Politics

The interviewees’ perceptions of political factors can be classified into two main clusters, external politics and internal politics, as one interviewee specifically suggested: *“In my view, politics can be divided into external and internal politics” [IR15].*

6.4.1.1 External Politics

The interviewees showed concern with the extent to which external politics affected the way in which the ADP managed change, as can be seen from these responses:

“The government of Abu Dhabi informs the ADP that our strategy will be linked to the government’s strategy and it will be monitored by ADEC [the Abu Dhabi Executive Council]. Consequently, this drives all managers in ADP to pay more attention to change. As you can see, there is external political pressure and the powerful position of ADEC which forces change in the ADP” [IR1].

“I think that change has been imposed because as I mentioned before ADP have external pressure from ADEC to achieve the government strategy” [IR9].

“In my opinion, the leadership must pay attention to change and they can’t choose to avoid it. This is because the ADP faces radical change which comes from ADEC” [IR12]

“Regarding external politics, the ADP faces pressure from ADEC to manage change and implement its strategy” [IR15].

“I can say that there is external political pressure based on ADEC’s power over all of the public sector in Abu Dhabi to manage change, including the ADP. Thus, the ADP faces radical change in order to follow the government strategy” [IR16].

“The ADP faces external political pressure to manage change; therefore, there is no room to ignore change” [IR18].

According to interviewees’ responses, the ADP faced external political pressure from the Government of Abu Dhabi, forcing it to manage change in order to implement

government strategy. It is worth pointing out here that this government pressure was perceived to come directly from the Abu Dhabi Executive Council, which is regarded as one of highest authorities in Abu Dhabi. This would oblige the ADP leadership to support change. However, one interviewee argued that ADEC should not interfere in the implementation of change:

“Although ADP has pressure from ADEC in order to implement Government Strategy and ADP is accountable to achieve change, the government should not interfere in police work. By this I mean that the government should not tell us how to achieve change and what change is required” [IR4].

6.4.1.2 Internal Politics

Turning to internal politics, the interviewees agreed with the view that internal politics could play either a positive or a negative role during change. Thus, interviewees can be classified into two main groups, those who indicated that internal politics was used positively to support change within the ADP and those who felt that it was used negatively to impede change. The following responses are from interviewees in the first of these categories:

“I am responsible for achieving some change initiatives within the HR department. Thus, I prefer to persuade managers and employees that change will be of benefit to them and their work. However, I must have basic power – by this I mean executive managers should support me and know what I am doing” [IR1].

“I prefer to persuade employees that implementing TQM will be better for their work. However, I should have support from top managers anyway”[IR3].

Although some interviewees did recognise the need to be persuasive in order to be successful, they were cognisant too of the need to build good relationships with those having powerful positions and control of resources within the organisational structure:

“In terms of internal politics, it is normal behaviour of managers to use politics in order to achieve change everywhere in world. Regarding the ADP, changes are controlled by some managers who have positions of power and who have good relationships with the Director General of the ADP. Without those managers, change could not happen in the ADP” [IR4].

“In order to support change in the ADP, a committee of development and change was formalised and headed by the General Manager of the Minister’s office and the General Manager of Human Resources. In my opinion, it is very important to include position and resource powers to achieve change” [IR6].

“I believe that a good relationship is one of the most important political roles in any Arab organisation. If someone has a strong relationship with the manager,

he can get what he wants. In my view, without good relationships with managers who have position power and resource power, change will not happen” [IR10].

“In my view, relationships are one of the most important factors for achieving successful change in the Abu Dhabi Police. Not all relationships – I mean those with people who have powerful positions within the organisational structure. I would like to say that there are some employees who want to restrict change, but with good relationships with the General Manager of the Minister’s office, change can be implemented successfully” [IR11].

It can be observed from the above responses that relationships and networking are among the most important political tactics that can be employed in Arab culture. Another political tactic is to make changes in the organisational structure, as one interviewee indicated:

“Separate the role of one manager from the organisational structure and link it to another department which is less important in order to avoid his resistance to change” [IR8].

To sum up, it appears that the interviewees were aware of the importance of politics when implementing change. Therefore, they mentioned some of the positive political tactics which can be used during change: the persuasive role, which is supported by positional power; good relationships with managers and those having positional and resource powers; and changing the organisational structure in order to overcome resistance to change.

Conversely, a number of interviewees were concerned with the negative role of internal politics in impeding change, as illustrated by the following responses:

“Generally, I think that the political role is used impede to change within the ADP. I can give you an example – they do not put the right person in the right place. In the ADP, we have a privatization committee but all members are not qualified. In my opinion, the reasons for that are that these people are easily controlled by other managers and they have no chance of objecting to the managers’ opinions” [IR5].

“I will give you the negative side of politics which is regarded as an impediment to change – such as some managers who have long experience within the ADP try to persuade the Director General to go in a different direction which leads to delays in the process of change. Another example – some managers give change projects to young officers in order to avoid blame if something goes wrong” [IR8].

“Some managers use their power relations to restrict change or get benefit from change” [IR12].

“I think that internal politics impedes change within the ADP. For example, some managers ask for committees to be set up in order to find solutions to some problems which leads to delays in the work and at the same time there is a department that is responsible for finding solutions for these problems. Therefore, why do managers need these committees? Also, I have observed that motivation is only for people who are close to managers who have powerful positions and not for people who are in fieldwork. For example, in the Abu Dhabi award ceremony, some people were rewarded, not for playing an effective role in change but just for being close to the central power” [IR15].

“In my view, internal politics within the ADP should be considered as an impediment to change. I can say that change within the ADP is controlled by certain people and those who receive rewards and motivation. Thus, the ADP is dominated by the concept of ‘looking after your own’, rather than giving opportunities to other employees to participate in change” [IR17].

It appears from the responses of interviewees that various negative political tactics were used to impede change within the ADP: not putting the right person in the right place; using experience to persuade the Director General to go in a different direction regarding change; finding someone else to take responsibility, thus avoiding blame; using committee procedures in order to delay change; motivating only those close to central power; managing change by relying on certain people only, rather than creating opportunities for other employees; and using relational power.

Alternatively, some interviewees argued that the negative role of politics was caused by a lack of clarity in the system and in the vision for change: *“In my view the ADP has no clear system or procedure for change, which opens the door for managers to play a political role in order to restrict change” [IR12].* This view was supported by another interviewee:

“I can say that current politics impedes change. This is because there is no clear vision of change and common vision between managers to achieve change. Therefore, this situation opens the door for managers to play a political role and every manager has his own way of implementing change” [IR7].

To sum up respondents’ views concerning politics, two types were identified: external and internal. Regarding external politics, the ADP was said to suffer pressure from the government of Abu Dhabi to manage change, which led all managers to pay attention to change. With respect to internal politics, the interviewees’ can be divided into two groups: those who felt that internal politics supported change and those who argued that it impeded change.

6.4.2 Power

The participants put considerable emphasis on the power which was used to implement change within the ADP. They identified specific types of power as being used commonly by those responsible for achieving change. For example, one interviewee pointed out:

“I can say that the sort of power which is based on position has been used to achieve change in the ADP. This is because we have pressure from ADEC to achieve change. Yes, I believe that managers without positional power within the organisational structure cannot achieve change” [IR2].

Another interviewee said,

“I believe that with positional power you can get what you want. For example, I am an expert and I have knowledge of strategy and change. However, no one will listen to me without support from my manager, who has a position of power. Therefore, I have support from the General Manager of the Minister’s office in order to achieve change within the ADP” [IR7].

Expressing a very similar viewpoint, an interviewee stated:

“ADP use positional power and military order in order to achieve change. The reason for that is that the ADP faces radical change which is forced on it by ADEC” [IR19].

In fact, during the analysis, it was noticed that interviewees emphasised the importance of positional power within the organisational structure in achieving successful change. In the participants’ opinion, this was so because the ADP was undergoing radical change forced upon it by the Abu Dhabi government. Therefore, change had to be forced through by managers in positions of power.

In this respect, participants also cited punishment as a key element of power being used to implement change. For example:

“I think that punishment has been used in order to achieve change within the ADP, such as transferring some managers to other work which is less important” [IR3].

“Punishment is used, such as retiring some managers who resist change” [IR4].

“ADP punishes employees who resist change by retiring them or giving them unimportant work” [IR10].

In the opinion of these respondents, punishment was used against those resisting change in the form of forced retirement or demotion to posts unrelated to the change.

Conversely, the power of reward was mentioned by some interviewees as being used to encourage participation in change:

“Rewards are given in order to encourage employees to participate in change”. [IR17].

Another interviewee said, *“The ADP motivates employees who show support for change”* [IR10].

The use of both reward and punishment to encourage employees to participate in change was criticised by some participants. One complained that rewards were *“given only to certain people close to those in positions of power. Thus, there is no clear system for motivation”* [IR3].

Another interviewee agreed:

“There is no clear system to guide managers to motivate or punish employees regarding their support or resistance to change. Instead, motivation and punishment are based on personal relationships” [IR10].

In the respondents' view, using the power of motivation and punishment depended on personal relationships. This indicates that punishment and reward were affected by Arab culture, where relationships generally determine how power is used.

To sum up, it appears from the responses of interviewees that three main powers were used to implement change within ADP: those of position, punishment and reward. This was because the ADP had radical change forced upon it by the government. Many interviewees then argued that relationships determined what type of powers would be used: motivation or punishment. Finally, it is worth mentioning here that one interviewee considered it better to persuade employees to change rather than imposing change on them through the use of power: *“I think that employees should be persuaded to participate in change rather than have change forced on them”* [IR20].

6.5 Organisational Structure

This section covers the third of the four themes, regarding the role of organisational structure on the successful implementation of strategic change in the ADP. There was significant agreement among the interviewees that organisational structure was a very important factor which needed to be considered when managing change. Thus, in 2004,

the ADP changed its organisational structure, as the following interview responses make clear:

“In my view organisational structure was changed in 2004 in order to help the ADP to implement its strategy” [IR4].

“It was a great step by the ADP to change its organisational structure in 2004. In my department, this change helped me to have more authority and gave me some space in decision-making” [IR6].

“I think that the organisational structure helps managers to have clear responsibility and communication” [IR8].

“I believe that we have a modern organisational structure which meets best police standards and helps us to do our work effectively” [IR9].

“I am sure that the objective of changing the organisational structure in 2004 was to facilitate the procedures and decision-making” [IR10].

“The main objective of changing the organisational structure was to give employees more authority and responsibility” [IR11].

According to these responses, the main reasons for changing the organisational structure in 2004 were to help the ADP to implement its strategy, to delegate authority, to encourage communication and responsibility and to decentralise decision-making.

Although the interviewees recognised the importance of the reasons for making these changes, however, the actual changes made to the organisational structure were disputed. Thus, some interviewees indicated that the current organisational structure was still affected by the organisation’s military background:

“Despite the changes in 2004, the organisational structure of the ADP can be described as a centralised structure – and it has rigid communication channels. I think that the structure has been affected by the ADP’s military background” [IR1].

“The organisational structure of the ADP has been influenced by military thought, which encourages centralisation and rigid communications between managers and employees” [IR2].

“I can say that the organisational structure of the ADP is influenced by the military regime, where managers prefer rigid communication, centralised decision making and procedures. Therefore, we have to improve the communication system within the ADP at an individual level and encourage informal communication” [IR12].

“The communication style within the ADP has been affected by the military background” [IR7].

For these interviewees, the ADP’s organisational structure was still affected by centralisation and a rigid communication system more suited to a military regime. Regarding rigid communications between departments, one interviewee expressed the problem thus:

“I can say that the organisational structure is like a Roman structure. I mean that every manager his own kingdom and his own way of making changes. Thus, there is no cooperation between them and there is no link between organisational structure and the ADP’s vision” [IR4].

In this respect, a majority of participants cited culture as a key element having a great influence on organisational structure. They believed that cultural background played a critical role in shaping the current organisational structure, leading some managers to prefer centralisation and refuse delegation. These are some typical responses:

“Organisational structure has been affected by our culture, which encourages centralisation and maintains power” [IR3].

“I can see that managers do not like to delegate their authority and love the centralisation of decision-making in order to avoid blame” [IR4].

“Unfortunately, this organisational structure has been affected by our culture, which encourages centralisation” [IR10]

“I can summarise the problem by saying that the organisational structure of the ADP is based on a culture of control” [IR18].

“The organisational structure of the ADP is good. However, this structure has been affected by people’s preference for a centralised structure and formal communication” [IR16].

To sum up, it can be seen from the above interview extracts that the ADP was perceived to have changed its organisational structure in order to facilitate decision-making, encourage communication and delegate authority. However, these features were seen to have been affected by the military and cultural background.

6.6 Organisational Culture

This section examines the final of the four themes. Interviewees were asked what they considered the role of organisational culture to be in the successful implementation of change in the ADP. There was broad agreement that successful change depended on organisational culture. Within this position, the interviewees indicated a number of

cultural factors which they felt it to be important for the ADP to consider in order to implement change successfully. These are analysed in the following six subsections.

6.6.1 Relationships or Networking

A majority of interviewees indicated that relationships constituted a key factor which should be eliminated in order for the ADP to be successful in change. Some responses regarding relationships are presented below:

“Our culture has a great impact on change. I think that the most important characteristic of culture which impedes change is that of relationships. For example, some departments within the organisational structure have been changed in order to create positions for somebody who has a good relationship with the manager. I can say that this behaviour destroys change and development. In order to be successful, this pattern must be eliminated” [IR1].

“In my view, Arab society suffers from a problem which impedes change, which is relationships. Sections are invented for a person, because he has a strong relationship with people who have power in the organisation” [IR2].

“The workplace has been affected by relationships rather than work interest. I mean we should eliminate relationships which impede change. I think that this characteristic is based on our culture, which loves relationships and we do not need to harm anybody. However, we should put work first and relationships second” [IR5].

“I believe that successful change depends on organisational culture. Thus, the ADP must put the right person in the right position based on qualifications rather than personal relationships. By that, I mean we must eliminate bad aspects of relationships which impede change” [IR6].

“Relationships have a great effect on change. Some of the staff who have relationships with those in power can avoid change or destroy change” [IR8].

According to these interviewees, the problem of relationships derives from Arab culture, where maintaining personal relationships is regarded as more important than the interests of the organisation one works for. In this respect, relationships were perceived as being used negatively to impede change within the ADP, such as by awarding positions to people who happened to have good relationships with managers. One interviewee, however, argued that relationships could be used to support change: *“We should not forget there are some advantages of relationships, which can support change such as by helping us to get resources” [IR6].*

6.6.2 Culture of Blame

Another cultural factor identified by some of the participants as impeding change within the ADP was the blame culture:

“Our societies have been affected by a blame culture. We blame the person who makes a mistake. Therefore, many managers prefer to centralise decision-making and do not delegate authority, in order to avoid blame” [IR1].

“In terms of culture, people are afraid to give responsibly or delegate authority in order to avoid the blame culture” [IR7].

“There is a fear of change among staff in order to avoid blame, which leads them to resist change” [IR8].

“Our culture blames us if we make mistakes. Thus, many managers prefer not to delegate authority, in order to avoid blame” [IR13].

“According to my experience in the ADP, employees are frightened to make mistakes in order to avoid blame and maintain face. Thus, people should understand that it is difficult to implement change successfully at first. Some employees say ‘If I make a mistake, my manager will not trust on me in future.’ Therefore, we should change this concept within the ADP” [IR16].

The above responses suggest that Arab culture discourages people from exercising the freedom to make mistakes, which causes some impediments to change, such as managers preferring not to delegate authority and employees being unwilling to take on responsibility in order to avoid blame.

6.6.3 Continual Change

It emerged from discussions with some participants that continual change was not appreciated in Arab culture. One interviewee said:

“I don’t think we can handle any more change initiatives. By this I mean that the ADP has faced many change initiatives such as TQM, e-government and EFQM, which makes employees less confident about change. Therefore, change should be step by step”.

A very similar viewpoint was expressed by another interviewee:

“The ADP faces many change initiatives which cannot be tolerated, such as Government Strategy, EFQM and KPI. Thus, we want to organize these initiatives and to have a clear understanding of them” [IR17].

Another example given by an interviewee was this:

“I think the ADP has an unstable organisational structure which is under constant change. For example, since 2003, it can be said that the structure has been changed more than ten times” [IR14].

This group of interviewees clearly felt that continual change could not be tolerated, as it would make employees less confident about change. Thus, one interviewee suggested that change should be managed in discrete phases in order to be better understood.

6.6.4 Ambiguous Situations

Some interviewees emphasised that change created ambiguous situations, causing employees to be afraid of change and to prefer the status quo, because they did not know how change would affect them. Some typical responses were these:

“It can be said that there is fear among employees about the implementation of change, because they do not understand and know how change will affect them” [IR1].

“There is fear of change and many employees try to keep things as they are, because they do not know how change will affect them” [IR2].

“I believe that there is a fear of change among some managers, because the future is unknown and they do not know how change will affect their work” [IR4].

Thus, some interviewees suggested that the ADP should provide a clear vision and clear plans in order to clarify any ambiguity created by change. One interviewee said,

“There is some fear of change. This is because some change initiatives are ambiguous and employees do not know how change will affect them. Thus, we need a clear vision of change and clear plans to clarify change” [IR9].

Another interviewee stated similar views:

“I think that employees feel that change is ambiguous and there is no clear vision and plan for the change process. Therefore, I believe that we need a vision and plan for change which can help employees to understand how change will affect them” [IR14].

6.6.5 Evaluation Culture

Many interviewees put a considerable emphasis on evaluation, as these contributions indicate:

“Evaluation does not have a place within the ADP. For example, the ADP intends to buy a program which costs a lot of money without an in-depth evaluation of this project. Thus, evaluation has not been taken seriously in the culture” [IR7].

“We do not have an evaluation culture. Our culture considers evaluation as criticism. In order to be successful, the evaluation culture should be improved” [IR8].

“Our culture does not like evaluation systems. This is because we think evaluation means criticism” [IR10].

“In my experience in the ADP I’ve found that Arab culture does not encourage evaluation because it is regarded as personal criticism” [IR12].

As can be seen from the above responses, Arab culture resists evaluation because it is regarded as criticism. Moreover, one interviewee argued that the ADP had started to measure performance but that the measurement was not realistic:

“I would like to say that my police station has a goal this year, to reduce the crime rate by 25% and we have to achieve it. However, the measurement of this goal is unrealistic because this measurement is not based on clear information” [IR14].

6.6.6 Time for Change

Some interviewees also pointed out that Arab culture has a great impact on the time which is needed to achieve change. One said,

“In my experience in the UAE, culture has great effect on the time required for change. For example, staff need to see the result of change as soon as possible, which is impossible. Your people should understand that change takes time and it is difficult to achieve change in one day” [IR4].

A similar point of view was expressed by another interviewee:

“In my view the ADP is dominated by the concept of instantaneous change. I mean that employees want to see the effects of change straight away, which is difficult. Change takes time and people should look to the long term rather than the short term” [IR18].

These opinions indicate that Arab culture leads to an expectation of immediate results from change, so that people are unwilling to wait for a long time to see the results of change. This concept also influences the planned time of change; one interviewee indicated that *“some top managers ask for plans and allow a limited time for preparing the plan. Therefore, in order to be successful in change, sufficient time should be given in order to prepare an appropriate plan” [IR13].*

To sum up this section, interviewees identified a number of aspects of Arab culture which they thought should be considered in order to implement change successfully: relationships are considered more important than work; there is a tendency to blame people for making mistakes; continual change is not tolerated; employees fear change

because it creates ambiguity; evaluation is not taken seriously because it is regarded as criticism; and sufficient time is not given to change.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed the results of interviews with 20 managers and experts in the ADP. It has revealed that interview data is certainly valuable to complement and better understand questionnaire data, as it helps the researcher to explore hidden facts and feelings not so easily elicited by questionnaire.

To summarise the findings, Table 6.2 offers an overall view of the interview responses and this is followed by some synoptic explanation.

Table 6.2: Summary of interview findings

Main themes	Main interview questions	Findings of interviews
Leadership	What is the role of leadership in the successful implementation of change in the ADP?	Senior managers need some skills to be successful in implementing strategic change: (1) plan for future, (2) communicate vision, (3) motivate employees to change, (4) delegate authority, (5) ability to make decision, (6) involve staff in change. Interviewees identified various styles of leadership caused by change: supportive, resistive, neutral and political. This is because there is no common understanding between them about change
Politics and power	What is the role of power and politics in the successful implementation of change in the ADP?	Politics: ADP faces external political pressure from Abu Dhabi government to manage change. Regarding internal politics, some interviewees thought that internal politics supported change; others argued that it impeded change. Power: Three main powers are used to implement change within ADP: position, punishment and reward. These are determined by relationships.
Organisational structure	What is the role of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change in the ADP?	Organisational structure of the ADP can be described as centralisation and rigid communication, compatible with military thought and Arab culture.
Organisational culture	What is the role of organisational culture in the successful implementation of change in the ADP?	Several cultural factors should be considered in order to manage change successfully in the Arab world: relationships are preferred to work interests; Arab culture blames people for mistakes; continual change is not tolerated; employees fear change because it creates ambiguity; evaluation is not taken seriously because it is regarded as criticism; and sufficient time is not given to change.

So far, the qualitative analysis has revealed that the ADP should pay careful attention to leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in order to be successful in change. Generally, the interviewees indicated that these factors should be improved, because they impeded change within the ADP.

It can be observed from interviewees' responses that there were relationships among issues across factors. First, there was a relationship between the delegation / centralisation dichotomy on one hand and blame culture on the other. Interviewees indicated that senior ADP managers preferred to maintain their authority and centralise decision making. This could be related to the fact that Arab culture blames managers who make mistakes, forcing them to refuse delegation and to choose centralisation. In turn, these practices affected the organisational structure, which was described as one of centralisation and rigid communication.

Secondly, a relationship can be found between politics and power on one hand and organisational structure on the other. It appears that senior managers needed positional power or good relationships with those in powerful positions within the organisational structure in order to manage change successfully.

Thirdly, there was a relationship between culture on one hand and power and politics on the other: interviewees indicated that using power and politics depended on relationships. For example, it was said that motivation and punishment were used during change; however, they depended on personal relationships. Also, some employees used relationships as a political tool in order to avoid change.

This brings us to the final point, which is the overlapping nature of the four factors under investigation: leadership, politics and power, organisational structure and organisational culture. Thus, successful change depends on all of them rather than on any one of them. It is worth noting here that these relationships between factors cannot be understood by employing a quantitative approach alone, as much of the detail was revealed by the qualitative approach. In order to have a deeper understanding of these factors, the next chapter will deal with the analysis of documents.

CHAPTER SEVEN: FINDINGS OF DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

In order to supplement the findings of the questionnaire and interviews, this chapter will present the findings from documentary analysis. As indicated in the methodology chapter, the main objective of employing documents in this study was to obtain a better and richer overall picture of critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change in the ADP. The chapter is divided into the two sections, dealing respectively with a description of the documents consulted and with their analysis.

7.2 Description of Documents

The first stage of documentary analysis requires the researcher to identify the appropriate documents to be collected. The present study examined two general sets of documents: internal ADP documents and government reports. The researcher was able to gain access to a number of important documents which were directly related to the subject matter, as can be seen in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Description of Documents

Type of Document	Source	Date	Contents / Description
Strategic Processes Document	ADP Strategic Department	2003	Lists strategic phases within ADP
Job Description - Strategic Department	ADP Strategic Department	2003	Role and responsibilities of Strategic Department
ADP Five-Year Strategic Development Plan 2003-2007	ADP Strategic Department	2003	Strategic plan, vision, mission and values of ADP 2003-2007
Quality Magazine	ADP TQM Department	2005	Quarterly account of ADP quality issues
Police Law	ADP	1998	All articles which employees must comply with
Abu Dhabi Police: Fifty Years of Progress	ADP Strategic Department	2007	Published on the occasion of the 50 th anniversary of the establishment of ADP
Report on Performance of ADP	Abu Dhabi Executive Council	2007	Report of ADP performance based on EFQM model for 2007*
ADP Strategic Plan 2008-2012	ADP Strategic Department	2008	Strategic plan, vision, mission and values of ADP 2008 - 2012
Change Management in the ADP	ADP Strategic Department	2008	Change management phases in ADP
EFQM Submission Report	ADP Strategic Department	2008	Prepared by ADP and submitted to the Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence - Abu Dhabi Government
Report on Performance of ADP	Abu Dhabi Executive Council	2009	Report on performance of ADP based on EFQM model for 2009

7.3 Analysis of Documents

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, these documents were qualitatively analysed by using the six-steps approach of Creswell (2003). They are reviewed here according to the main themes of this study: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture.

7.3.1 Leadership

This analysis begins with several strategic documents, namely the ADP Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003), the ADP Strategic Plan (2008) and Change Management in the ADP (2008). According to these documents, the Commander General of ADP recognised the changes in external environment which required the ADP to have a new vision and strategic plan in order to cope with issues such as

“rapid economic growth in Abu Dhabi and the UAE, increasing cultural mix (with over 200 different nationalities in Abu Dhabi alone), increase in service quality expectations from the community, increase in high income tourism and increase in reported crimes” (Change Management in the ADP, 2008:5).

Therefore, he introduced a ‘new vision’ for the ADP: *“To be the most operationally effective police force possible in one of the safest countries in the world”* (Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003:4). In order to implement this vision, the ADP introduced a strategic plan, outlined in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: ADP Strategic Plans, 2003-2007 and 2008-2012

Strategic Plan 2003-2007	Strategic Plan 2008-2012
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Focusing all our operational effort on maintaining stability, reducing crime and promoting reassurance and safety within our communities. 2. Building the trust and confidence of our communities by effective consultation and effective communication. 3. Improving the quality of our service and of our overall performance. 4. Achieving best value in the delivery of our service. 5. Developing the talents and abilities of all members of ADP to achieve our professional goals. 6. Promoting corporate and individual honesty, ethics & integrity. 7. Providing equipment, buildings and technology which promote the delivery of effective and efficient services 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Controlling crime 2. Making the most of our people through the implementation of the best international practices 3. Increasing community confidence in police and public safety services 4. Maintaining the safety and security of Abu Dhabi 5. Providing all policing operations with functional support

Source: Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003:4) and Strategic Plan for ADP (2008:7)

Further substantiation of the focus of the ADP leadership on vision and strategic planning was provided by an analysis of the reports by the Government of Abu Dhabi in 2007 and 2009. Data from the Report of ADP Performance, based on EFQM, stated that

the ADP leadership had *“developed vision and strategy based on clear procedures through the Total Quality Management Team and then revised by all Departments”* (2007:14). This view was supported by the equivalent report in 2009, which indicated (p. 11) that the leadership had *“developed vision and strategy in participation with departmental managements. Also, the leadership developed new values and culture related to policing behaviours”*.

Thus, these documents showed that the leadership had created a new vision and strategic plan with the participation of all departmental managers and the TQM team in order to help the ADP to adapt to external changes.

Another effort by the leadership towards implementing strategic change within the ADP was the provision of appropriate training and resources. Regarding training, data in the EFQM Submission Report (2008) showed an increase in the proportion of trainees in the ADP from 33.93% in 2005 to 56.27% in 2007, in order to provide the new skills which were required by change projects within the ADP, as can be seen in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: Number of ADP Trainees, 2005 to 2007

Year	Number of Trainees	As a percentage of total ADP employees
2005	8,313	33.93 %
2006	14,124	50.75 %
2007	16,038	56.27 %

Source: EFQM Submission Report (2008:54)

The EFQM Submission Report (2008:7-8) also indicated that considerable attention had been given to improving leadership skills within the ADP at high, middle and lower levels:

“Since 2003, ADP has been providing different levels of leadership training such as programmes in Organisational Excellence, Strategic Planning and Project Management and a Diploma in Change Management, in order to give leaders the skills and abilities to manage change and excellence. Also, ADP sent some leaders at different levels to the United Kingdom, Germany and Malaysia in order to participate in conferences and workshops in Organisational Excellence”.

In addition to providing appropriate training, the ADP leadership allocated sufficient resources to implement change projects. For example,

“they support the implementation of the Comprehensive Police Station Project by providing (1) appropriate human resources, (2) equipment, electronic devices

and techniques, (3) specialized training courses and (4) appropriate data and information” (EFQM Submission Report, 2008:10).

Another indicator of the increasing emphasis of leadership on change was achieved by analysing the motivation policy within ADP, which can be used as strong evidence of the strategic change orientation of the ADP leadership:

“Leaders are working to provide a suitable environment to support and encourage creativity and innovation within ADP. Thus, there are three main awards: (1) Policing Innovation Award, which was launched in 2004 in different fields such as management, security and policing; (2) General Manager of Human Resources Award, which was launched in 2006 and (3) Interior Minister Award for Innovation and Development, which was launched in 2008. The main objectives of these awards are to promote the implementation of the overall strategic goals, encourage the development of work processes and improve the quality of services” (EFQM Submission Report, 2008:4).

It can be seen that there were many awards intended to encourage employee innovation and promote the implementation of strategic goals.

In the last leg of the search for evidence on leadership and change, it was found that the ADP leadership used various methods in order to communicate strategic change to employees. The EFQM Submission Report (2008:11) states that

“Leaders have attempted to communicate messages of change through internal communication tools such as meetings, open-door policy, official correspondence and site visits. For example, the Strategic Department conducted a series of meetings and workshops with departmental managers and sections managers regarding Total Quality Management. Also, liaison officers were appointed to carry out communication with each department”.

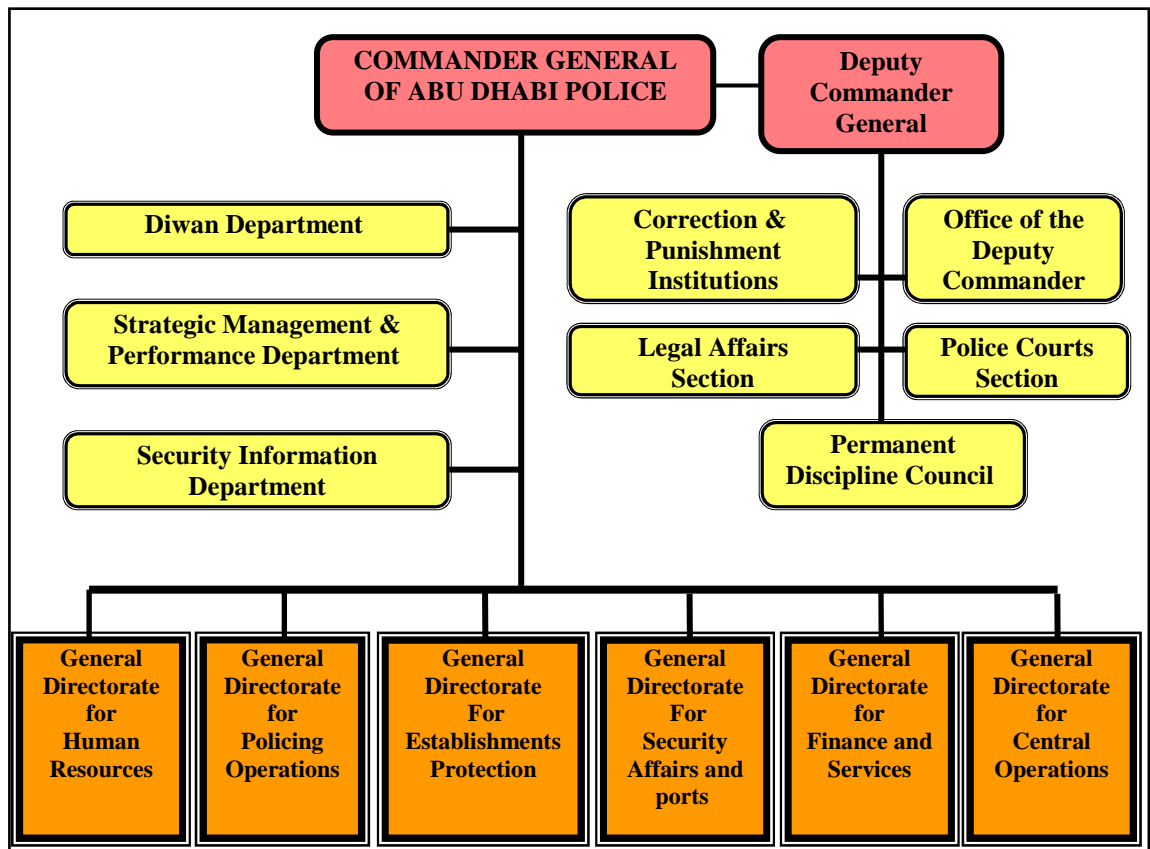
Although ADP leaders have used various methods to communicate change, employees have not understood the strategy, vision and mission. The Feedback Report on ADP Performance (2009:14) states that *“although ADP attempted to communicate the vision, values and mission, there is no clear evidence that employees understand them”*. This view is supported by data in the EFQM Submission Report (2008:19) which showed that

“in 2007, ADP conducted a questionnaire survey in order to measure the understanding of employees of strategy. The result indicated that ADP should pay considerable attention to training and awareness in strategy ...”.

7.3.2 Politics and Power

On the issue of politics and power affecting change in the ADP, this study examined the Change Management document (2008) and Abu Dhabi Police: Fifty Years of Progress (2007), which were expected to provide some useful information. There was, however, limited documentation which contained explicit data on politics and power used in change within the ADP. One of the useful indicators concerning the use of politics in order to manage successful change in the context of Arab organisations, although indirect, was the establishment of the Strategic Department, linked to the Commander General of the ADP and headed by the Director General of the Office of the Minister of the Interior, in order to implement, control and monitor strategic change, as can be seen in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Organisational Structure and Strategic Management & Performance Department



Source: Abu Dhabi Police: Fifty Years of Progress (2007:210)

Thus, the Strategic Department was given a vital role:

“The Department was given responsibility for supervising the process of conducting surveys and organisational studies, with the aim of determining the requirements of strategic development in a manner which achieves the desired organisational goals. Specifically, the Strategic Department was required to identify the operational obstacles faced while applying strategic plans and, in coordination with relevant directorates, devise strategies to overcome these

obstacles. Interestingly, the development and maintenance of an advanced performance management system was placed under the auspices of the Strategic Department. Thus, the Strategic Department was responsible for the overall monitoring of the execution of tasks and ensuring the compliance of Directorates with the requirements and standards of the Quality System.” (Job Description of Strategic Department, 2003:1).

This data shows that the Strategic Department, which is responsible for the implementation of strategy and change projects, is linked to powerful positions within the organisational structure. Furthermore, responsibility for the Strategic Department was given to a person exercising positional power within the organisational structure.

Another important source of information which reflected the politics and power used during the implementation of change was the EFQM Submission Report (2008), which showed that an Organisational Change and Development Committee was established in order to monitor and review the change programmes within the ADP from 2002 to 2009. Members of the committee included the Director of Human Resources and the Director General of the Office of the Minister of the Interior, which indicates the importance of positional power and resource power in the implementation of change within the ADP.

Knowledge power also was considered by the leadership when implementing strategy. For example,

“The ADP has strong cooperation with local and international organisations such as the Dubai Police, the United Kingdom Police and the Singapore Police in order to share experience and knowledge in terms of policing and development” (Report on ADP Performance, 2009:26).

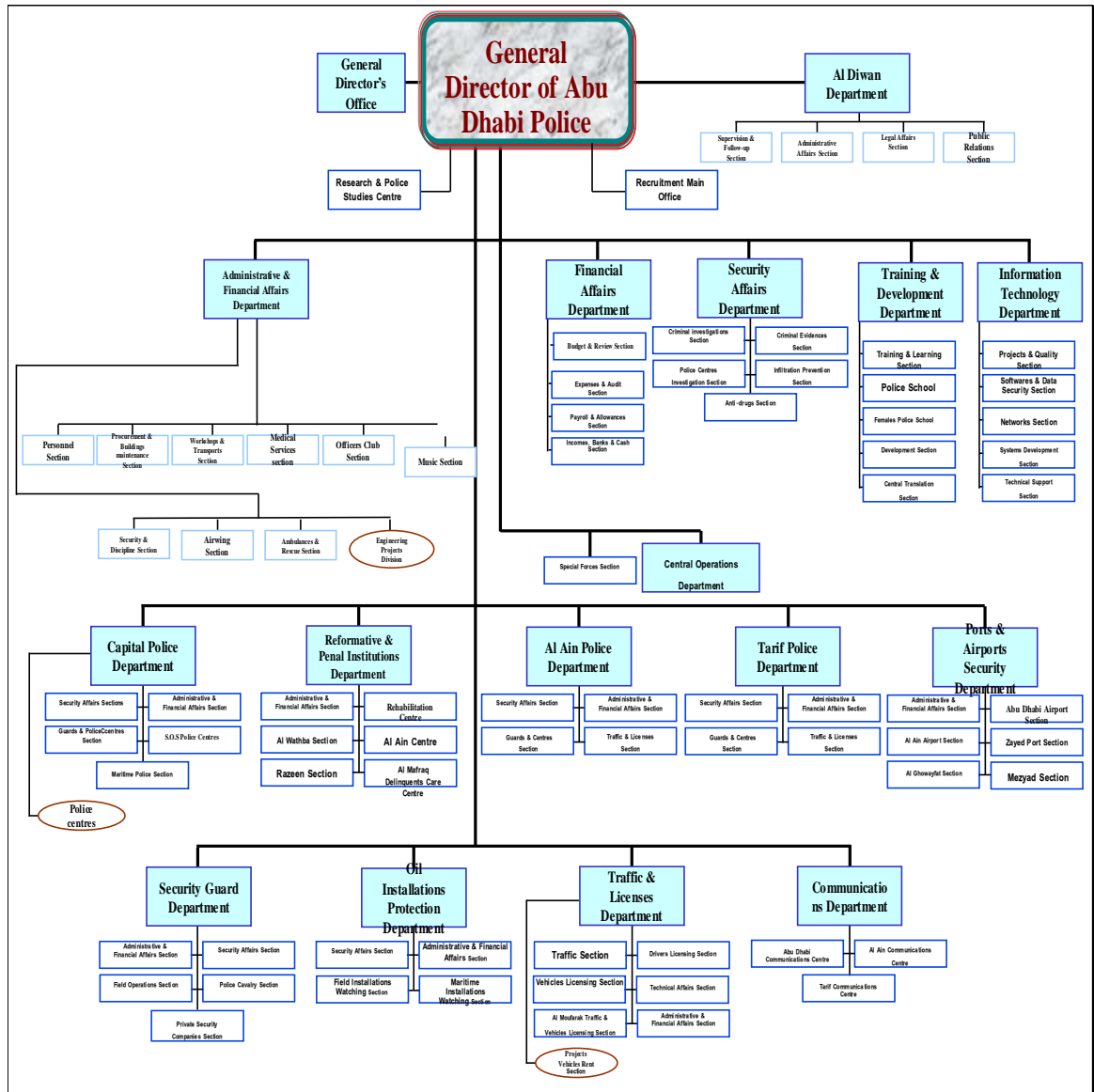
7.3.3 Organisational Structure

From the Strategic Processes Document (2003), the Quality Magazine (2005) and the Change Management Document (2008), it appears that organisational structure was one of the most important factors affecting the implementation of the ADP’s strategy. The documents show that the existing organisational structure constituted a major impediment in the path of the strategic plan of ADP, for the following reasons:

“(1) Centralisation of decision-making, which created a heavy burden on the General Manager of the ADP; (2) lack of clarity in duties and responsibilities; (3) conflict of specialisations among certain departments; (4) non-implementation of a modern policing and security system; and (5) a hierarchical and bureaucratic structure” (Strategic Processes Document, 2003:6).

This former organisational structure is illustrated in Figure 7.2.

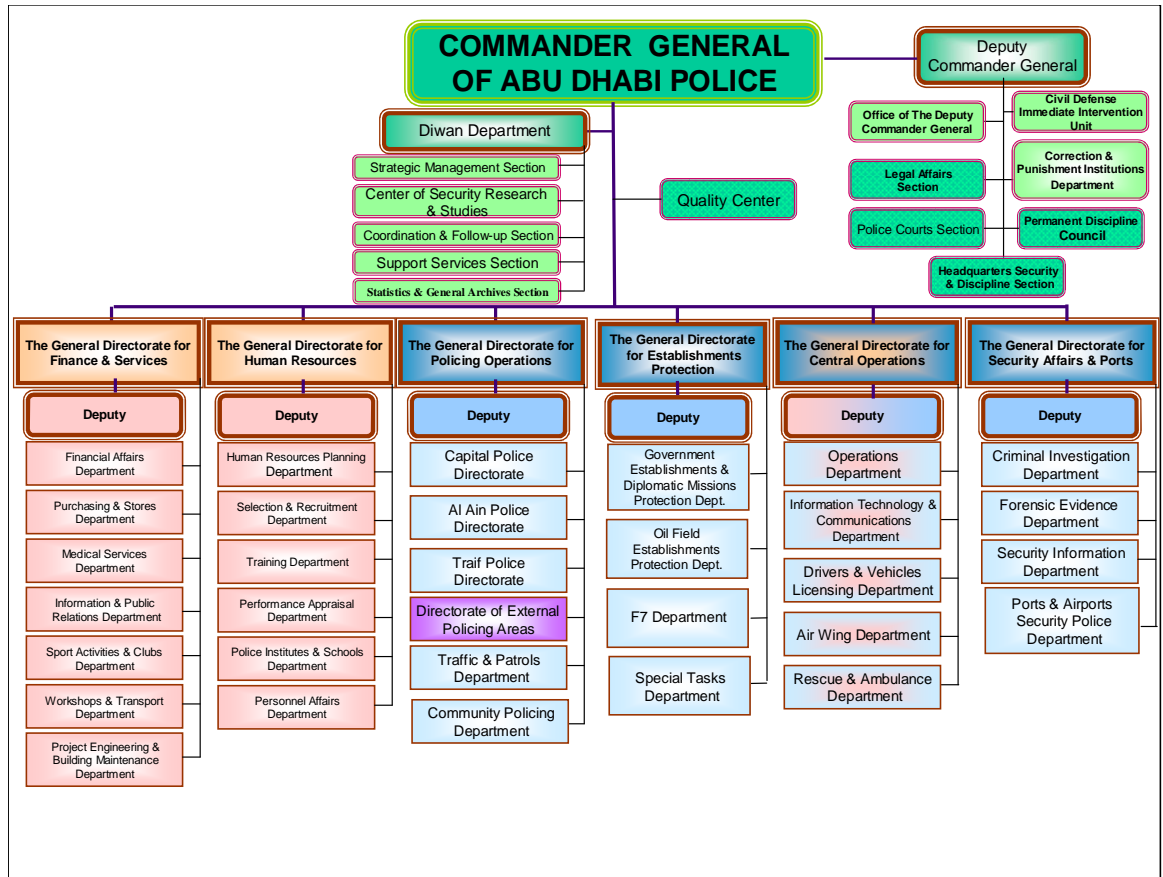
Figure 7.2: Old Organisational Structure of ADP



Source: Strategic Processes Document (2003:7)

Therefore, as the Quality Magazine (2005) and the Change Management Document (2008) report, this organisational structure was reconfigured in 2004 by the Minister of the Interior, who issued Administrative Decree No. 40 declaring that a new organisational structure was to be adopted, in accordance with the modern requirements of crime prevention. This new structure is illustrated in Figure 7.3:

Figure 7.3: New Organisational Structure of ADP



Source: Strategic Processes Document (2003:10)

The Strategic Processes Document (2003:9) indicated that new organisational structure would help the ADP to

“improve decision making styles; eliminate conflicts between departments in terms of key areas of responsibility; improve communication between departments; and ... create new departments such as a Community Policy department and a Human Resources department”.

The document also showed that the new organisational structure was much flatter, as it now had only three levels:

“First, the Leadership and Supervisory level, which specializes in preparing annual organisational plans and formulating general strategies for the AD Police. Second, the Logistics Support level, which contains the Human Resource directorate and the Finance and Services directorate. Third, the Policing and Security level, which contains five directorates: Security Affairs, Central Operations, Police Operations, General Protection and Information Security. This new organisational structure was designed to create effective communication paths between directorates, mainly by clarifying areas of authority and responsibility” (Strategic Processes Document, 2003:7-8).

According to these documents, the ADP thus moved from a rigid organisational structure to a more organic one which would be more appropriate to the implementation of its strategy.

7.3.4 Organisational Culture

As with the politics and power factor, there was limited documentation containing explicit data about organisational culture and how this affected the implementation of change at the ADP in the context of Emirati society. However, the researcher examined two strategic documents, namely the Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003) and the ADP Strategic Plan (2008), revealing some useful information regarding the values shared by ADP employees, which are important in shaping culture. These documents showed that since 2003, the Commander General of the ADP had attempted to create and instil new values in employees in order to implement strategic change, as can be seen in Table 7.4:

Table 7. 4: Values of the ADP

Seven Values for 2003-2007	Values for 2008-2012
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Honesty and integrity. 2. Delivering a fair and equitable service to all members of our community. 3. Treating the people we serve and each other fairly and courteously. 4. Encouraging and reward innovation. 5. Recognizing and valuing individual hard work and corporate achievement. 6. Promoting teamwork. 7. The pursuit of excellence in all we do. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We will maintain our integrity at a high level at all times, including our concern for human rights. 2. We will deliver a fair and courteous service to our community. 3. We recognise and value individual and corporate achievement, by promoting teamwork and encouraging innovation. 4. We recognise that effective communication with our staff and stakeholders is of paramount important to achieve our objectives. 5. We will pursue excellence in all we do and ensure that our activities are measurably effective and efficient.

Source: ADP Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003:7) and ADP Strategic Plan (2008:6).

The values listed in the table show that the ADP placed much emphasis on fairness, justice and integrity. This view was derived from the Director General of the Office of the Minister of the Interior, who stated that “*achieving a safer community where justice and equity prevail is not an easy mission. No doubt it needs following up, exerting efforts and devising applicable strategies*” (Strategic Plan for ADP, 2008:4). Thus, the leadership showed a strong desire to eliminate nepotism, which is common in Arab societies (where it is called *wasta*), by placing emphasis on the need for the ADP to treat the people its serves and its own employees fairly and courteously. This view is sanctioned in the Police Law (1998):

“Any employee who intervenes or accepts any intervention in regard to the police function and its effect on the public interest shall be punished by a reduction in salary for a period not exceeding one month or imprisonment for the same period” (Article 13).

In addition to the values of fairness, justice and integrity, the ADP was also found to pay considerable attention to other values which were perceived as necessary to implement its strategy, such as encouraging and rewarding innovation in order to eliminate undesirable aspects of the current situation, promoting teamwork and ensuring effective communication with the staff. Thus, the ADP was attempting to imbue its employees with new values not normally found in Arab culture, as indicated by Hofstede (1991).

Another important source of information regarding the organisational culture was the ADP strategic plan. It has been argued (Furnham, 2005; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Mead, 2005) that in many Muslim societies, the long-term perspective is seen as inappropriate because Muslims tend to believe that only *Allah* can foresee the future. Planning is thus always subject to the will of God and change may be viewed as unnecessary or in the hands of God, so that people tend to prefer the status quo. However, the ADP’s Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003) and the Strategic Plan (2008) showed that the ADP had five-year strategic plans for the future (see section 7.3.1). It can be said that having faith that the future is in the hands of *Allah* does not mean that Muslim societies do not pay attention to strategic planning.

Schneider and Barsoux (2003) also argue that monitoring the implementation of organisational change is not taken seriously in these societies, where time is perceived as unlimited and flexible. However, data from the EFQM Submission Report (2008) showed that there were indicators to measure strategic initiatives and that specific times had been allocated to achieving strategic objectives, as can be seen in Table 7.5:

Table 7.5: Strategic objectives and their measurement

Strategic Objectives	Initiatives	Time	Indicators	Goal	Year Goal
Control crime	Reduce and detect organised crime	1/01/2008 to 31/12/2008	Number of arrests in organised crime cases	80%	(2/100)%
Make the roads safer	Distribute enough patrols in accident spots by using information systems	1/01/2008 to 31/12/2008	Number of road accidents and injuries	75%	(2/100)%

Source: EFQM Submission Report (2008:65)

Although the ADP specified the measurement of its strategic objectives and limited time to achieve them, the Report on ADP Performance (2009:20) indicated that there was limited evidence of the effectiveness of the mechanism used to review its strategy.

In terms of religion in the workplace, the Report on ADP Performance (2009:25) states that the ADP organised “*many social activities for its employees, such as visits to holy places in Mecca*” and that it also provided “*breakfast for people in the street during Ramadan*”.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of a qualitative analysis of ADP and government documents. The use of documents was valuable in supplementing and enriching the questionnaire and interview findings. The documents were analysed in terms of the following themes: leadership, politics and power, organisational structure and organisational culture.

Available documentary evidence shows that the Commander General of the ADP has paid considerable attention to strategic change by creating a new vision for the ADP. There was evidence that executive managers had placed strong emphasis on implementing this vision. Thus, this study observed that substantial efforts were made in terms of planning, resources and training, communication, motivation policy and changes to the organisational structure in order to implement the ADP’s strategic plans for 2003-2007 and 2008-2012.

On the roles of power and politics and of organisational culture in change, the documents that have been reviewed show that these factors had considerable implications for change. It is clear from the documents that power and politics were used positively during change; as for organisational culture, there was a tendency towards planning for the future, eliminating nepotism which is common in Arab societies (where it is called *wasta*) and changing thought. A summary of the findings discussed in this chapter is presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6: Summary of Findings

Themes	Key Findings
Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Command of ADP has created a new vision. • Strong commitment from executive leadership to change by establishing a strategic plan, training, allocating resources, motivation to change and communication.
Power and Politics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power and politics were used positively during change. • Establishing strategic department linked to the General Command of ADP within organisational structure, which represents positional power. • Establishing Organisational Change and Development Committee headed by Director General of the Office of the Minister of the Interior and Director General of Human Resources, representing positional and resource power. • Knowledge power also was considered by leadership.
Organisational Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 2004, ADP changed organisational structure in order to implement its strategy. • New structure helped ADP to improve decision-making, eliminate conflicts between departments in terms of key areas of responsibility, improve communication between departments and create new departments such as Community Policy and Human Resources.
Organisational Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Command of ADP attempts to build new values for change. • There is a tendency to eliminate <i>wasta</i> by instilling value of fairness in employees. • New values also were considered in strategic plan, such as teamwork, communication and innovation. • There is a tendency to plan for the future and measure progress. • Religion in the workplace is emergent.

The next chapter will discuss the findings of the questionnaire, interviews and documentary analysis in the light of existing theory and published studies, examining whether the present research results are consistent with each other and with those of other studies. It will also consider the extent of the applicability of change management theory to the Middle Eastern context in general and the UAE in particular.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

Given the high failure rates of change management (Guimaraes and Armstrong 1998; Hartley, 2002; Burnes, 2003; Todnem, 2005; Werkman, 2009), there is a strong need to examine the change management field in order to identify factors that may help to reduce such failure (Appelbaum et al. 1998; Underwood-Stephens and Cobb, 1999; Weber and Weber, 2001; Burnes, 2003; Chrusciel and Field, 2006; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Zhang et al., 2009). Additionally, the literature shows that most models of change management have so far been designed for private sector organisations and ignore the need to develop approaches which are compatible with the public sector's circumstances and culture – hence calls for more research into change management in the public sector (Coram and Burnes 2001; Greasley et al. 2009; Werkman, 2009). Moreover, Walker et al. (2007) argue that there is little research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success and on interactions among them. An overview of the literature on change implementation indicates that there is need to examine these factors in depth, to help to implement successful change (see Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham 2008; Greasley et al. 2009).

This study has therefore attempted to respond to the call for more research in change management, particularly in the Middle East, by examining the roles and relationships of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and culture in the successful implementation of strategic change in the public sector in the UAE, taking the Abu Dhabi Police as a case study. It is useful at this point to repeat the five research questions: What is the role of leadership in the successful implementation of change? What are the roles of power and politics in the successful implementation of change? What is the role of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change? What is the role of organisational culture in the successful implementation of change? What are the relationships among these factors?

To achieve the objectives of this study, a mixed methods approach was taken, in which a questionnaire, interviews and documentary analysis were used to gather data. The questionnaire was administered to 450 employees of the ADP in order to gauge their views concerning the main themes of the study. The interviews, on the other hand, were conducted with 20 managers and experts in change management, in order to gather their

perceptions and experience of change management in the ADP. Finally, documents were analysed in order to supplement the questionnaire and interview findings. The overall findings are summarised in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Summary of Findings

Themes	Methods		
	Questionnaire	Interviews	Documents
Leadership	Overall, employees tended to be neutral with regard to leadership items (Mean=2.9366; SD=.677)	Senior managers need some skills to be successful in implementing strategic change: (1) planning for future, (2) communicating vision, (3) motivating employees to change, (4) delegating authority, (5) making decisions and (6) trusting staff and involving them in change. Interviewees identified various styles of leadership responses to change: supportive, resistive, neutral and political. Thus, is common understanding about change	1. General Command of ADP creates new vision and values 2. Strong commitment from top leadership to change though establishing strategic plan, training and allocating resources to implement strategy, motivate employees to change and communicate change to employees.
Power and Politics	Overall, employees agreed with the power and politics items (Mean=3.9516; SD=.407)	Politics: ADP faces external political pressure from government to manage change. On internal politics, interviewees fall into two main groups, believing that internal politics supports/impedes change. Power: three main powers are used to implement change within ADP: Positional power, punishment power and reward power.	1. Power and politics were used positively during change. 2. Establishing strategic department linked to the General Command within organisational structure, which represents positional power 3. Establishing Organisational Change & Development Committee headed by senior men representing positional and resource power. 4. Knowledge power also considered by leadership
Organisational Structure	Overall, employees agreed with the organisational structure items (Mean=3.2253; SD=.491)	Organisational structure of ADP can be described as centralisation and rigid communication, which is compatible with military thought and Arab culture.	1. ADP changed organisational structure in 2004 in order to implement its strategy. 2. New structure helps ADP to improve decision making; eliminate conflicts between departments over areas of responsibility; improve communication between departments; and create new departments such as Community Policy and Human Resources
Organisational Culture	Overall, employees agreed with the organisational culture items (Mean=3.7915; SD=.591)	Several cultural factors should be considered in order to manage change successfully in Arab world: (1) relationships are preferred over work interest; Arab culture blames people who make mistakes; continual change is not tolerated; employees fear change because it creates ambiguity; evaluation is not taken seriously because it is regarded as criticism; sufficient time is not given to change.	1. ADP General Command attempts to build new values for change. 2. Attempts to eliminate <i>wasta</i> by instilling value of fairness. 3. New values also considered in strategic plan such as teamwork, communication and innovation. 4. There is a tendency to plan for future and measure progress. 5. Religion is valued at work.

The main objectives of this chapter are to discuss the empirical findings in the light of existing theory and published studies, to examine whether the present results are consistent with each other and with those of earlier studies and to assess the extent of applicability of change management theory to the Middle East context in general and to the UAE in particular.

8.2 Discussion

In general, it is notable from the findings of the study that change management within the ADP was led and managed in a manner which resembles approaches promoted in the Western academic literature, in the sense that it was holistic, based around a clearly articulated vision and set of objectives, centred on the culture of the organisation, led from the top, carefully planned, informed by organisational diagnostics and long-term in outlook. In other words, the findings indicate that the ADP adopted a planned approach where change was seen as an interactive, cyclical process requiring analysis, action, evaluation, and further action and evaluation in order to improve the effectiveness of the human side of the organisation (Coram and Burnes, 2001). This general finding can be explained in terms of Arab culture, which is dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance, so that people need to see detailed plans to resolve ambiguous situations created by change (Mead, 2005; Rees and Althakhri, 2008). The quantitative results confirm this position, in that a great majority of employees agreed with this statement: “A detailed plan is required in order to manage change successfully” (mean=4.345). The qualitative interviews also provide support. This finding confirms previous studies such as that of Rees and Althakhri (2008), who indicate that a planned approach to change might be suitable in the context of the Middle East. This may have a theoretical implication for the Middle East, that a planned approach should be considered to implement successful change. Additionally, Maddock (2002) states that a top-down approach to change is preferred in public sector organisations.

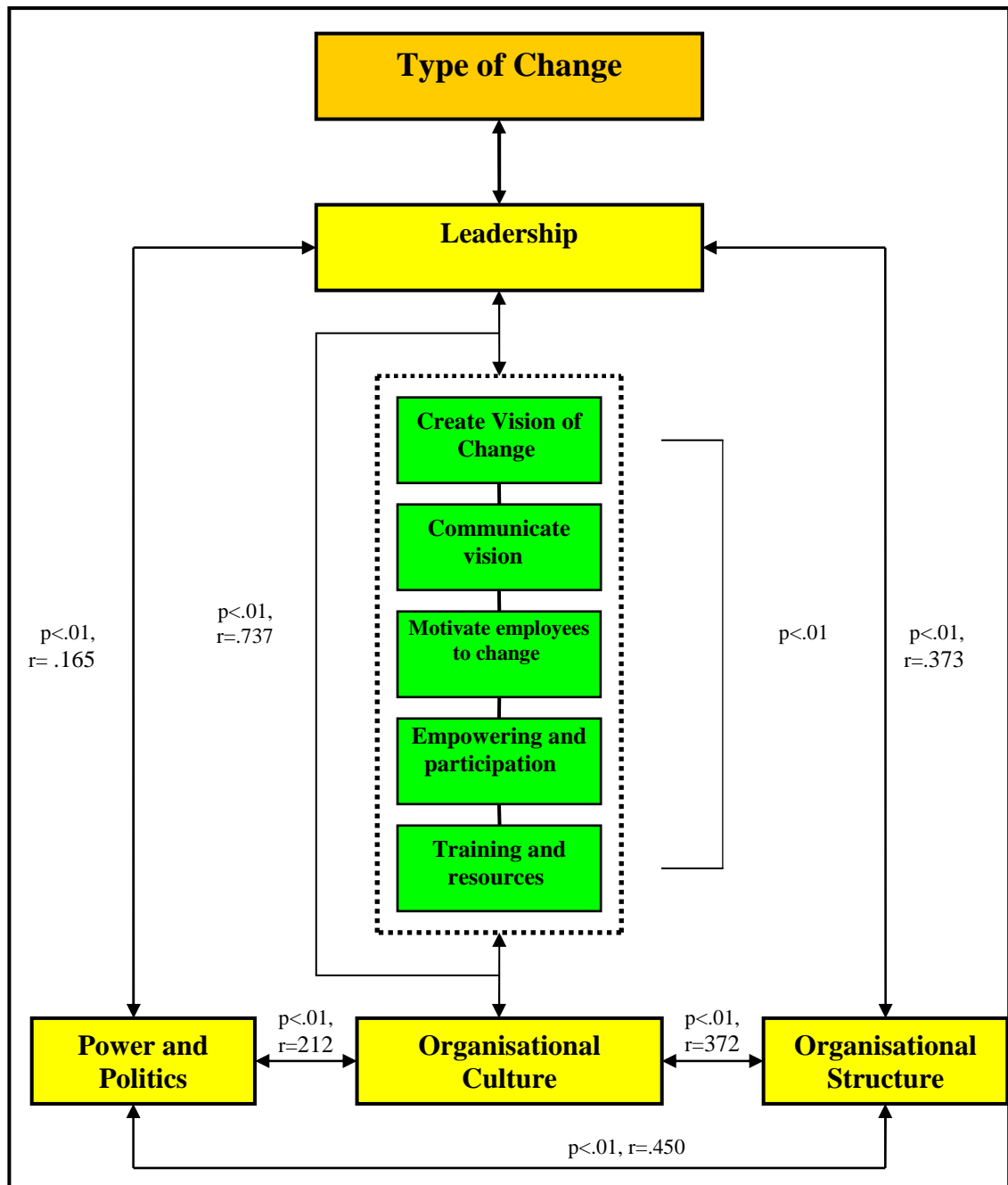
The qualitative findings also reveal, however, that a majority of respondents (60.6%) disagreed that the ADP was good at implementing change. It was also found that although most participants were familiar with the strategic plan, vision, mission and values of the ADP (79.5%, 77.6%, 80.4% and 85.6% respectively), a majority tended to be neutral or to disagree that these were clear. Documentary analysis confirms this position, showing that “although the ADP attempted to communicate the vision, values and mission, there is no clear evidence that employees understand them” (Report on

Performance of ADP, 2009:14). This is in line with the finding of Ryan et al. (2008) that applying a top-down change strategy might lead to lower levels not sharing senior management's commitment to change and seeking to preserve the status quo. It also supports the statement of Coram and Burnes (2001) that a planned approach to change has been criticized as lacking clarity.

The results of the study regarding the critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change and the relationships among these factors support the proposed conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 3.1 and reproduced in Figure 8.1. The results of the survey show that successful change was considered to require considerable attention to the following factors: leadership (77.2%), power and politics (64.1%), organisational structure (70.2%) and organisational culture (72.1%). The interviewees were also found to take similar positions. The survey result showed that there were positive correlations among these factors at a significance level of $p < .01$, as can be seen in Figure 8.1. This means that the higher the perception of the importance of one of the factors, the higher the perception of the importance of the other factors. The nature of this relationship may be explained by previous studies (e.g. Burnes, 2004a) which indicate that successful change depends on these factors.

Therefore, the data collection methods of this study were based on the factors represented in the conceptual framework. The results of the investigation of these factors are presented in the subsections below.

Figure 8.1: Conceptual framework with correlations



8.2.1 Leadership

It is generally argued (Kotter, 1996; Zeffane, 1996; Landrum et al., 2000; Higgs and Rowland, 2000; 2001; Kanter, 2000; Taylor-Bianco and Schermerhorn, 2006; Wren and Dulewicz, 2005; Karsten et al., 2009) that leadership represents an important factor in the determination of the success of change management. This research corroborates these findings by showing that there was agreement that leadership was one of the most important factors which should be considered by the ADP in order to implement change successfully (77.2%).

An examination of the relevant literature (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Eisenbach et al., 1999; Burke, 2002; Caldwell, 2003; Gill, 2003; Cameron and Green, 2004; James, 2005) showed that leaders should have certain skills in order to implement successful change. These are: (1) creating a clear vision of change, (2) communicating change, (3) participation and involvement in change, (4) providing training and resources to implement change, (5) delegating authority to carry out change and (6) motivating employees to change. The survey found a relationship between these skills at a significance level of $p < .01$.

The qualitative results tended to agree with these skills of leadership, but interviewees pointed out that change management within in the context of ADP gave rise to many styles of leadership: supportive, resistive, neutral and political. Thus, the qualitative findings show that the top leaders of ADP paid considerable attention to change. The findings of both interviews and documentary analysis reveal that the ADP's top leaders created a new vision of the ADP, instilled new values such as fairness, justice and integrity, encouraged dissatisfaction with the status quo, rewarded innovation and teamwork, communicated effectively with staff, established five-year strategic plans with the participation of all departmental managers, provided appropriate training and resources, motivated staff to change and communicated change to employees. In general, the survey results were similar, as employees tended to agree that key executives encouraged change within the organisation (mean=3.56). This is an interesting finding, as the results seem to suggest that the style of leadership adopted by the top managers of the ADP in the context of UAE culture was transformational. In general, this result is inconsistent with many previous studies (Ali, 1995; Shahin and Wright, 2004; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Sabri, 2007; Yasin and Saba, 2008), which indicated that Arab culture is dominated by autocratic leadership. This new finding can be explained by other studies such as that of Brain and Lewis (2004), which indicated that transformational leadership can work effectively in collectivist cultures such as those found in the Middle East. This might have some theoretical implications for Middle East studies, suggesting that transformational leadership can be effective in a Middle Eastern context.

Additionally, the interview findings show that senior ADP managers were perceived not to be as effective as they might be in implementing change because they lacked skills in

planning for the future, communicating vision, motivating employees to change, delegating authority, making decisions and involving staff in change.

This differentiation between two types of leadership in terms of change which appeared to exist in the context of the ADP might be explained by public sector culture. Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) and James (2005) state that within the public sector there is a clash between the need for change in the bureaucratic structure in order to increase flexibility and innovation, thus coping better with the changing demands of the environment on one hand, and the desire to maintain the standards and procedures that are important for quality of civic services for a diverse range of stakeholders on the other.

However, the questionnaire survey explains the characteristics of effective change leadership in more detail. Thus, the results show that participants had a neutral or negative position on these characteristics as follows. First, employees of ADP tended to disagree with the statement that “managers create a clear vision of the future and plan” (mean=2.89). This finding can be explained by interview findings which indicate that senior ADP managers were seen to concentrate on daily work rather than strategic plans and communicating their vision to employees. The survey results also show strong agreement with the notion that managers interfered in their employees’ work (mean=3.75). This result supports those of previous studies conducted in the Middle East (e.g. Shahin and Wright, 2004; Sabri, 2007), which found that a bureaucratic leadership style existed within Middle Eastern culture and that leaders focused on rules, regulations and procedures. Similarly, Ryan et al. (2008) found that a top-down approach to change leads managers to intervene in the day-to-day aspects of work. However, previous studies also show that the role of management is essential in managing successful change (Caldwell 2003; Gill, 2003; James, 2005; Kotter, 2008).

Second, employees of ADP disagreed that “managers encouraged participation and involved employees in change” (mean=2.59). This finding corroborates past research in the Middle East (e.g. Ali, 1995; Anwar and Chaker, 2003; Sabri, 2007; Yasin and Saba, 2008) which found that Arab culture adopts a top-down approach in terms of decision-making. However, it contradicts other research in the Middle East (e.g. Ali et al. 1997; Darwish, 1998) which found that managers tended to prefer consultative and participative decision styles. Thus, Mead (2005) indicates that subordinates expect to

receive detailed plans for change from managers without necessarily participating in the decision-making process. This result also confirms previous studies in the public sector (e.g. Maddock, 2002) which found that front-line employees were excluded from change processes.

This second finding can be explained by interview data suggesting that the ADP was seen to be facing radical change. This corroborates published studies (e.g. Dunphy and Stace, 1993; Waldersee and Griffiths, 2004; Palmer et al., 2006) which found that transformational change was unlikely to be supported even with consultation; thus it should be directive and less participative. However, the finding is not consistent with other studies (e.g. Cereste et al., 2003; James, 2005; Appelbaum et al., 2008) indicating that coercive leadership is an unacceptable way to manage change, while a participative style with greater communication and involvement was perceived as a better way to manage transformational change.

Third, employees of ADP disagreed that “employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change” (mean=2.71). This result is compatible with some earlier studies such as that of Sabri (2007), which showed that the Arab work environment is dominated by a prevailing power culture. Thus, Abdah (2006) indicates that one of the main problems in organisational development in Jordan was that managers did not delegate authority to employees. The survey finding can be explained by interview responses suggesting that Arab culture is strongly critical of those who make mistakes, which causes some impediments to change, such a reluctance by managers to delegate authority and a corresponding unwillingness by employees to take any responsibility in order to avoid blame. This finding is consistent with those of studies such as that of Shahin and Wright (2004), who found Arab culture to be influenced by bureaucratic power and a consequent blame culture, whereby when things go wrong, blame is attributed to other people for their mistakes and for a failure to follow rules. Similarly, Maddock (2002) indicates that there are many elements of public sector culture which can impede change, including a blame response to error. Another explanation suggested by the interview data was that managers did not trust their employees to carry out change. This is supported by questionnaire analysis showing that ADP employees tended to give neutral and negative responses to the item “My manager shows complete confidence in employees’ ability to carry out delegated tasks” (mean=3.032).

Fourth, in terms of communicating change to employees, the survey results show that the majority of employees agreed that managers used various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when they needed to communicate the required change (mean=3.53). The interview findings contradict this, however, suggesting that senior managers were not able to communicate a vision of change to employees. The documentary analysis confirms the interview finding, by showing that although leaders of the ADP used various methods to communicate change, their employees did not understand the strategy, vision or mission. These findings can be explained by the hierarchal structures which dominate Arab organisations (Ali, 1995; Sabri, 2007). Another explanation is that a top-down approach to change tends to encourage one-way communication from the top and causes a lack of commitment to change (Ryan et al, 2008). This is supported by survey results which reveal that ADP employees tended to disagree that managers listen to subordinates' views about change (mean=2.99). This finding is in line with previous studies conducted in the Middle East (e.g. Alzni, 1994; Alamri and Alfawsan, 1997; Alazam, 2002; Abdah, 2006) which showed that Arab organisations needed to improve communication channels between managers and staff in order to implement organisational development. Thus, responses to the questionnaire item "My manager listens to subordinates' views about change" correlated moderately positively with those to "My manager tries to create commitment to the change project" ($r=.611$). This indicates that the more a manager listens to employees' views, the greater is the commitment to change.

Fifth, there was an area of contradiction in terms of motivation to change. Respondents disagreed that employees were well motivated to implement change in the workplace (mean=2.391) and the interview findings supported this result by showing that senior managers needed to motivate their employees to change. However, the documentary analysis contradicted the questionnaire and interview data by revealing that the ADP had introduced a new policy of motivation. This finding can be explained by interview findings suggesting that rewards are affected by Arab culture, where relationships determine how rewards can be used. Thus, those who have good connections can be rewarded, but others cannot.

Finally, there was agreement that managers provided training (mean=3.20) and resources (mean=3.31) to implement change, in contradiction with previous research conducted in the Middle East (e.g. Almuslimani, 1999; Alomari, 2000; Aldkasma,

2000), which found that one of the main problems in change was a lack of financial and other resources to support change programmes. This finding can be explained by the economy of the UAE, which is one of the strongest in Arab world, so that the government had no problem in supporting any change projects, regardless of the expenditure.

However, when the *t*-test statistics were calculated for the above elements of effective change leadership in order to compare scores between police officers and police men, significant differences were found on the sub-themes of vision to change, communicating change, participation, delegation and motivation. These differences in views can be explained by the fact that officers are closer to the top and senior managers of the ADP than lower ranking police men. This finding confirms those of previous studies (e.g. Ryan et al., 2008) that applying a top-down approach to change cause it to fail at the lower levels of the organisation where communication is poor. On the other hand, there were no significant differences between males and females on these sub-themes.

As can be seen from the above, most of these findings can be explained by cultural factors. The survey revealed a strong correlation between leadership and cultural factors ($r = .737$) at a significance level of $p < .01$. The nature of this correlation might be explained by previous studies (e.g. Yousef, 1998; Francesco and Gold, 1998; Francesco and Gold, 1998; Robins, 2003) which indicate that leadership is affected by culture.

The survey also revealed a correlation between the factors of leadership and power and politics at a significance level of $p < .01$. The nature of this relationship can again be explained by earlier studies (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Buchanan and Badham 2008) which reveal that leaders need to play a political role in order to be successful in change. It has also been stated that power and politics are among the most important elements of change leadership (Burnes, 2004a; Cameron and Green, 2004). Thus, this factor will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

8.2.2 Power and Politics

The review of the literature reported in chapter two revealed that the role of power and politics in organisational change had been not explored adequately. Buchanan and Badham (2008) indicate that there are three academic positions on power and politics:

First, some commentators reject any connection between organisational change and politics, stating that conflict within change is the result of poor communication rather than politics. Others accept that change agents should be aware of politics but should avoid personal involvement, which is regarded as unethical. Finally, some accept that change agents should adopt a political role, but existing theory offers little guidance on how to deal with politics. Therefore, the paucity of studies on power and politics in change restricts the extent to which the present study can compare its results with other empirical research.

Almost two-thirds (64.1%) of the respondents to the questionnaire agreed that power and politics were among the most important factors to be considered by the ADP in order to implement change successfully. Interview results confirmed this view, revealing politics and power as among the most important factors which can be used to support or impede change. These results are consistent with several recent findings (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Dawson, 2003; Carnall, 2003; Buchanan and Badham 1999; 2008) which indicate that the role of power and politics should be considered in order to manage successful change. The discussion of these findings below is divided between two subsections, dealing respectively with power and with politics.

8.2.2.1 Power

A review of the literature on the subject of power suggests that change managers should have the ability to exercise power effectively; otherwise employees may be unwilling to comply (Graetz et al. 2002). It has been found (Robbins, 2003; Graetz et al., 2002) that there are two major sources of power which can be employed in the change process, these being formal (coercive, reward, legitimate and information powers) and personal (expert, referent and charismatic powers).

The interview findings in the present study placed emphasis on the need for positional power within the organisational structure to achieve successful change in the context of the ADP, to a greater extent than knowledge power or reward power. The findings of documentary analysis also show that the Strategic Department, responsible for the implementation of strategy and change projects, was linked to positional power within the organisational structure. The results of the survey support these findings by showing that a majority of participants agreed that legitimate (i.e. position-based) power was one

of the most important types of power required in managing change successfully (mean=4.04). This finding is in line with studies such as that of Ryan et al. (2008), who found that a top-down approach to change received further support from the growing popularity of transformational leadership theory, which offers an assurance that leaders in positions of high authority can change their organisations. This finding can be explained by the results of interviews which reveal that the ADP had undergone radical change imposed by the external politics of the Abu Dhabi government, which led managers to use their positions to implement change. Another explanation might be culture, which determines what appropriate types of power are employed (Robbins, 2003). It has been found (Sabri, 2007; Yasin and Saba, 2008; Harris et al., 2003) that Middle Eastern culture is characterised by high power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance, which underpin an authoritarian culture in the context of Middle East. Ford (2006) however indicates that planned change has a high rate of failure, estimated at 70 per cent, with less than 10 per cent ascribed to technical factors. This is because this approach depends on positional power in order to initiate and manage change.

In addition to legitimate power, the interview findings reveal that punishment and reward power were also used in order to encourage employees to change. Similarly, the documents reveal that knowledge power was used to encourage development and change within the ADP, while the survey findings show that at a significance level of $p < .01$, legitimate power was correlated positively with coercive power, with knowledge power and with reward power. The nature of these relationships among types of power might be explained by the study of Buchanan and Badham (2008), who found that a change manager who has legitimate power can enhance other types of power. Thus, legitimate power supports the use of other sources of power such as punishment, reward and knowledge.

The interviews raised an interesting finding, which was that the cultural factor of relationships determined what types of power would be used: reward or punishment. The questionnaire results show that responses to the item "Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department" were positively correlated with those to the item "Effective change is rewarded in this organisation" ($r = .205$). This relationship can be explained by the findings of studies such as that of Hofstede (1991), who found that in societies dominated by collectivism such as in the Middle East, motivation and reward were often based on being part of the group rather than on

individual merit. Buchanan and Badham (2008) also state that power is embedded in social and cultural norms and in routine practices.

It has been observed that although Arab culture encourages authoritarianism, there is a tendency towards persuading employees to change, rather than imposing change on them, as the interviews indicated. The survey confirmed this position, showing a tendency to disagree with this item: “Coercive power (i.e. threat-based) can be important to implement successful change” (mean=2.980).

8.2.2.2 Politics

It has also been found (Carnall, 2003; Buchanan and Badham, 1999; 2008) that successful change requires change managers to recognise and improve their skills in employing a variety of political tactics. The survey findings therefore reveal that there was strong agreement on these items: “Managers need good political skills to implement change successfully in this organisation” (mean=4.38) and “Managers have to be quite crafty to introduce change successfully in this organisation (mean=4.38). The interview results seem to agree as well; however, they indicate that the ADP was influenced by the external political power of the Abu Dhabi government. This confirms the findings of a previous study which indicated that change in the public sector is more difficult than in the private sector because the external political environment places additional requirements on public sector bodies (Greasley et al., 2009).

In addition, the interview findings reveal that politics played both positive and negative roles during change within the ADP. In terms of its positive role, interviewees suggested that successful change within the ADP depended on building good relationships with managers having positional and resource power. The survey respondents took a similar position, generally agreeing with these items: “Change requires managers to control organisational resources to implement change” (mean=4.106) and “Change requires legitimate power (i.e. position-based)” (mean=4.04). This finding is consistent with some previous research (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Buchanan and Badham, 2008; Cunningham and Kempling, 2009) which suggests that networking and making friends with power brokers are common political tactics used in change. Interview results also indicate another political tactic that was used in order to implement change: changing the organisational structure by moving some departments from important to unimportant positions in order to avoid resistance to change. This

finding also supports previous research such as that by Buchanan and Badham (2008), who found that bending the rules to fit the situation was a political tactic commonly employed in change.

As for the negative role of politics, the interview findings reveal that some political tactics were used to block change within the ADP. This is confirmed by survey results which indicate that politics could be used to slow down or block change initiatives (mean=3.79). These findings corroborate previous research (e.g. Buchanan and Badham, 1999) which found that politics could restrict the achievement of organisational performance. One of the interesting findings of the interviews was that some managers did not put the right person in the right place. This political tactic might not be found in Western organisations, which tend to be dominated by individualism, whereas Arab organisations are dominated by collectivism, so that relationships and favouritism determine the position (Ali, 1995). Additionally, the survey results identify some political tactics which were used to block change within the ADP, as respondents tended to agree with these items: “One of the main sources of resistance to change in this organisation is employees trying to defend their personal power and interests” (mean=3.83), “Communication about change is limited to those directly concerned with the project” (mean=3.81) and “Good ideas for change are often hidden and then used to promote personal agendas” (mean=3.96). Thus, this type of politics was seen to create a winners-and-losers culture within the ADP (mean=3.98). These findings are compatible with previous studies (e.g. Buchanan and Badham, 1999a; 2008) which show that these elements of politics can block change.

The interview responses indicate a lack of clear vision of change affecting the internal politics of the ADP. This result is consistent with those reported in the literature. For example, Buchanan and Badham (1999) indicate that change creates uncertainty and ambiguity, with the result that these situations can be exploited by those who have the skill, information and experience to be politically active.

The *t*-test statistics for comparisons between respondents by rank concerning elements of power and politics showed a significant difference between police officers and police men on the positive role of politics. These differences in views can be explained by assuming that police officers are more likely than police men to recognise the

importance of politics in implementing change. On the other hand, there were also significant differences between males and females on the same sub-themes.

A final point related to power and politics is that the survey found evidence of a significant relationship between power and politics and organisational structure at a significance level of $p < .01$. It was observed that organisational structure had a moderately positive correlation with the power and politics factor ($r = .450$). The nature of this relation can be explained by previous studies such as that of Buchanan and Badham (2008), which found that organisational structure was a source of power. Burnes (2004a) also points out that organisational structure plays a critical role in the distribution of power within organisations and in affecting the impetus of change. Thus, organisational structure will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

8.2.3 Organisational Structure

In the survey, 70% of participants agreed that organisational structure should be improved in order to implement successful change within the ADP. The interviewees also showed significant agreement that organisational structure was a very important factor which needed to be considered when managing change. The present results are therefore consistent with those of some earlier researchers such as Palmer et al. (2006), who state that any change process must involve structural change, either directly or indirectly. The documentary analysis found that in 2004, the ADP changed its organisational structure in order to help it to implement its strategy, to improve decision making, to eliminate conflicts between departments, to improve communication between departments and to create new departments such as those of Community Policy and Human Resources.

The interviewees took a similar position, while also interestingly pointing out that Arab culture had played a critical role in shaping the current organisational structure of the ADP, leading some managers to prefer centralisation and to refuse to delegate. The results of the interviews also show that the ADP was regarded as having a “Roman” structure. The survey also showed that employees of ADP agreed with these items: “Authority to make decisions is centralised” (mean=3.91) and “Formal communication is encouraged in this organisation” (mean=3.88). These results provide overall support for the findings of some previous studies (e.g. Tayeb, 1997; Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Mellahi, 2003; Anwar and Chaker, 2003) that Arab organisations prefer to adopt a centralised, command-and-control policy and discourage teamwork. They also confirm

the findings of some previous studies in the public sector (e.g. Claver et al., 1999; Parker and Bradley, 2000; Brown et al., 2003; Schraeder et al., 2005; Rusaw, 2007) that public sector organisations are dominated by bureaucratic and conformist cultures which are characterised by an authoritarian management style, top-down communication, individuals searching for stability, a centralised decision-making process and a reluctance to undertake innovation and change. Such findings may provide some explanation of the following relationship which emerged from the survey results: there was a positive correlation between organisational culture and organisational structure ($r=.372$) at a significance level of $p<.01$.

The *t*-test statistics showed a significant difference between police officers and police men on organisational structure. This difference in views according to rank can be explained by previous studies in the public sector (e.g. Maddock, 2002) which found that front-line employees were excluded from change processes in public sector culture, where there was a top-down approach to communication regarding change. There were also significant differences between males and females on the same sub-themes.

As can be seen, all of the above factors were shaped by Arab culture; therefore the next section examines organisational culture in more detail.

8.2.4 Organisational Culture

In general, there has been little research into the impact of Arab culture on change, which limits the possibility of comparing the present findings with those of other empirical research (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). However, it has been argued (Carnall, 2003; Burnes, 2004a) that organisational culture has a great influence on the whole organisational system. Therefore, in order to be successful in implementing change, organisational culture should be managed accordingly. The findings of this study reveal that 72.1% of participants agreed that organisational culture was one of the most important factors to be considered in order to manage change successfully within the ADP. The findings of interviews also tend to agree, but reveal several interesting points which should be given considerable attention in order to ensure successful change in the context of the Middle East in general and of the ADP in particular.

The result of the interviews show that personal relationships were considered an important feature of Arab culture and that maintaining them was regarded as having

greater value than work-related interests. The findings also show that relationships were used negatively to impede change within the ADP. Thus, the results of the survey show that favouritism was believed to exist (mean=3.75). The survey also found a positive correlation between reward and favouritism within the ADP at a significance level of $p < .01$. This finding is compatible with previous studies (e.g. Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; Anwar and Chaker, 2003; Sabri, 2007; Elbanna, 2008) which found *wasta* (nepotism) to be a feature of Arab culture. The results of documentary analysis however indicate that the ADP has attempted to eliminate *wasta* and the influence of personal relationships by emphasising the values of fairness, justice and integrity. The survey also found strong agreement with these items: “My manager expects me to comply completely with the organisation’s procedures” (mean=4.23) and “All policies and procedures related to my work are written” (mean=3.84). This view was also found to be sanctioned in the Police Law (1998):

“Any employee who intervenes or accepts any intervention in regard to the police function and its effect on the public interest shall be punished by a reduction in salary for a period not exceeding one month or imprisonment for the same period” (Article 13).

Due to the lack of research on the impact of *wasta* on change, it is difficult to compare the results of this study with other empirical research.

In terms of the concept of planning for the future in the Arab context, the documentary analysis revealed that the ADP had developed five-year strategic plans. This contrasts with the results of previous research (Furnham, 2005; Schneider and Barsoux, 2003) which suggested that Arab societies are dominated by fatalism, attributed to certain interpretations of Islam, whereby planning for the future is abandoned in favour of following the will of *Allah* and people tend to prefer the status quo. The present study confirms that viewing the future as in God’s hands does not necessarily conflict with planning for the future (Rees and Althakhri, 2008).

It has been indicated (Schneider and Barsoux, 2003; Mead, 2005) that people in countries dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance, such as in the Middle East, prefer to maintain the current situation rather than change. They prefer to avoid taking risks and to maintain rigid codes of values. The results of the present survey confirm this position, there being agreement among employees on these items: “Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change” (mean=3.70), “Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce

change” (mean=3.59), “Employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives” (mean=3.59) and “Employees feel worried about change” (mean=3.83). There was also a significant positive correlation ($p=.000$) between employees feeling worried about change and these items: “Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change”, “Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change” and “Employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives”. These findings are consistent with previous research such as that of Hoag et al. (2002), who found that change creates a culture of uncertainty in organisations, leading employees to be worried about their positions and their livelihoods, and a culture of inability to cope, which leads them to resist change. The interview findings support this, showing that change creates ambiguity, which leads employees to fear change and prefer to maintain the status quo. Thus, employees need a clear vision and strategic plan in order to dispel the ambiguity created by change.

However, the documents showed that the ADP had attempted to change its old organisational culture by introducing a new motivation policy and changing its organisational structure in order to encourage change and innovation. This finding is supported by the research of Cummings and Worley (2001), who claim that in order to change culture, it is important to change the mechanisms that enhance old behaviours, such as reward systems.

With respect to evaluation and time of change, Schneider and Barsoux (2003) and Mead (2005) argue that monitoring the process of implementation of organisational change is not taken seriously in Arab societies and that time is perceived there as unlimited and flexible. The survey findings show a tendency to be neutral and to disagree with these items: “A clear timetable was devised for the various phases of the change projects” (mean=2.679), “The organisation regularly reviews the change plans of my department” (mean=2.967) and “There is a means of measuring the success of the change project” (mean=2.603). Although the documentary analysis showed that the ADP had a means of measuring its strategy and had set a limited time to achieve its objectives, the survey found agreement with the contention that timescales associated with change projects were often unrealistic (mean=3.48). It can be said that measurement and limited time to achieve organisational objectives were in place but that they were not taken seriously. Interview findings confirm that measurement was not taken seriously in the ADP,

because evaluation in the context of Arab culture is regarded as criticism. Regarding the timescale of change, the results of the interviews indicate that Arabs prefer culturally to see the results of change quickly and are not prepared to wait patiently for such results. This also confirms an earlier study which indicated that the political environment places additional requirements on the public sector and employees to adapt quickly and easily to change; too many change initiatives with unrealistic timeframes can lead to a failure of change in the public sector (Greasley et al., 2009).

The *t*-test results show that there was a significant difference between police officers and police men on general elements of organisational culture, evaluation and timescales. This may be taken to indicate that more senior officers had a greater understanding of these elements than those of lower rank, partly because of their closer position to top managers (Maddock, 2002).

Finally, as indicated in the literature review, Islam, which shapes Muslims' behaviour, cannot be separated from the management systems operating in the Middle East. The results of documentary analysis show that the ADP conducted many religious activities for its employees, such as visits to sacred sites, and provided breakfasts in the street during Ramadan.

8.3 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the study findings, from which it is clear that change management in the context of the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular takes a planned rather than an emergent approach. This is attributed to the fact that Arab culture is dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance, where people need detailed plans for change in order to resolve ambiguous situations. At the general level, the findings of this study show some agreement between Middle Eastern perceptions and Western literature in relation to critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change: leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture. However, these factors are affected by Middle Eastern culture. Accordingly, three general observations apply across all four themes of this study. The first is a convergence between theory and empirical evidence; the second is that there are also divergences and contradictions between theory and the empirical evidence collected; and the third is that there are areas of ambiguity as well. Table 6.2 highlights the

specific items of the research in which theory and empirical evidence converge, diverge and are ambiguous.

Table 8.2: Convergence, divergence and ambiguity between theory and empirical evidence

Themes	Convergence	Divergence	Ambiguity
Leadership	General convergence between the findings of this study and of earlier studies	Transformational leaders can exist in the context of Middle East	-
Power and Politics	General convergence between the findings of this study and of earlier studies	Tendency to use persuasion rather than coercive power in Middle East context	1- Personal relationships play critical role in determining appropriate types of power. 2- Do not put right people in the right place
Organisational Structure	General convergence between the findings of this study and of earlier studies	There are attempts to move from centralisation to decentralisation in the Middle East	-
Organisational Culture	General convergence between the findings of this study and of earlier studies	1- Plans for future can exist in Middle East context. 2- Attempts to negate <i>wasta</i> in the Middle East 3- Measurement and limited time for change	1- Personal relationships (<i>wasta</i>). 2- Evaluation is regarded as criticism

In general, there is a convergence between the findings of this study and those of earlier studies. There is, however, some divergence in relation to some items which might not exist in the Middle Eastern context. The study reveals that transformational leadership, with encouragement and vision to change, can exist in the Middle East, despite the dominant bureaucratic style. The study also finds that the ADP changed its organisational structure in order to move from a centralised to a decentralised approach, which contradicts the findings of earlier studies that Middle Eastern culture favours centralisation and a command-and-control approach. Finally, some factors have been considered by the ADP in order to implement change, such as strategic planning, a motivation policy, the reduction of the effects of nepotism and the creation of a system to assess change. These findings also contrast with some previous research which indicated that these elements had not been considered in the Middle East. This divergence may be explained by the argument of Behery and Paton (2008) that the socio-economic and political conditions within the UAE are not typical of the region. Rees and Althakhri (2008) claim that the UAE has started to reform its political systems and introduce more democratic elements in order to enhance its economic performance. In addition, the UAE has a great diversity in that its population comprises 185 nationalities, which may have had an impact on its culture (Behery and Paton, 2008). Thus, Rees and Althakhri (2008) state that the cultural values of the Arab world differ

from country to country and may change over time in order to meet the standards required by international business.

Finally, some ambiguities have been identified in the extent of agreement between the findings of this study and those of previous studies which might be attributed to the underlying concepts and beliefs of Arab culture. For instance, this study shows that relationships and networking can play a critical role in change management in the Middle East context. Given the lack of research into the impact of relationship on change, it is difficult to compare the results of this study with other empirical research. In other words, Western organisations are dominated by individualism, whereas Arab ones are dominated by collectivism, but with a tendency for personal relationships and favouritism to determine position, reward and punishment.

The final chapter, which follows, summarises the research and draws conclusions.

CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This study has examined in depth four factors critical to the successful implementation of strategic change – leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture – and the relationships among them, in the context of public sector organisations in the Middle East in general and in the UAE in particular. To achieve this objective, the relevant literature was investigated in order to identify the concepts and components of these factors which can help to implement successful change and reduce failure rates. For the empirical part of the research, the case study methodology was adopted, using three methods of data collection, namely questionnaire, interview and documentary analysis. The main objectives of this chapter are to summarise the implications of the study and to draw conclusions. It is also intended to help enhance the implementation of change management in the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular by making a number of recommendations. Finally, it states the contribution made by the study, lists its limitations and suggests an agenda for further study.

9.2 Summary of Literature Review

The theoretical part of this study revealed that there are various models of change management which are available to organisations both public and private in order to implement successful change (Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009). However, it has been argued (Hartley, 2002; Waldersee and Griffiths, 2004; Todnem, 2005; Walker et al., 2007; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009; Self and Schraeder, 2009; Jaros, 2010) that the implementation of change has long been problematic. It has been estimated (Hartley, 2002; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Lyons et al. 2009; Werkman (2009) that fewer than 30% of change initiatives are successful. Moreover, Coram and Burnes (2001), Rusaw (2007) and Greasley et al. (2009) claim that most models of change management are designed for private sector organisations and yet tend to be implemented in the public sector, which calls for research in the public sector. This problematic nature of change management initiatives should not be considered to be a feature of the field that is confined to the Western world. In fact, the rather limited information available suggests that over a prolonged period of time, change management failure rates in the Middle East are broadly similar to those reported in the West.

These high rates of failure in change management have led many researchers (e.g. Appelbaum et al. 1998; Underwood-Stephens and Cobb, 1999; Weber and Weber, 2001; Chrusciel and Field, 2006; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Zhang et al., 2009) to suggest that organisations must address critical factors during periods of change in order to be successful and to reduce the rate of failure. Thus, there remain many opportunities for further investigation which might lead to the discovery of factors that influence success in change implementation and which would thus contribute to reducing the failure rate.

Therefore, the present researcher conducted an extensive review of literature published in both Western and Middle Eastern countries in order to identify these factors. Before this, the theoretical foundation of change management was examined in order to understand how organisations work in terms of change (Cameron and Green, 2004). The theoretical foundation of change management, the approaches, models and their main concepts are summarised in Table 9.1:

Table 9.1: Theoretical foundation of change management, approaches, models and main concepts

Theoretical foundation of change	Change management approaches	Model of change	Main assumption of Approaches
Classical approach	Planned approach	Lewin's planned approach to change	1. Change should be planned and controlled in order to be implemented successfully. 2. Organisational change must be determined by managers who have position and power within the organisational structure (Top-down approach) 3. The main purposes of change management are to minimise future changes and protect the organisation from the external environment
		Organisational Development approach	
Open system approach	Emergent Approach	Weisbord's Six-box Model	1. Change as a continuous and open-ended process of adapting to change situations, rather than as a sequence of planned steps or actions within a given timetable, whose objectives and methods are fixed in advance. 2. Bottom-up approach to change. 3. Politics should be considered to manage successful change. 4. Changes are made in organisations in order to respond to changes in the external environment and maintain a balance between all components of their systems.
Contingency approach		Nadler and Tushman model	
Processual approach		Burke Model	
		Kanter Model	
Complexity theory		Dawson Model	
	Kotter Model		

Source: Researcher's Work

It was found that the planned approach to change has been criticised by advocates of the emergent approach. One of the main criticisms is that the planned approach ignores

power and politics, which arguably constitute one of the most important factors in successful change implementation. This criticism has, however, been disputed by advocates of the planned approach, who argue that it deals with serious problems such as racism and religion, which involve politics (Burnes, 2004d). Moreover, OD has tended to move away from a focus on group issues and Lewin's humanistic approach to change, paying more attention to organisational issues such as culture, learning, socio-technical systems and transformational change, in order to meet the needs of modern organisations (Burnes, 2004d). Therefore, French and Bell (1999) indicate that OD practitioners should understand the nature of power and politics, the tactics of influence and the behaviour of power-holders; and they should learn more about bargaining and negotiation.

Notwithstanding this argument, the review of the literature led to the conclusion that the planned and emergent approaches to change give considerable weight to leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture as critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change, the main disparities between approaches being significant only in terms of the characteristics of these factors and how they should be managed in order for change to be successful. It would therefore be misleading to think of "good" or "bad" approaches to managing change; leadership styles, types of power, political tactics and organisational structures designed to implement successful change, the choices among the different approaches or styles, all depend on several elements such as the type of change, its context and the organisational culture (see Burnes, 1996; Cameron and Green, 2004; James, 2005).

Given the critical role of context and culture in the successful implementation of change, Arab culture was examined in order to explore its effect on management systems in general and change in particular. It was found that in order to implement successful change in this context, certain factors related to Arab culture should be taken seriously, such as fatalism, planning for the future, time of change, evaluation of change, fear of change, a preference for the status quo, *wasta* and authoritarian, bureaucratic and controlling mechanisms of change. Earlier researchers in the Arab world have identified some factors critical to the successful implementation of change. These are motivation, training, organisational structure and communication, participation, and managerial confidence in employees. The comparison between Western and Arab countries regarding factors of change is illustrated in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2: Comparison between Western and Arab countries regarding critical change factors

Critical factors from a Middle East Perspective	Critical Factors from a Western Perspective
Motivation	Leadership
Training	Power and Politics
Organisational structure and Communication	Organisational structure
Participation	Organisational Culture
Managerial confidence in employees	-

Source: Researcher's Work

There has been limited research in the Middle East to investigate the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in change. The Western literature also needs to focus on these factors; Walker et al. (2007) argue that there is little research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success and integration between them. This view is supported by many researchers (e.g. Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham 2008; Greasley et al., 2009), who indicate that there is a need to examine in depth these factors which can help to implement successful change.

The main objective of this study was thus to examine these four critical factors and the relationships among them in public sector organisations in the Middle East and in the UAE in particular. To achieve this objective, this research has attempted to answer the following questions: What roles are played by leadership in the successful implementation of change programmes? What are the roles of power and politics in the successful implementation of change? What are the most important aspects of Emirati culture which impact upon the successful implementation of change? What are the roles of organisational structure in the successful implementation of change? What are the relationships among these factors?

9.3 Summary of Methodology

In order to answer the research questions, this study took a pragmatic approach combining positivism and phenomenology and using a case study methodology. This approach was designed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the phenomena under study by the triangulation of data-gathering methods. The ADP was chosen as a case study for several reasons: it is one of the largest public sector employers in the UAE, with more than 30,000 employees, and it has a well documented history of successfully implementing organisational change since 2002. For instance, it was

awarded the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award for good performance and development. Yin (2003:41) indicates that “the lessons learned from these cases are assumed to be informative about the experiences of the average institution”. The case study method is employed when the research needs to examine factors in depth (Jankowicz, 1991) and allows multiple sources of data collection. This study used three such methods, namely a questionnaire, interviews and documentary analysis. The questionnaire was administered to 450 employees in order to explore their views on the four critical factors identified above and was analysed using the SPSS program. The interviews were conducted with 20 managers and experts in change at the ADP in order to complement the questionnaire survey by providing a comprehensive picture of the study themes from the perspective of participants who were likely to prefer to be interviewed rather than completing a questionnaire. The interviews were analysed by using Creswell’s (2003) model. Finally, in order to supplement the questionnaire and interview findings, documents were analysed, again using Creswell’s model.

9.4 Summary of Key Findings

The central finding of the study was that change management in the ADP was led from the top of the organisation. This indicated that the ADP had adopted a planned approach to change, which is compatible with Arab culture and with public sector culture. Thus, many employees did not understand the strategic plan, vision, values, or mission of the ADP, which was attributed to the planned approach to change. The study also found that leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture were the most critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change; and it identified a number of relationships between these factors.

9.4.1 Leadership

In general, the results show that the ADP was characterised by a bureaucratic leadership style, which had a great impact on the implementation of change in this context in several ways: it focused on regulation, rules and daily work, rather than strategic change and vision; leaders tended to exclude employees from change and not to involve them in the change process; they preferred top-down communication to change; they avoided delegating authority because of the prevailing blame culture. Thus, the ADP was found to be affected by a public sector culture where bureaucracy and conformity prevail, the management style is bureaucratic, communication is top-down, individuals search for stability, the decision-making process is centralised and there is a reluctance to engage

in innovation and change (e.g. Claver et al., 1999; Parker and Bradley, 2000; Brown et al., 2003; Schraeder et al., 2005; Rusaw, 2007). These features tend to dominate organisations in the Middle East and are attributed to Arab culture.

Although the ADP was found to be dominated by bureaucratic leadership style, transformational leadership can be applied in a Middle Eastern context. Top leaders of the ADP paid considerable attention to creating a new vision, to establishing new values such as fairness, justice and integrity, to establishing that the current situation was undesirable, to rewarding innovation, teamwork and effective communication with staff, to producing a five-year strategic plan with the participation of all departmental managers, to providing the appropriate training and resources needed for change, to creating a new motivation policy and to communicating change to employees.

Therefore, the study concludes that in public sector organisations there is a conflict between the need for a move away from bureaucratic structures in order to increase flexibility and innovation while coping with the changing demands of the environment on one hand, and the desire to maintain the standards and procedures that are important for quality of civic services for a diverse range of stakeholders on the other (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002; James, 2005).

9.4.2 Power and Politics

Power and politics constitute one of the main critical factors in the implementation of strategic change. The study found that legitimate power is one of the most important types of power required to manage change successfully in the context of the ADP. This may be attributed to the several issues such as high power distance and strong uncertainly avoidance which characterise the culture of the Middle East; and ADP had undergone radical change imposed by the external politics of the Abu Dhabi government, which led managers to use their positions to implement change

The study concluded that within this context, there are several types of power were employed in order to encourage employees to change such as punishment, reward and knowledge powers.

In terms of politics, the study found that there were two types: external and internal. The external politics cannot be ignored in public sector organisations and plays a critical role

in change. Regarding internal politics, the study showed that there were again two types: positive and negative. Thus, it was concluded that the positive aspects of politics should be encouraged in order to implement successful change, while negative politics should be eliminated because it blocks change. The study also revealed that the lack of a clear vision to change caused internal political tension within the ADP.

9.4.3 Organisational Structure

The study concluded that although the ADP had changed its organisational structure in order to help to implement its strategy, by improving decision making, by eliminating conflicts and improving communication between departments and by creating new departments such as those of Community Policy and Human Resources, its organisational structure was still affected by the Arab and public sector cultures. It was found that Arab organisations preferred to adopt a centralised, command-and-control policy and discouraged teamwork.

9.4.4 Organisational Culture

The study concluded that several features of organisational culture should be considered in order to implement successful change within the ADP. First, the ADP was still affected by relationship, which in turn affected change. However, the study found that the ADP has attempted to counter relationship by emphasising the values of fairness, justice and integrity and by changing its organisational structure.

The study also showed that although people in Islamic countries believe that plans for the future are subject to the will of God (*Allah*), this does not necessarily conflict with planning for the future. Thus, the study found that ADP had adopted short-term plans rather than long-term ones. Moreover, the study revealed that ADP employees required detailed plans in order to resolve the ambiguity caused by change.

The third finding related to culture was that measurement had not been taken seriously in the ADP because evaluation in the context of Arab culture is regarded as criticism. It was also found that the ADP, as a public sector body, expected quick results from change and was unwilling to wait for them; indeed, change initiatives with unrealistic timeframes were seen as characteristic of the public sector.

Finally, the study concluded that Islam, which shapes Muslims' behaviour, cannot be separated from management systems in the Middle East. Thus, the ADP was found to practise a number of religious activities.

9.5 Implications for Practice

On the basis of these results, this section offers some implications which might help to implement successful change in the public sector in the Middle East in general and in the UAE in particular. First, the study shows that Arab societies are dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance, which requires more detailed plans for change in order to resolve the ambiguous situation created by change. Therefore, a planned approach to change might be more suitable than an emergent one, in order to implement successful change in the public sector in Middle East, including the UAE. In general, it can be said that this approach is preferred in public sector organisations (Maddock, 2002).

Second, the study reveals that leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture are the most important factors in the successful implementation of strategic change. Successful change therefore requires considerable attention to be paid to the relationships between these factors.

The third implication arises from the finding that Middle Eastern culture is generally dominated by bureaucratic and social integration leadership styles. Thus, successful change requires strong direction and commitment from those who hold positions of power within organisational structures (legitimate power). This style of leadership is also required where change is radical.

Any plan for change in the Middle East will be affected by Islamic thought. Muslims believe that only *Allah* can foresee the future and that plans must be based on His will. In order for change to be successful, short-term plans are therefore more appropriate than long-term ones. Another cultural consideration is that relationship and networking are still significant and should be considered when implementing change in a Middle Eastern context, where it is important to establish good relationships with managers as a key part of internal politics. Thus, coalition building is one of the most important strategies to implement successful change in the public sector, as Cunningham and Kempling (2009) indicate.

A sixth important finding is that in public sector organisations in the Middle East there is an expectation of quick results of change, so that unrealistic timeframes are too often set. Thus, successful change in this context might require quick-win initiatives, as Kotter (1996) argues. It is also significant that evaluation of change is regarded as criticism in the Middle East. Thus, considerable care should be taken when implementing any evaluation.

External politics should also be given considerable weight, especially in the public sector, because it has been found (Greasley et al., 2009) that the regular change in political leadership has a great influence on the amount and frequency of changes which employees face in the public sector. Thus, this political environment places additional requirements on the public sector and its employees to adapt quickly and easily to change (Greasley et al., 2009).

Finally, the study has concluded that public sector organisations are still dominated by bureaucracy, conformity and a blame culture. Thus, these elements should be considered in order to manage successful change in the public sector.

Having offered practical suggestions, this chapter now turns to discussing some theoretical implications of the findings of this study for the body of knowledge in the field of change management.

9.6 Contributions to Knowledge

This study aims to bridge a number of gaps in knowledge and there are several areas to which it adds significantly to the body of knowledge.

It has been found that both developed and developing countries face high failure rates of change implementation, which is estimated at 70%, and this poses continued challenges for researchers from different schools of thought in the area of change management (Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009). The present study has gone some way towards enhancing understanding of the contextual reality of change management in a public sector organisation, in particular in the context of the Middle East but also to a degree in emerging economies such as that of the UAE, which have been underrepresented in the change management body of knowledge.

In addition, it has been argued (Todnem, 2005; Drummond-Hay and Bamford, 2009) that not all change management theories and models are relevant to the requirements of organisations today. The change management literature also contains references to many different models, which complicates the search for the most appropriate methodology for any particular organisation. The present study has attempted to resolve this confusion among change management models by reaffirming the argument that it would be misleading to think of “good” or “bad” approaches to managing successful change, since the choices among the different approaches depend on several elements, such as the type of change, the context and the organisational culture (Burnes, 1996).

Furthermore, this study contributes to filling a gap in the existing literature regarding change management in the public sector, both in Western countries and in the Middle East in particular. It has been argued (e.g. by Coram and Burnes, 2001; Rusaw, 2007 and Greasley et al., 2009) that most models of change management are designed for the private sector and are then generalised to public sector organisations, which operate in an entirely different context, especially in terms of legally based purposes, of having a bureaucratic culture of rules and regulations, of public accountability, of the need to demonstrate value for money and of focus on the customer rather than market interests (Coram and Burnes, 2001; Greasley et al., 2009). Consequently, there is a need for research in public sector organisations (Werkman, 2009) to which the present study has made a valuable contribution, revealing that the cultural element must be made explicit as it has key implications for the overall implementation of change, particularly in the public sector context.

Moreover, the study contributes significantly to the literature by identifying critical factors in the successful implementation of strategic change. Its purpose was to understand in depth the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in the successful implementation of change. Walker et al. (2007) argue that there is little research focusing on the micro-level factors influencing change success and on the interactions among them. This view is supported by many researchers (e.g. Clement, 1994; Higgs, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Buchanan and Badham 2008; Greasley et al., 2009), who argue that there is a need to examine these factors in depth in order to improve the rate of success in the implementation of change.

The current findings may also help to enhance a growing body of literature on effective change leadership. This contribution has been achieved by identifying the most important elements of leadership in the implementation of change, as suggested by Appelbaum et al. (2008:24), who identify “the need for more empirical research in the related fields of change success and organisational change leadership”. Higgs (2003) claims that there is a driving need to identify leadership behaviours which will result in effective change implementation and build sustained change capability. He states that there is a vast literature, but little agreement or real knowledge of what is required for effective leadership. However, it should be kept in mind that the effectiveness of change leadership was found to be affected by cultural factors.

This study also investigates the role of power and politics, which has not been explored adequately in the change management literature (Buchanan and Badham, 1999b; 2008). The investigation of this factor has made a significant contribution to knowledge.

Islamic and Arab culture and its implications for change management have been touched upon in this study, which has addressed issues such as Islamic beliefs, fatalism, favouritism, social values and their implications for change. These cultural factors have rarely been mentioned in the change management literature; therefore addressing them here has made some contribution to knowledge.

As noted above, it has been estimated that 70 percent of planned organisational change initiatives fail. One of the causes of these failures is the lack of reliable and valid diagnostic instruments to assess organisational capabilities for change (Judge and Douglas, 2009). This study has attempted to develop an instrument which can help to assess those factors which are critical to change (see Appendix 1). The development of this instrument has made some contribution to knowledge.

Finally, the mixed methodology approach to examining the data further highlights the point that change management research could benefit from other methods of data investigation. The three data collection methods, using different samples, have generated a rich base for discussion and helped to triangulate the information gathered. In addressing the issue of change management, this study not only interrogated the top, middle and lower levels of leaders and experts, but also elicited the views of

subordinates, whereas it is often difficult to assemble employees from all parts of an organisation's site in order to capture their collective perspective.

9.7 Limitations of the Study

Although this study has managed to bring to light a number of factors that could enhance the successful implementation of strategic change and reduce its rate of failure, a number of limitations need to be noted.

Firstly, this study is limited to organisational factors in the workplace, which were assumed to have a great influence on successful change. There was therefore little consideration, in the design of the questionnaire and the interview protocol, of elements of the external environment which might have an influence on change.

Secondly, this study is based on a single case study, of the Abu Dhabi Police. Thus, its findings cannot be generalised to other organisations. However, this need not be seen as a negative limitation, in that Saunders et al. (2003) and Yin (2003) argue that the main objective of a case study is to generalise its results to a set of theoretical propositions, not to populations.

Thirdly, this study was limited by some methodological issues related to the interviews and the documentary analysis. The use of semi-structured interviews may have introduced bias on the part of the researcher and of the interviewees, but the researcher overcame this issue by comparing the results with the official documentation and questionnaire results. Moreover, the bias was reduced by using a neutral introduction, an interview guide and careful analysis. With respect to documents, it has been argued (see Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003; Gray, 2004; Myers, 2009) that documents may sometimes contain inaccurate information and bias. However, several steps were taken in order to reduce such bias, including the use of multiple methods of data collection, examining the sources of the documents and making sure that their meaning was clear.

9.8 Future Research

The data analysis that took place in this research may lead to the following avenues for further studies. First, there is a clear need to explore change management in different parts of the Arab world, because, as Rees and Althakhri (2008) indicate, its cultural values differ from country to country and may change over time in order to meet the

standards required by international business. For example, many Muslim countries in this region have been influenced by capitalism, socialism and secularism.

This study found that nepotism is one of the elements of organisational culture which affect change within the Middle East context. Thus, there is need to investigate this factor in depth and provide some recommendations in order to combat the negative effects of *wasta* on Arab organisations.

The study also found that in public sector organisations, effective leadership of change should combine the transformational and transactional styles in a hybrid leadership style. There is therefore a strong need for further research to develop a hybrid model of leadership in order to be successful in change in the public sector. Further research is also required in the public sector to resolve conflict between the need for transformational leadership in order to increase flexibility and innovation and to cope with the changing demands of the environment on one hand, and the need on the other for transactional leadership to maintain the standards and procedures that are important for quality of civic services for a diverse range of stakeholders.

The fourth finding which is important here is that the negative effects of politics can block change, which in turn affects organisational effectiveness. Some research may therefore be needed into how change agents can reduce the impact or control the negative effects of politics in change.

It was also found that public sector organisations are still dominated by a culture of bureaucratic conformity, where the management style is authoritarian, communication is top-down and the decision-making process is centralised. It may be useful to conduct research to determine how public sector bodies can cope with external change given these elements. There is also a need to develop a model for the public sector to combine mechanical and organic organisational structures.

Finally, there is a need for research that investigates the readiness of people and organisations operating within the Arab region to accept Western models of change in order to manage such change successfully.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Change Management Questionnaires

Dear Respected Colleagues,

Abu Dhabi Police has introduced and implemented change initiatives such as Seven Point Strategy Plan, ISO 1900, TQM and E-Government and EFQM for several years. Moreover, In April 2007, the prime Minister of the UAE introduced a government strategy which aims to achieving continuous improvement, good quality service and better living standards for people. The Prime Minister of UAE, also, stated that “There is a need to maximize efforts and introduce radical changes to the existing practices within the UAE Government” (UAE Strategy, 2007:2). Therefore, in order to be successful in implementation of all change initiatives, attention must be given to the leadership, power and politics, structure and culture factors.

Therefore, I am carrying out a survey as one of the requirements for my Doctorate degree at the University of Manchester, United Kingdom. The aim of the study is to investigate the role of leadership, power and politics, structure and culture on successful implementation of change at Abu Dhabi Police.

The survey presents a set of statements (79) that describes different aspects of leadership, power and politice, structure and culture. To complete this survey, just indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements. When you are responding to the statements, think of Abu Dhabi Police as a whole and the way things are usually done. If the statement is a good description of the way things are typically done in Abu Dhabi Police, then indicate you agree with that statement. If the statement is not a good description of the way things typically work in ADP, then indicate you disagree

I assure you that your responses will be used purely for academic purposes. Also, I assure you that your answers will remain confidential. Results of the survey will be sent to you upon request only.

Thank you for you time and assistance,,,,

In general terms, do you think that Abu Dhabi Police is good at implementing change?

NO ()

Yes ()

- 1. Please answer the following questions by placing a tick (√) in parentheses according to your agreement with each question:**

1. Are you familiar with the organisation’s strategic plan?

Yes ()

NO ()

If your answer is yes, is the strategy statement clear and understandable?

- It is clear and understandable to a large extent ()
- It is clear and understandable to some extent ()
- It is unclear and not understandable at all ()

2. Are you familiar with the organisation’s vision statement?

Yes ()

NO ()

If your answer is yes, is the vision statement clear and understandable?

- It is clear and understandable to a large extent ()
- It is clear and understandable to some extent ()
- It is unclear and not understandable at all ()

3. Is the vision statement consistent with the strategic plan?

Yes () Not sure () NO ()

4. Are you familiar with the organisation's mission statement?

Yes () NO ()

If your answer is yes, is the mission statement clear and understandable?

- It is clear and understandable to a large extent ()
- It is clear and understandable to some extent ()
- It is unclear and not understandable at all ()

5. Is there a clear link between the mission and the vision statements?

Yes () Not sure () NO ()

6. Are you familiar with the organisation's values statement?

Yes () NO ()

If your answer is yes, are the values consistent with the mission?

- They are consistent with the mission to a large extent ()
- They are consistent with the mission to some extent ()
- They are not consistent with the mission at all ()

N	Leadership Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organisation					
2	I understand how change will help the organisation in the long term					
3	Understanding why change is happening and necessary for organisation					
4	I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job					
5	The vision statement of the organisation is relevant to the change project					
6	I have been provided with description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.					
7	I have been involved in discussions about new ways in which the organisation's structures and practices will change					
8	My manager sets clear and precise strategic plans for the department in order to implement the change vision					
9	My manager has explained to employees the goals of the change programme					
10	My manager involves employees in the change planning processes of the department					

11	Employees have been given full opportunity to participate in the change process.					
12	Managers keep staff members up to date with important information about the implementation of change					
13	Managers clarify the reasons for change before implementing changes.					
14	My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions about change which affects them					
15	I have the appropriate skills to achieve the change objectives associated with my department					
16	I am rewarded for developing skills that support change					
17	The training which is provided is relevant to the new skills required by the change project					
18	Managers provide the necessary resources which are needed to achieve change objectives for my department					
19	My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she needs to communicate the required change					
20	My Manager keeps me informed about the departmental changes.					
21	My manager listens to subordinates' views about change.					
22	My manager tries to create commitment to the change project.					
23	My manager rewards those who demonstrates appropriate responses to change.					
24	My manager controls all change initiatives at the department					
25	Employees have the authority to perform important tasks related to change					
26	My manager interferes in his/her employees' work.					
27	Generally, employees are well motivated to implement change in the workplace.					
28	My manager shows complete confidence in employees' ability to carry out delegated tasks.					
29	Generally, there are obvious connections between the goals of change and the way change is implemented.					

N	Power and politics Characteristics	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
30	Managers should have good political skills to implement change successfully in this organisation.					
31	Managers should be very persuasive to implement change successfully in this organisation.					
32	One of the main sources of resistance to change in this organisation is employees trying to defend their personal power and interests					
33	Change always creates winners and losers					
34	You have to be quite crafty to introduce change successfully in this organisation.					
35	Change requires managers to control organisational resources					
36	The necessary information system is in place for me to carry out my duties effectively					
37	Managers use their position power to control resistance to change					
38	Communication about the change is limited to only those directly concerned with the project					
39	Good ideas for change are often hidden and then used to promote personal agendas					
40	Employees in this organisation often feel that change has been imposed on them					
41	Politics can be used to slow down or block change initiatives					

N	What do think the most important types of power require in order managing change successfully?	Very Important	Important	Not sure	Unimportant	Very unimportant
42	Reward power (ie incentive-based)					
43	Coercive power (ie threat-based)					
44	Referent power (ie respect-based)					
45	Legitimate power (ie position-based)					
46	Expert power (ie knowledge-based)					

N	Organisational culture Characteristics	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
47	Management are happy to receive feedback from employees about change processes.					
48	New ideas are openly encouraged within the implementation of change					
49	Sensitive issues about change are discussed openly					

50	There is willingness to give employees autonomy during change processes.					
51	Information-sharing between employees is encouraged during change processes.					
52	Past change interventions have created uncertain situations which led employees to resist change.					
53	Employees prefer to maintain the current situation rather than introduce change					
54	Generally, employees feel that they cannot cope with more change initiatives.					
55	Key executives encourage change within the organisation					
56	A detailed plan is required in order to manage change successfully					
57	Effective change is rewarded in this organisation.					
58	Progress toward change objectives are publicised					
59	Although favouritism is forbidden by regulations, it does exist in this department.					
60	Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in my department in order to achieve change objectives					
61	Employee prefer to avoid direct conformation with their managers about issues regarding change					
62	Mistakes in implementation of change are seen as opportunities to learn					
63	The time scales associated with change projects are often unrealistic.					
64	A clear timetable was devised for the various phases of the change projects					
65	The Organisation regularly reviews the change plan of my department					
66	There is a means of measuring the success of the change project.					
67	Continuous change (rather than big events) is preferred in organisation					
68	Employees feel worried about change					

N	Organisational structure Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
69	My manager expects me to completely comply with the organisation's procedures					
70	All policies and procedures related to my work are written					

71	The roles and objectives of my job are clarified by a job description system					
72	There are open communication channels in my department.					
73	Formal communication is encouraged in this organisation					
74	Authority to make decision centralised to top					

N	From point of your view, what are the most important factors that should be considered by Abu Dhabi Police in order to be successful when implementing change?	Very Important	Important	Not sure	Unimportant	Very unimportant
75	Improve leadership styles					
76	Improve power and policy features					
77	Improve organisational culture					
78	Improve organisational structure					
Please explain/comment						
.....						
.....						
.....						
.....						

79. Do have any comments? OR suggestions?
.....
.....
.....
.....

Demographic information	
Gender:	
Age:	
Experience:	
Rank:	
Position	
Qualifications	
Department:	

THANK FOR ANSWERING THESE QUESTIONS

Appendix 2: Interview Guide

Factors	Main Questions	Sub-Questions
LEADER-SHIP AND CHANGE	What the role of leadership in successful implementation of change at ADP	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do organisational leaders possess the necessary skills to develop and execute change plans? If yeas, what kinds of skill they have? If not, explain? 2. Is leadership team committed to making the proposed changes? And How?
POWER AND POLITICS AND CHANGE	What the role of power and politics in successful implementation of change at ADP	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What kind of political tactics use in order to implement change in this organisation? and why? 2. What kind of power tactics use in order to implement change in this organisation? And why? 3. These types of power or politics should be supportive or eliminated in order to manage change successfully? And why?
STRUCT-URE AND CHANGE	What the role of structure in successful implementation of change at ADP	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. what about new organisational structure: support or impede change 2. what kinds of elements effective new organisational structure
CULTU-RE AND CHANGE	What the role of culture in successful implementation of change at ADP	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To what extant can employee tolerate change? To what extent can employee prefer current situation rather than manage change? 2. In terms of Arab culture, there are culture elements affect changes? explain

General Questions:

1. In general, what do you think the important factors should be addressed by Abu Dhabi Police in order to be successful in implementation of change? And Why?
2. What are the barriers within the ADP that will make it difficult to implement change?
3. Do you have comments or suggestions?

Appendix 3: Permission for Field Work

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U.A.E. Arab Emirates
Ministry of Interior
Abu Dhabi Police G.H.Q.
Human Resources G.D.
Training Adm.
Education and Scholarship Section



وزارة الداخلية
وزارة الداخلية
القيادة العامة للشرطة
الوزارة العامة للشرطة
وزارة التدريب
قسم التأهيل والبعثات

الرقم : 1891 / 11 / 33
التاريخ : 2008 / 04 / 28 م

مدير إدارة أمن المنافذ والمطارات
مدير إدارة المنشآت الإصلاحية والعقابية
مدير مديرية شرطة العاصمة
مدير مديرية شرطة العين
مدير إدارة الشرطة المجتمعية
مدير إدارة المرور والموريات
مدير إدارة مدارس الشرطة

الموضوع : الدراسات العليا

إيماءة إلى خطة اعداد وتأهيل ضباط مواطنين في مجالات العمل الشرطي والإداري والقانوني والإجتماعي ، والمتضمنة مراحل الدراسات العليا لهؤلاء الضباط والمعتمدة من سمو وزير الداخلية ، تأمل تسهيل إجراءات جمع المادة العلمية اللازمة في إعداد رسالة الدكتوراه للضباط المذكورين أدناه.

للتفضل بالعلم وإجراءتكم .

وأقبلوا الاحترام ،،،

الملازم أول /
زايد حسن يارحمه العقيقي
ع/ مدير عام الموارد البشرية

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