

**Enhancing Successful Organizational Change
through Institutionalization:
The case of the Abu Dhabi Police**

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OMAR ALSHEHHI

School of Environment, Education and Development
Institute for Development Policy and Management (IDPM)

LIST OF CONTENTS

	Page
List of Tables	7
List of Figures	8
Abstract	9
Declaration	10
Copyright Statement	11
Acknowledgements	12
Dedication	13
List of Abbreviations	14
 Chapter 1 - Introduction	
1.1 Introduction	15
1.2 Background	16
1.3 Rationale of the Study	19
1.4 Aim and Objectives	20
1.5 Research Context: the UAE	21
1.5.1 Historical background	22
1.5.2 Geography and demography	22
1.5.3 Political system	24
1.5.4 Economy	26
1.5.5 Cultural features	27
1.6 Scope of Research	28
1.7 Research Structure	29
 Chapter 2 - Organizational Change: Theories, Approaches and Context	
2.1 Introduction	31
2.2 Perspectives on Organizational Change: Open Systems vs. Social Construction	32
2.2.1 Introduction	32
2.2.2 Characteristics of open systems	32
2.2.3 Organizational change and open systems	33
2.2.4 Organizations as socially constructed	35
2.2.5 Value for OD practitioners	36
2.2.6 Conceptualising resistance to change	37
2.2.7 Filling the gaps: A summary	39
2.3 Managing Organizational Change: Planned vs. Emergent Approaches	41
2.3.1 Introduction	41
2.3.2 Planned approach	41
2.3.3 Challenges to planned change	43
2.3.4 In response: The emergent approach	45
2.3.5 Section summary	48

2.4 Western vs. Middle Eastern Contexts of Organizational Change.....	50
2.4.1 Introduction.....	50
2.4.2 Change management and the convergence/divergence debate	50
2.4.3 Why the Middle East is different	53
2.4.4 Section summary.....	55
2.5 Concluding Remarks.....	55

Chapter 3 - The Institutionalization of Change

3.1 Introduction.....	58
3.2 The Concept of Institutionalization	59
3.2.1 Institutionalization is ‘easier said than done’	62
3.2.2 Is institutionalization a valid concept?.....	63
3.3 Institutionalization as a Process	66
3.4 Critical Factors Affecting Institutionalization	69
3.4.1 Perspectives from the Middle East	73
3.5 How to Institutionalize Change	75
3.5.1 The change message	75
3.5.2 Strategies for institutionalizing change.....	76
3.6 The Language-based Approach	81
3.6.1 An integrated approach: Implications for managers	86
3.7 Conclusion of the Literature Review: Towards a Model of Institutionalization	88
3.7.1 The model	90

Chapter 4 - Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction.....	95
4.2 Research Questions	95
4.3 Research Setting: The Abu Dhabi Police.....	97
4.4 Research Paradigm.....	98
4.5 Research Strategy: Case Study Methodology	101
4.6 Research Approach: Triangulation	103
4.7 Questionnaire Survey.....	105
4.7.1 Questionnaire design.....	105
4.7.2 Questionnaire sample.....	108
4.7.3 Questionnaire analysis	110
4.8 Semi-structured Interviews	111
4.8.1 Interview design and process	112
4.8.2 Interview sample	113
4.8.3 Interview analysis	114
4.9 Ethical Considerations	115
4.10 Chapter Summary	116

Chapter 5 - Quantitative Analysis

5.1 Introduction.....	117
5.2 General Characteristics of Respondents	118
5.3 Descriptive Analysis	119
5.3.1 Introduction.....	119
5.3.2 Participants' perceptions of the QMS	119
5.3.3 Participants' commitment to the QMS	120
5.3.3.1 Change discrepancy	122
5.3.3.2 Change appropriateness	122
5.3.3.3 Change efficacy	122
5.3.3.4 Principal support	122
5.3.3.5 Self-valence.....	123
5.3.4 Critical factors influencing the institutionalization of the QMS.....	123
5.3.4.1 Management characteristics.....	124
5.3.4.2 Employee characteristics	125
5.3.4.3 Change characteristics	125
5.3.4.4 Context characteristics	126
5.3.5 Section summary.....	126
5.4 Measures of Correlation.....	127
5.4.1 Reliability of items.....	127
5.4.2 Assumptions of Pearson's <i>r</i>	128
5.4.3 Correlations among main themes.....	128
5.5 Measures of Differences	130
5.5.1 Assumptions of the independent <i>t</i> -test	130
5.5.2 Variance by gender	131
5.5.3 Variance by experience.....	132
5.5.4 Variance by rank	134
5.5.5 Variance by qualification	135
5.5.6 Variance by department	137
5.5.6.1 Variance of participants' perceptions of the QMS	137
5.5.6.2 Variance of participants' commitment to the QMS.....	138
5.5.6.3 Variance of factors influencing institutionalization.....	139
5.5.6.4 Variance of main themes	142
5.6 Chapter Summary	144

Chapter 6 - Qualitative Analysis

6.1 Introduction.....	146
6.2 General Characteristics of Interviewees	146
6.3 Interviewees' Perceptions of the QMS	148
6.3.1 Reasons for adopting the QMS	148
6.3.2 Outcomes of the QMS	150
6.3.3 Challenges to institutionalization of the QMS.....	151

6.4 Strategies for Institutionalizing the QMS	153
6.4.1 Reward and punishment.....	153
6.4.2 Active participation.....	155
6.4.3 Persuasive communication.....	156
6.4.4 Management of internal/external information	158
6.4.5 HRM practices	159
6.4.6 Diffusion practices	162
6.4.7 Rites and ceremonies	162
6.4.8 Formalization activities.....	163
6.4.9 Network management	164
6.5 Critical Factors Affecting Institutionalization	166
6.5.1 Management characteristics	166
6.5.2 Employee characteristics	169
6.5.3 Change characteristics	171
6.5.4 Context characteristics	173
6.6 Conclusion	175

Chapter 7 - Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Introduction.....	177
7.2 General Overview of the Research Study	177
7.3 Summary of the Literature Review	178
7.4 Summary of Methodology	181
7.5 Discussion	182
7.5.1 RQ1: <i>How has the QMS been perceived by ADP personnel?</i>	183
7.5.1.1 Reasons for adopting the QMS	183
7.5.1.2 Challenges to QMS institutionalization	184
7.5.2 RQ2: <i>What institutionalization strategies have been implemented in the ADP?</i> ..	185
7.5.2.1 Reward and punishment.....	186
7.5.2.2 Participation	187
7.5.2.3 Communication.....	188
7.5.2.4 Training	189
7.5.2.5 Secondary strategies.....	190
7.5.2.6 Recommended strategies	191
7.5.2.7 Section summary.....	192
7.5.3 RQ3: <i>How have the strategies addressed the 5 change message components?</i>	193
7.5.3.1 Change discrepancy	193
7.5.3.2 Change appropriateness	194
7.5.3.3 Change efficacy	194
7.5.3.4 Principal support	194
7.5.3.5 Self-valence.....	195

7.5.4 RQ4: <i>What are the roles & characteristics of critical factors?</i>	195
7.5.4.1 Management characteristics	195
7.5.4.2 Employee characteristics	199
7.5.4.3 Change characteristics	201
7.5.4.4 Contextual characteristics	203
7.5.5 Differences between departments X and Y	205
7.6 Conclusions Regarding the Research Objectives	208
7.7 Contributions to Knowledge	209
7.7.1 Conceptual and theoretical contributions.....	210
7.7.2 Methodological contribution.....	211
7.7.3 Implications for practice	211
7.7 Limitations of the Research	213
7.8 Future Research	214
7.9 Personal Reflections.....	215
References.....	217
Appendix 1: The Survey	234
Appendix 2: Interview Guide.....	239

[Final word count excluding bibliography and appendices: 76,364 main text]

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Estimated demography of the UAE	24
Table 1.2 Value orientation of the UAE	28
Table 2.1 Summary of key differences between the two views of organizations.....	39
Table 2.2 Lewin's work on the planned approach	42
Table 2.3 Summary of key differences between planned and emergent change	49
Table 3.1 Stages of institutionalization.....	68
Table 3.2 Seven perspectives on factors affecting sustainability	70
Table 3.3 Factors affecting sustainability	71
Table 3.4 Critical factors in institutionalization	74
Table 3.5 The five components of the change message.....	76
Table 3.6 The five categories of speech acts	84
Table 4.1 Comparison of the three main research philosophies	101
Table 4.2 Interview sample.....	114
Table 4.3 Summary of research methodology	116
Table 5.1 Demographic profiles of respondents	118
Table 5.2 Descriptive analysis - Participants' perceptions	120
Table 5.3 Descriptive analysis - Change message	121
Table 5.4 Descriptive analysis - Factors influencing institutionalization.....	123
Table 5.5 Descriptive analysis of all themes	127
Table 5.6 Correlation results.....	128
Table 5.7 Correlations among main themes	129
Table 5.8 Group statistics - Variance of themes by gender	131
Table 5.9 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of gender.....	132
Table 5.10 Group statistics - Variance of themes by experience.....	133
Table 5.11 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of experience	133
Table 5.12 Group statistics - Variance of themes by rank.....	134
Table 5.13 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of rank	135
Table 5.14 Group statistics - Variance of themes by qualification.....	136
Table 5.15 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of qualification	136
Table 5.16 Group statistics - Variance of participants' perceptions of the QMS	137
Table 5.17 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of participants' perceptions of the QMS	137
Table 5.18 Group statistics - Variance of change message by department	138
Table 5.19 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of change message by department.....	139
Table 5.20 Group statistics - Variance of factors by department	140
Table 5.21 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of factors influencing institutionalization	141
Table 5.22 Group statistics - Variation of main themes by department	143
Table 5.23 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test of main factors.....	143
Table 5.24 Summary of questionnaire findings on main themes.....	145
Table 6.1 Demographic profiles of the interviewees	147
Table 6.2 Key findings of interviews.....	176
Table 7.1 Summary of Chapter 2	179

Table 7.2 Summary of Chapter 3	180
Table 7.3 Summary of key findings.....	182
Table 7.4 Differences between departments X and Y	206
Table 7.5 Summary of key findings against research objectives.....	209

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Map of the UAE	23
Figure 3.1 The process of sustainability in context	72
Figure 3.2 Institutionalizing change	77
Figure 3.3 Conceptual framework for this study	93
Figure 7.1 Overview of the research objectives, gaps and questions	178

ABSTRACT

While change seems to have become a feature of contemporary organizations, the success rate of change initiatives is admittedly very poor, not only when initiating the change, but even after the successful implementation of a well-planned change, as employees are likely to return to their old habits; thus most change efforts do not persist. Organizations however need to ensure that their change initiatives, which in most cases come at a heavy cost in terms of investment, last long enough to attain their goals. Given the lack of change management research in the Middle Eastern context, particularly with respect to the institutionalization of change, this study explores how best to institutionalize change interventions in the Middle East. The research employs a mixed-methods approach, combining semi-structured interviews with 17 senior managers and a questionnaire survey of 312 employees, in order to gather data from the case study of the Abu Dhabi Police. The quantitative data is assessed using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, while the independent samples *t*-test is used to explore variations between groups.

The findings reveal the significant role of communication in creating shared meanings, perceptions and interpretations; the language-based approach is thus recommended as an additional conversational instrument to enlighten managers and enrich their interventions. This study identifies four categories of factors that are critical to institutionalization; the characteristics of these critical factors and associated issues are also highlighted as a contribution to the design and implementation of institutionalization strategies. The study concludes by developing a framework incorporating three basic conceptual elements that should be considered as a whole during any attempt to institutionalize change; it comprehensively integrates the institutionalization strategies and the critical factors, in order to convey a change message that shapes the enactment of institutionalization processes.

DECLARATION

I, Omar Alshehhi, hereby assert 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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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Agree
ADEC	Abu Dhabi Executive Council
ADP	Abu Dhabi Police
D	Disagree
EVNA	Equal variances not assumed
EVA	Equal variances assumed
F	Frequency
FNC	Federal National Council
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
HR	Human resources
HRM	Human resource management
M	Mean value
n	Number (cardinal)
N	Neutral
n.d.	No date
N ^o	Number (ordinal)
OD	Organizational development
QMS	Quality management system
RQ	Research question
S1, S2 etc	Statements 1, 2 etc.
SA	Strongly agree
SD	Strongly disagree
SE	Standard error
SE(M)	Standard error of the mean
SMS	Short message service
StD	Standard deviation
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
X	ADP department that had a lower level of institutionalization
Y	ADP department that had a stronger level of institutionalization

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In today's highly turbulent and evolving environment, due to the pace of prevalent globalization, technological advances and aggressive competition, no organization can ever remain immune from the implementation of some kind of organizational change, even on a small scale (By, 2005; Lawler & Worley, 2006; Armenakis & Harris, 2009). Changes in political, economic and socio-cultural environments force organizations, if they are to survive and achieve competitive advantages, to contemplate their strategies and seize opportunities for continuous improvement and innovation in their products and services. Organizations failing to adjust or respond to the competitive environment in a timely fashion are at risk of losing market share, key employees and stakeholder support, perhaps even of ceasing to exist (Self & Schraeder, 2009).

Yet whilst change appears to be inevitable and a feature of contemporary organizations (Choi & Ruona, 2011), it seems that there is consensus among academics and researchers in support of the widely cited statistic that almost 70% of change initiatives fail (McKinsey & Company, 2008; Lyons *et al.*, 2009; Werkman, 2009; Jaros, 2010). These high failure rates become an increasing issue not only when initiating the change, but even a long time after successful change, as employees are likely to return to their old habits, so that most change efforts do not persist (Jacobs, 2002; Wilson & Kurz, 2008). Organizations need to make sure that the change initiative, whatever it might be, lasts long enough to attain its goals.

This study is concerned with how best to embed or institutionalize organizational change, in the context of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Thus, the main aim of this first chapter is to examine the general background to change management, followed by a rationalization for conducting the study, a statement of its aim and objectives, an overview of the country where the research is set, and an account of the scope of the study. The chapter concludes by outlining the structure of the thesis.

1.2 BACKGROUND

The field of change management has been examined by numerous scholars and academics (Thurlow & Mills, 2009), as well as practitioners who aim to manage change and bring success to their organizations. They vary in their emphasis on different aspects of change: highlighting what occurs in micro-level processes (Weick *et al.*, 2005; Rooney *et al.*, 2010; Thomas *et al.*, 2011), elucidating the role of choice (Pettigrew, 1990; Balogun & Hailey, 1999; Burnes, 2009; Lofquist, 2011) and illuminating the change process (Kotter, 1995; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Latta, 2009; Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010).

Notwithstanding the variety of these change models, success rates seem to be generally poor: Beer and Nohria (2000) have noted that about two-thirds of initiatives to change corporate culture, restructure, downsize or install new technology, for example, fail to achieve their ultimate goals, while Oakland and Tanner (2007) go much further, suggesting that only 10% of change programmes succeed. Accordingly, it cannot be said that managing change is effortless. Indeed, it has been argued that managing successful organizational change is one of the most important challenges facing organizations today (Burnes, 2009; Self & Schraeder, 2009).

The high failure rates of change initiatives should not be regarded as a problem for the Western world exclusively; Rees *et al.* (2011) suggest that failure rates in the Middle East are not very different from those in the West. Middle Eastern countries have been through remarkable changes in their political, economic and socio-cultural environments since the discovery of oil in 1973 (*ibid*). This remark applies to the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and to the wider Arab world, as evidenced by the recent protest movements and uprisings in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Yemen and Syria.

Consequently, it can be said that despite the richness of thought, theories and models on organizational change and its management, there is no valid framework specifying how to implement or manage change successfully (By, 2005). This view is supported by Burnes (2009: 3), who notes that “what is available is a wide range of confusing and contradictory theories”. Managers need an implicit and practical theory that tells them what to do and how to do it, but Andrews *et al.* (2008) argue that by their nature, organizational change theories are of limited usefulness for management practice.

From a practitioner's point of view, organizational change models not only offer useful insights into the content of organizational change, but also allow them to benefit from it by understanding better the process of change (Burke, 2011a). Similarly, Anderson (2012: 82) notes that each model has its unique characteristics, offering new thoughts and facilitating additional comprehension; thus, utilizing multiple models may uncover new aspects of a context, "since being overly wedded to one particular model may blind the practitioner to important information".

This seems to apply not only to the model being adopted, but equally to the approach being taken. Burnes (2009) contends that change management theory and practice draw on a number of social science disciplines and cannot be separated from other theories (e.g. education, learning, psychology and knowledge). Therefore, in order to understand change, practitioners need to see it from an interdisciplinary perspective. In this regard, as most of the change models are based on systems theory (i.e. conceiving of the organization as a system), Anderson (2012) suggests that besides the system approach, seeing organizations as socially constructed might produce useful and different ideas and conceptions to help practitioners to understand organizational change and enable them to choose the most appropriate intervention for a given situation, not the most fashionable. He further urges practitioners to be aware of the assumptions of the approach they take and the consequences of those assumptions.

According to Bamford & Forrester (2003), the planned approach to managing change has dominated theory and practice over the past fifty years. It attempts to explain organizational change as a process that moves the organization from an undesired or less desired state to a more desired one via a series of planned steps and actions (Burnes, 2009; Alfes, 2010). This approach originated in the pioneering work of Kurt Lewin (1947, 1951), whose contribution, from an organizational perspective, gave rise to the Organizational Development (OD) movement (Burnes, 2004b, 2009; Cummings & Worley, 2009; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). Lewin's original goal was to resolve social conflict in society, but in organizational terms could be translated into increasing the effectiveness of the human side through applied behavioural science (Burnes, 2009).

Although the simplicity of Lewin's work on the planned approach continues to inspire both academicians and practitioners, it has also attracted major criticisms, in the form of the emergent approach, whose advocates claim that a planned approach is suitable only for

small-scale and incremental change, since it presumes that organizations operate under constant conditions in a stable environment. They also argue that it is a management-driven approach to change which ignores situations and the role of power and politics in organizations (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Dawson, 1994; Burnes, 2004b; 2009). Another criticism of Lewin's approach to change (Kanter *et al.*, 1992) is that it views the organization as an ice cube, thus oversimplifying a highly complicated process, since real organizations can never be frozen.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, Lewin's classic three-step model of unfreezing, moving and refreezing has long been considered the key contribution to organizational change and the foundation of most of the later change process models (Dawson, 1994; Elrod & Tippet, 2002), as it is a broad model providing a general framework for understanding the change process; more recent contributors can be seen to have elaborated on it to make it more practical (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Indeed, Burnes (2004b) contends that Lewin's work is still applicable in and relevant to the contemporary world.

This study is mainly concerned with Lewin's concept of *refreezing*, which is regarded as the third and last step in the planned change process. However, given that the literature has commonly employed this term interchangeably with many others (discussed more rigorously in Section 3.2), this research will use the term 'institutionalization' for clarity and consistency. At this stage, it is necessary to ensure that the change has taken hold and has become part of the everyday activities of the organization on an ongoing basis, even if the catalyst for change (i.e. reward or motivation) has been removed (Jacobs, 2002). In this sense, the refreezing step must profoundly reinforce changes in the organization's culture, norms and routines so as to make it possible for behaviour to sustain itself over time and for the environment to become stable, which would inhibit any regression to the state prior to the change and thus attain long-term success (Wijen, 2007).

Yet how new behaviours persist or become institutionalized has not received much attention, particularly in the OD literature (Jacobs, 2002; Buchanan *et al.*, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Among the few studies which have attempted to understand this process of institutionalization is that of Cummings and Worley (2009), who provide a framework, identifying two influential sets of factors: the characteristics of organizations and interventions. Jacobs (2002) has also latterly built on this framework, accentuating the

pivotal role of cascade training. Further, Armenakis *et al.* (1993; 1999) offer a model of the five components of the change message, arguing that employees' sentiments and the five key beliefs exert substantial influence on the adoption and institutionalization of change. Other researchers have also been attracted to the subject, exemplified by studies of sustained best practice in organizations (Rimmer *et al.*, 1996) and of factors affecting the institutionalization of total quality management (Dale *et al.*, 1999).

1.3 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

This study is motivated by three basic considerations. The first is curiosity concerning the factors that make some changes in organizational practices and culture appear to be irreversible, while others collapse more or less immediately. Goodman and Dean (1982), Senge *et al.* (1999), Jacobs (2002) and Wilson and Kurz (2008) have all noted that even after good planning and initial success, the change initiatives of many organizations eventually fail. As Lewin (1951: 228) warns: "A change toward a higher level of group performance is frequently short lived; after a 'shot in the arm', group life soon returns to the previous level". This view is supported statistically by the consulting firm A. T. Kearney (1999, cited by Jacobs, 2002), which conducted a study of managers from 294 medium-sized European companies and found that only one in five change initiatives was perceived to be successful, while 63 percent of the remaining efforts achieved some improvements but failed to sustain them. Correspondingly, Goodman and Dean (1983) interviewed participants four to five years after they had conducted successful change initiatives that yielded positive results, concluding that only one third of the projects remained effective to the same degree, while the rest were in decay or demise.

These high failure rates of change initiatives and difficulties in sustaining change suggest the need for further investigation and continuous improvement in the field of organizational change management. This justifies the decision that the present research should seek an alternative approach, examining institutionalization from a different theoretical perspective, under the umbrella of OD. Thus, it would contribute to advancing the theoretical understanding of institutionalization by delving into two views of organizations: as open systems and as socially constructed. It is also anticipated that this study will have significant organizational importance, by enlightening managers as to the

substantial part that institutionalization can play in managing successful change and by offering them a useful map to guide them to better management practice.

The second motivating factor, as noted above, is the relative paucity of attention given to institutionalization in the literature (Jacobs, 2002; Buchanan *et al.*, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Buchanan *et al.* (2005) identify four reasons for this: (1) the nature and focus of change theories, which tend to be more concerned with the phase of moving and directing the change initiative, while sustainability is analyzed either with regard to environmental fit or as a sign of inertia, indicating a lack of appropriate intervention; (2) unlike change implementation, institutionalization needs longitudinal research and resources, which may not be available to many researchers; (3) researching institutionalization is less interesting than studying change and adds less value for managers; and (4) due to the dynamic environment, organizations that remain static are legitimate targets for change, so that institutionalization has been considered an obstacle to be overcome rather than a state to be attained. This research attempts to fill this gap by enriching the existing body of literature and offering a better understanding of institutionalization and its component processes.

The third consideration could be described as macro-contextual: the Middle East, as acknowledged, has witnessed fundamental changes in the political, economic and social spheres, which are likely to have substantially influenced the implementation of organizational change. Despite these changes, the region has been the subject of insufficient research, especially in terms of change management (Khassawneh, 2005; Rees & Althakhri, 2008). Therefore, the present study is expected to contribute contextually to the generalizability of the existing body of research in non-Western contexts, so as to enhance our understanding of theories of change and to test their validity. As noted, research in developing countries needs both to test the generalizability of theories and practice originating in Western culture and to develop alternative strategies for different cultural backgrounds (Aycan *et al.*, 2007).

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

In responding to the above rationale, this research aims to explore how best to institutionalize organizational change in the Middle Eastern context, and ultimately to develop a theoretical framework for institutionalization that incorporates three basic

conceptual elements: 1) institutionalization processes; 2) critical factors influencing the enactment of the institutionalization processes; and 3) strategies for institutionalizing change. This framework will later serve as guidance for this exploratory research in order to answer the research questions.

The following basic objectives will contribute to achieving the above research aim:

- To review perspectives on, and approaches to, organizational change and their relative merits, considering the open systems and social construction perspectives.
- To analyse various models used to explore institutionalization processes, drawing insights from institutional theory.
- To investigate strategies for institutionalizing change, with special reference to the change message.
- To identify critical factors and their characteristics influencing institutionalization in the Middle East context, with particular attention to and reflections on Arab culture.

1.5 RESEARCH CONTEXT: THE UAE

Since its establishment in 1971, the UAE has made fundamental progress in a relatively short period of time in the economic, political, social, scientific, health, educational, cultural, tourism, environmental and other fields. All of these achievements are the results not solely of the income derived from oil, but of a visionary and exceptional leader (Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, regarded as the founding father of the UAE), whose belief was that “oil is of no use unless it is used in the service of the people” (UAE Yearbook, 2013: 12). Since 1971, the country has continued to flourish and develop rapidly and successfully in a way that confirms its positive impact on the people living in the UAE, evinced by the World Happiness Report, conducted in 2012 by Columbia University’s Earth Institute, which placed the UAE first among Arab countries and seventeenth globally in terms of the population’s happiness and satisfaction (ibid).

This study assumes that every context is unique, that organizational change management cannot be studied separately from the special circumstances of the organization concerned and that it can be understood and managed only by considering the historical, economic, social and political characteristics of each context (Rosenzweig, & Nohria, 1994; Rowley

& Benson, 2002; Groeschl, 2003; Rees & Althakhri, 2008). As outlined above, the UAE is currently witnessing significant growth in its population and trade, challenging its government to adopt change in its performance in order to sustain development and ensure long-term success. This section therefore outlines the key historical, geographical, political and economic characteristics of the UAE. Although some cultural features of the Emirati people are represented, the impact of national (Arab) culture and of corporate culture on managing change will be discussed in more depth in chapter 2, but in the broader context of Middle East, due to the lack of relevant research data for the UAE.

1.5.1 Historical background

The UAE was formed from the various tribal groups which controlled the sheikhdoms of the Arabian Peninsula along the southern coast of the Arabian Gulf and the north-western coast of the Gulf of Oman, mainly drawn from two tribes: the Qawasim and the Bani Yas, regarded as leading powers in the eighteenth century. From the 17th to 19th centuries, the area was known as the Pirate Coast, as it attracted the attention of both European and Arab pirates, who would attack foreign ships. As a consequence, the British initiated expeditions against the pirate headquarters of Ras al-Khaymah and other harbours along the coast in 1818. This initiative was ostensibly intended to defend and preserve British maritime routes, particularly those of the British East India Company, but some historians have claimed that the underlying motivation was the British government's wish to establish supremacy in the region against the claims of other European powers (Library of Congress, 2007: 2).

Britain's declaration of its intention to withdraw from the Arabian Gulf by the end of 1971 led the late Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan and the late Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum to call for the establishment of a federation comprising seven emirates as well as Qatar and Bahrain, which together had hitherto constituted the Trucial States. When, after negotiations among these parties, the federation of the UAE was formally established on 2 December 1971, however, it comprised only six emirates, namely Abu Dhabi (the capital), Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm al-Qaiwain, and Fujairah. These were joined on 10 February 1972 by a seventh emirate, Ras al-Khaimah (UAE Yearbook, 2013).

1.5.2 Geography and demography

The UAE is situated towards the south-east of the Arabian Peninsula (Figure 1.1 shows a map of the UAE), occupying a roughly triangular landmass whose coastlines form the south and south-eastern shores of the Arabian Gulf and part of the western shore of the Gulf of Oman. It has land borders with the Sultanate of Oman to the north and east (410 kilometres) and with the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the west and south (457 km). Thus, the UAE occupies a regionally critical strategic location, between latitudes 26.08 to 22.5° N and longitudes 55.5 to 58.37° E, along the southern approaches to the Straits of Hormuz, which has given the country an economic advantage, as it lies on the trade routes between Asian and European countries (Abdulla *et al.*, 2011). The total land area of the UAE is 83,600 sq. km, Abu Dhabi accounting for 87% of the landmass. The UAE has a tropical desert climate, warm and sunny in winter, hot and humid in summer. Average rainfall is as little as 100 mm annually, but varies significantly across the country, with higher rainfall in the eastern mountains, where it is also usually cooler (UAE at Glance, 2009; Library of Congress, 2007).



Figure 1.1: Map of the UAE

Source: http://www.emirates.org/the_country.html

The population of the UAE was estimated at the end of 2010 to be 8,264,070 million, up from 4.76 million in 2008, recording an annual growth of 6.3%, which locates the country

among those with the highest population growth rates in the world (UAE Yearbook, 2013). This growth, however, does not represent UAE citizens alone, but is mainly attributable to the immigrant workers who compose the bulk of the UAE population. Collectively, these non-nationals or expatriates made up about 80% of the total population in 2007 (UAE at Glance, 2009). Table 1.1 shows a breakdown of recent population figures.

Table 1.1: Estimated demography of the UAE

Population	4.488 million (est. 2007); 4.760 million (est. 2008); 5.06 million (est. 2009); 8,264 million (est. 2010)
Nationals	947,997 (est. 2010)
Non-nationals	7,316,073 (est. 2010)
Males	6,161,820 (est. 2010)
Females	2,102,250 (est. 2010)
Annual population growth rate	6.31% (est. 2008-2009)
National population growth rate	3.4% (est. 2008-2009)
Most populous emirate	Abu Dhabi: over 2.5 million in 2013
Least populous emirate	Umm al-Qaiwain: 56,000 (est. 2009)
UAE women participating in the labour force	Approximately 42.60% in 2012, compared to 30% in 2009

Source: UAE at Glance (2009: 6); UAE Yearbook (2013)

The above figures show that UAE nationals are strongly outnumbered by the expatriates who have come in large numbers to both fuel and benefit from the recent economic boom. This influx of expatriate workers, largely in the private sector and in the construction industry in particular, constitutes a demographic challenge that has compelled the UAE government to adopt a nationalization strategy, called *Emiratisation*, to increase the participation of locals, particularly women, in the workforce (Al-Ali, 2008; Randeree, 2009). Thus, the Federal Demographic Council was established in November 2009 to maintain a balance in the demographic structure and to conduct research on the basis of which the government would be able to develop national policy and initiate strategies, based on integrated data, to strengthen the loyalty of UAE citizens to their leaders and homeland (UAE Yearbook, 2013).

1.5.3 Political system

The UAE is a federation of seven sheikhdoms and its system of government is based on four main institutions: the Supreme Council, the Council of Ministers, the Federal National

Council (FNC) and the Federal Judiciary. The Supreme Council is the highest federal authority and its members are the hereditary rulers of the seven emirates. “It has the power to decide policy, elect the federal President and his deputy, admit new members to the federation, and appoint and dismiss the Prime Minister and the judges of the Federal Supreme Court” (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008: 4). The president should always be the leader of Abu Dhabi and accordingly, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan was concurrently elected for a five-year term by the Supreme Council in 2004, after his father’s death. The Council of Ministers is headed by the prime minister and has always met in Dubai. Its basic duty is to initiate legislation, which must then be approved by the Supreme Council (ibid; Grant *et al.*, 2007; UAE at Glance, 2009).

The FNC has 40 members drawn from the seven emirates on the basis of their relative population sizes. Its powers are very limited, its main role being to review and comment on legislation related to the Council of Ministers. Recently, however, in response to the challenges of development, in order to enhance public satisfaction and to keep up to date with the best practice in administration and services, major steps have been taken to reform the structure of government at both federal and executive levels. For example, in December 2006, the first election was held for half of the FNC (20 members), while the rulers of the emirates appointed the other half. This step was considered to have opened the door for women to expand their participation in politics and government. Thus, the number of women on the FNC was increased to nine, representing almost a quarter of the total. Notwithstanding this reform, the power and authority of FNC members are very limited, as they can neither make new laws nor change those introduced by the rulers (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008; UAE at Glance, 2009). Indeed, Grant *et al.* (2007: 510) state that notwithstanding the UAE’s “balanced legislative and judicial system, the most significant policy matters are decided by the ruling families of the seven emirates”.

It is noteworthy that beside the federal institutions, each emirate has its own local government, providing services locally. 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. Interestingly, the government of the UAE is still influenced by the traditional approach whereby leaders maintain power only as long as the people support them, and where people have open access to their rulers. This is manifest in the frequent meetings between citizens and rulers through the institution of the *majlis*, in which

participants raise topics of interest or concern, forming a direct democracy (UAE Yearbook, 2013). Nonetheless, such direct democracy seems to be suitable only for very small countries; given the high population growth rate, the government tends to encourage people to deal directly with the institutions concerned on most matters, rather than seeking personal meetings with their rulers (ibid).

1.5.4 Economy

Forty years ago, the UAE was a region of small sheikhdoms living on fishing, pearling, herding and agriculture, whereas it is now a rich country, based on its status as the world's third largest producer of crude oil (2.2 million barrels per day), the sixth largest in oil reserves (97.8 billion barrels) and the fifth largest in natural gas reserves (6 trillion cubic metres). The Emirate of Abu Dhabi, whose capital city is also the capital of the UAE, is economically dominant, producing 95% of the country's oil and gas output, whereas in the neighbouring Emirate of Dubai, a decline in oil production since 1990 has motivated a concentration on commerce, finance and tourism (UAE at Glance, 2009).

Indeed, while the UAE economy remains heavily dependent on oil and gas production, initiatives have been progressively made to widen the scope for diversification and expansion in non-oil sectors. It can be said that the first step in creating a competitive business environment in the UAE was taken in 1995, when it agreed to join the World Trade Organization. This has since had fundamental consequences, benefiting domestic services such as tourism, transport, banking, construction, investment, communications and information. Another substantial step was taken when the UAE established free trade zones such as the Jebel Ali Free Zone in Dubai and the Jebel Azannh and Aruways Free Zone. The no-tax policy and soft regulation in these zones, along with the strategic location of the UAE, facilitated investment in manufacturing and enabled the country to become a business hub for trade and export (Grant *et al.*, 2007).

By contrast, the agricultural sector has made little contribution to the nominal gross domestic product, mainly because of the UAE's poor climate. Accepting that self-sufficiency in food is unobtainable, the UAE is now investing in agricultural land in other countries such as Sudan and Pakistan to secure food supplies (Grant *et al.*, 2007). Meanwhile, the industrial sector, because of the boom in construction, has become the

fastest growing part of the economy, averaging 15% in real terms since 2003 (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008).

1.5.5 Cultural features

The UAE is an Arab and Muslim country. The official language is Arabic, although English is widespread and commonly used across the country (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2008). When greeting each other, Muslims are expected to say *Assalamo Alaikum*, which means, “May peace be upon you and may God’s blessings be with you”. Hofstede (n.d.) notes some specific behavioural aspects of Emirati society that contrast with those of other cultural backgrounds, for example:

- Traditional greeting between men involves grasping each other’s right hand because the left hand is considered unclean.
- Crossing the legs when sitting, or showing the bottom of the shoe or foot is offensive.
- Gifts are expected, appreciated, and should be opened in private.
- The subject of women is always avoided and is not discussed among men.
- Meetings are normally interrupted by phone calls or a visit from family.
- It is preferred to remove the shoes before entering any house or building.
- It is not uncommon to see men walking hand in hand, as it is a sign of friendship.

Social life in the UAE is fundamentally influenced by the values and the teachings of Islam, as well as by local culture, traditions and customs, as indicated by Simadi (2006), who finds that religious and cognitive values have priority among young adult Emiratis. Suliman (2006: 64) also specifies six layers of culture that affect work values and reflect on human resources, policies and practices in the UAE. These are: 1) regional, including religion, language and history; 2) national; 3) generation; 4) social class; 5) gender; and 6) organizational culture. Table 1.2 summarizes the value orientation of the UAE.

Table 1.2: Value orientation of the UAE

Aspects	Characteristics
General ethical orientation	Personalistic and particularistic
Authority	Highly respected
Interpersonal relationships	Group oriented
Status and prestige	Very high concern
Social structure	Very high degree of vertical (kinship) & lateral (class) stratification

Source: Suliman (2006: 64)

From the above review of key characteristics of the UAE, it is quite clear that almost every aspect of life in the country has undergone extraordinary and thoroughgoing change. This indicates the need for clear vision and strategy to reform organizations and to improve their administrative capabilities; it also highlights the potential role of organizational change management and development in bringing about both individual and organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Institutionalizing such efforts is seen as essential to enhance efficiency and profitability, to ensure continuity and to make sure that changes become permanent. Hence, the UAE seems to be an appropriate context for this research, which justifies its choice as a setting for the study.

1.6 SCOPE OF RESEARCH

Three factors constitute the boundaries of this research. First, the primary focus of this study is on the institutionalization of change, which could be treated as a subtopic or a single stage in the multiple processes of organizational change; hence, this research is specific in that it considers only the critical factors that affect the process of institutionalization and the strategies directly related to institutionalization. These factors and strategies are thus analysed and examined only from the perspective of institutionalization, so that the research focuses on the role of leadership in sustaining behaviour, rather than in creating vision, mission and so on. Second, given the impact of the external environment, including the political system and economic factors, this research is limited to the intra-organizational level of analysis. Third, it focuses on the soft side of the organization, since its ultimate concern is with the behaviour of individuals.

1.7 RESEARCH STRUCTURE

This thesis has seven chapters, which can be summarised as follows:

- **Chapter 1: Introduction**

This chapter provides an overview of the research background and examines the theories and approaches of organizational change. It also identifies the gap addressed by the research, sets out its significance and states its aim, objectives and scope. Finally, it outlines the research context of the UAE.

- **Chapter 2: Organizational Change: Theories, Approaches & Context**

The second chapter distinguishes between open systems and socially constructed organizations. Both metaphors are reviewed with special reference to the potential of the latter for providing practitioners with useful insights leading potentially to better management practice. The chapter also makes a comparison between planned and emergent approaches to change, recognising the strengths and weaknesses of each. It ends by analysing the applicability of organizational theories and models in contexts which differ from those of the West; issues related to the Middle Eastern setting are therefore considered.

- **Chapter 3: Institutionalization of Change**

The third chapter reviews the literature specifically concerned with institutionalization. Thus, it begins by discussing the concept of institutionalization and the issues surrounding it. Next, it examines the use of institutional theory to explore the institutionalization process. Critical factors influencing this process are identified so as to address the question of why some changes in organizations become institutionalized, whereas others decay. Finally, in order to begin to determine how to institutionalize change effectively, the chapter investigates the strategies that can enable managers to institutionalize change initiatives. All of these insights into the processes, factors and strategies related to institutionalization are used to construct a framework to serve as an instrument to design this research, considering the theoretical and practical aspects of institutionalization.

- **Chapter 4: Research Methodology**

The fourth chapter describes and justifies the research design and methodology adopted in this study, including research paradigm, research strategy and methods of data collection and analysis. It revisits the research aim and objectives in order to develop research questions, before presenting the research setting, then it specifies the steps followed in conducting each method. Finally, some ethical issues are addressed.

- **Chapter 5: Quantitative Analysis**

The fifth chapter presents the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire findings according to each research question. It also examines the relationships between main themes using advanced inferential statistics (i.e. the Pearson correlation coefficient test). The independent samples *t*-test is used to compare means and explore the variations between groups by gender, experience, rank, qualification and department.

- **Chapter 6: Qualitative Analysis**

The sixth chapter offers a thematic analysis of the interview findings according to the research questions, potentially explaining some of the questionnaire findings. The interviews were conducted with 17 police officers in key managerial positions, in order to gauge their opinions, experiences and perceptions of the existing strategies for institutionalizing the quality management system (QMS), as well as the role and characteristics of the factors influencing institutionalization.

- **Chapter 7: Discussion & Conclusion**

The final chapter aims to summarise the whole thesis by offering a general overview of the research study and recapitulating the aim, objectives and research questions. Next, it discusses comprehensively the empirical findings of the survey and interviews, comparing them with previous research and existing theories to see how compatible they are. The implications and limitations of the study are then summarised, theoretical and practical contributions to knowledge are highlighted and opportunities for future research are identified. The researcher concludes with a personal reflection on his PhD journey.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: THEORIES, APPROACHES & CONTEXT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in the first chapter, while there are numerous theories and models of organizational change, the failure rate of change initiatives is extremely high (Lyons *et al.*, 2009; Werkman, 2009; Jaros, 2010). This is not meant, however, to put the blame on the available approaches to change, nor to testify to the worthlessness of chosen models, but simply to advise those aspiring to manage change properly to be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of each approach and the context in which each can fit and best be applied (Burnes, 2009). Having said this, theories and models of organizational change vary according to their underlying theoretical assumptions and beliefs about organizations (Anderson, 2012). Hence, understanding the content, process and context of organizational change may not be enough to comprehend the nature of change; we also need to understand how organizations work in the first place.

The basic purpose of this chapter is to review and discuss the theoretical foundations of organizations and organizational change so as to explore the nature of change, how it occurs and how it has been perceived and managed, paying particular attention to the context of organizational change. All of these insights would serve well in providing a broad introduction that enhances our understanding of organizational change in general, facilitating the analysis in chapter 3 regarding the institutionalizing of change in particular. Thus, the present chapter commences by distinguishing between two ways of looking at organizations, drawn from studies on organizational theory: as open systems and as socially constructed. It will then analyse the two fundamental approaches to managing change: the planned and emergent approaches. Finally, it will examine the applicability of such theories to international contexts; given the setting of the present study in the UAE, cultural issues that might arise in a Middle Eastern context will be considered.

2.2 PERSPECTIVES ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: OPEN SYSTEMS vs. SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION

2.2.1 Introduction

For years, the idea of social construction has been interwoven with systemic thinking, but the literature on change management and its models have tended to be grounded in open systems theory, which in turn is rooted in the life sciences (Burke, 2011a). Therefore, in order to capture the complexity of change and for the purpose of this research, this section considers two contrasting views of organizations: as open systems and as socially constructed. It is hoped that viewing organizations from both angles will expand the scope of understanding of the phenomenon under study and allow it to be pictured more clearly, as each perspective will provide its own useful insights, complementary to those of the other. Thus, this section aims to describe the two views of organizations and to discuss their usefulness and limitations from the standpoint of organizational change. For the purpose of comparing and contrasting these views, this section takes a relatively integrative structure, focusing the discussion first on open systems, then on organizations as social constructions, before considering the value of each for OD and their application to change resistance. It ends with a contrastive summary.

2.2.2 Characteristics of open systems

Complex organizational change starts with systems thinking, distinguishing between closed and open systems. The classical closed system approach “assumes that organizations are self-contained entities with no connection to their outside world” (Mayhew, 2006: 106). In this sense, the main focus of a closed system is on internal structures and dynamics, putting more value on things such as its charts, division of labour, controls, procedures or community. This insular way of thinking seems to act as a barrier for organizations, as it separates them from the external environment and thus prevents them from anticipating change when the need becomes apparent. On the other hand, organizations as open systems conceive themselves to be embedded in a web of relationships with the dynamic environment, by which they gain a comprehensive picture and become more proactive with regard to the opportunities and threats facing them. Internal structures are less rigid in such open systems, seen instead as flexible, adjustable and able to respond to continuously changing conditions (ibid).

The model of organizations as open systems is not new, but emerged originally from general systems theory, which had been used in the natural and physical sciences for years before the 1960s, when its perspective was first adapted by organizational theorists such as Katz and Kahn (1966). The rationale they introduced is that organizational and natural systems share common patterns and characteristics. For instance, an organization and a biological cell are open systems, because each relies for survival on its external environment, with which each interconnects and interacts, and in which each exists (Burke, 2011a). In detail, while plants take energy (sunlight) and chemicals such as water and carbon dioxide from their environment for use in photosynthesis in order to produce oxygen and food, organizations similarly need raw materials, money and labour (inputs), which they transform (throughput) into products or services (output). Some sort of feedback process is then critical to provide information which will enable the system to make appropriate modifications, rendering the organization proactively adaptive to environmental conditions so that it can maintain equilibrium (Mullins, 2007; Hayes, 2010). Accordingly, organizations as systems can best be described in terms of a cyclical process of input-throughput-output, with a feedback loop that connects output to both input and throughput (ibid).

These processes need certain functioning procedures and rules to help the overall organizational system and its subsystems to fulfil their roles properly. Having said that, organizational subsystems are not separate, but interconnected and interdependent, as each depends on another (e.g. human resources depend on finance to pay the training fees) so that any changes imposed on any part will have multiplied effects in others across the organization. Thus, it can be said that an organization is not just the sum or collection of its separate units, but represents an entity composed of all its parts integrated together (Morgan, 1998; Mullins, 2007; Hayes, 2010; Burke, 2011a). In short, organizations are seen to be open in two respects: externally with the environment, and internally through the interconnectedness of their units, which means that any change in any part will affect all others to some degree.

2.2.3 Organizational change and open systems

The open systems approach and its principles have been used and analysed by various schools including Systems Design, which utilises the concept to construct the best organization possible, and Contingency Theory, which highlights the challenges to

organizations which fit it to its environment (Scott, 2003). Likewise, the concept of open systems has had a substantial impact on understanding the dynamics of organizational change. Hence, many models based on this approach have been proposed in the organizational change literature as ways to explain how change occurs and how it can be managed, including the Weisbord Six-Box model (1976), the Nadler-Tushman congruence model (1983), and the Burke-Litwin model (1992). All of these models explain that change can be managed successfully if the basic components of the organization fit together and the entire system is adapted to the external environment.

Burke (2011a) argues that the basic aim of change should be systemic, for three reasons, the first being that managing change needs a total system approach, because if any changes occur in some aspects of the system, other aspects will eventually be affected; thus, failing to address the impact and consequences of the change on these will likely result in failure. Second, the systemic target is often the organizational culture, rather than individual behaviours, since the latter are predominantly determined by group norms (Lewin, 1951). This is why the advocates of the total system approach always call for the integration of change efforts into the corporate culture, which represents the extent to which the features, operations and characteristics of one system enhance the effectiveness of another (Cummings and Worley, 2009). In support of this view, Burnes (2009) and Morgan (1998) assert that open systems conceptualise an organization as a socio-technical system that calls for an appropriate matching between the social part of the organization and the technical one. The third reason for organizational change to be systematic is related to the specific property of systems called “negative entropy”, meaning that organizations under certain conditions would cease to survive; the open systems organization should be able to import from its environment more energy than it expends and store the surplus energy in case of any future shortage, e.g. by retaining some money from profits to maintain functioning even if sales decline.

Having thus described the first view of organizations, i.e. as open systems, let us examine the second view to determine what additional insights the social construction perspective can offer with regard to organizational change.

2.2.4 Organizations as socially constructed

The view of organizations as socially constructed represents a relatively recent evolution of organizational theories and studies, emerging over the last three decades. According to this perspective, “organisations are not exactly things at all, but ... the organisation is really a concept developed out of our own actions and language” (Anderson, 2012: 76). An organization is never a settled entity that can be labelled or described; rather, it is constantly constructed through the interactions of its members with others at any one moment (Campbell, 2000). Thus, the social construction perspective of organizational change seems to be more concerned with what the change means to people and how they make sense of it, privileging the role of language and discourse (Weick & Quinn, 1999; Weick *et al.*, 2005; Ford & Ford, 2008; Anderson, 2012). In this sense, it can be said that the organization is continuously changing and developing itself through the interactions going on within it.

In recent years, an increasing interest in this concept and a growing body of literature on it have led to the construction of a paradigm called *Institutional Theory* (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Scott, 2005), which conceptualizes the organization as a product of social reality, constructed by human interactions, symbolic and relational systems, routines and artefacts, as well as focusing on the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. The literature on institutional theory tends to be dichotomised into two main streams: old institutional economics (Burns & Scapens, 2000) and new institutional sociology (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Moll *et al.*, 2006). The latter takes a more holistic approach, providing “an enriched conceptualization of the environment and how this may impinge on organizations” (Ribeiro & Scapens, 2006: 97), while the former tends to be useful to micro-level studies concerned with the individual organization and the intra-organizational aspects of change (ibid; Burns & Scapens, 2000).

Institutional theory is also interested in human interactions and considers the processes by which structures, including schemas, rules, norms and routines, become established as authoritative guidance for social behaviour (Scott, 2005), highlighting the roles of rules and routines in the change process (Burns & Scapens, 2000), expressing the importance of discourse analysis (Phillips *et al.*, 2004), wondering how ideals are transformed into discourse (Hasselbladh & Kallinikos, 2000) and explaining how and why organizational logics compete with each other (Reay & Hinings, 2009). Hence, institutional theory

appears to be another source of knowledge from which OD practitioners can draw valuable insights.

The next subsection will examine the practical implications for OD practitioners of the two broad views of organizations sketched above: systems theory and social construction.

2.2.5 Value for OD practitioners

Anderson (2012) argues that OD practitioners benefit from both of the above perspectives. Systems theory can be useful in a number of ways: first, it helps OD practitioners to pay attention to the aspects of the system (i.e. roles or structures) that encourage certain behaviour patterns. For example, if a call centre regularly measures the number of calls received per hour, then call-takers may feel compelled to complete calls quickly, at the expense of customer satisfaction; or when job descriptions are narrowly defined, no one is likely to take the initiative to address an emergent problem, as every employee acts strictly in accordance with what the system requires him or her to do. Thus, systems theory highlights role-based interactional behaviours, rather than the single isolated actions of an individual. Second, understanding the dynamics of the system helps OD practitioners to take a more holistic perspective and gives them clues about where to start their interventions, since the target of the change is the whole system, not the individual or the group. In other words, OD interventions should relate the problem to the system, not to individuals, as research shows that different people will perform homogeneously within the same system (Senge, 1990). Third, taking systemic issues into account will enable OD practitioners to be more cautious and aware of the consequences of their interventions, calling for a holistic analysis because changing one part of the system will result in changes in others, thus allowing undesirable outcomes to be anticipated and addressed.

Like systems theory, the social construction perspective appears to be invaluable for OD practitioners in several ways (Anderson, 2012). Firstly, it offers useful (but different) explanations for human behaviours, instead of being confined to systemic thinking; based on input from the environment, this perspective not only helps OD practitioners to articulate the complexities of collecting and interpreting the information that is used to make the decision, but also directs their attention to the cultural process of sensemaking that is transmitted to their actions. Secondly, it recognises the active role and choice that employees make in creating and designing the organizational system and the relationships

between them. Thirdly, it considers the importance of communication in creating change—not only the words and their context, but also the interpretative process by which we make sense of them. Fourthly, besides its perspective on organizational change as ignited by changes in meaning and logic, and emerging from communication patterns, it also sees change as a continuous process, rather than a discrete event, since it is concerned with what the change means to people, given that this meaning may alter at any point in time.

As it can be seen, OD practitioners may vary in their understandings of the change process according to their basic assumptions about organizations and how they work in the first place. This applies not only to their practical interventions, however, but also to their initial interpretations of the causes of change recipients' reactions. This is the case with perceiving resistance to change, as the next subsection will demonstrate.

2.2.6 Conceptualising resistance to change

The concept of resistance to change differs according to one's perspective on organizations. The phenomenon has been commonly portrayed as a negative attitude and reaction towards change. Hence, resistance has been described as any behaviour that “slows down” or “terminates” a change effort (Lines, 2004: 198), deliberately or unintentionally, covertly or overtly (O'Connor, 1993; Bovey & Hede, 2001). Resistance has also been conceptualized beyond the behavioural dimension; for instance, Oreg (2006) suggests that it may involve what change recipients think about the change (its value, its advantages versus shortcomings, benefits versus harms), reflecting the cognitive dimension of resistance, as well as what they feel about it (e.g. anxiety, fear, stress, enthusiasm, content), which relates to the affective dimension. In capturing the intricacy of this concept, Piderit (2000) argues that resistance should be treated as a tridimensional attitude and that individuals may function in all three dimensions (behavioural, cognitive and emotional) concurrently or even opposingly. For example, one could believe in the value that change might bring and yet, at the same time, be afraid of being unable to meet new challenges.

Notwithstanding the recognition of the above dimensions, the systemic approach to change seems to entail another view; according to Lewin's Force Field Analysis, resistance is a set of constraining forces that can affect any part of the whole organizational system. From this perspective, resistance is a systemic phenomenon that occurs only when there is a lack

of appropriate OD interventions (Dent & Goldberg, 1999); thus, resistance can be avoided via the proper design of suitable interventions. This may explain why the majority of OD textbooks do not devote much attention to discussing this phenomenon.

On the other hand, the social construction perspective assumes that individual behaviour is socially constructed and subject to the dominant organizational logic and assumptions. Institutional logic refers to “the organizing principles that shape the behavior of field participants” (Reay & Hinings, 2009: 631), which “provide the formal and informal rules of actions and interpretations that guide and constrain decision makers” (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999: 804). Thus, human behaviour, according to this view “is driven not so much by the enforcement of norms and values (a more regulative and normative approach), but by unconscious and un-reflected behaviour based on classifications, routines, scripts, and schemas in the minds of individuals” (Baptista, 2009: 308). In this regard, Burns and Scapens (2000: 6) present two fundamental concepts: habits and routines. For them, habits are personal phenomena, whereas routines “represent the patterns of thought and action which are habitually adopted by groups of individuals”. They argue that individual actors might not always seek rational choices and evaluate available alternatives for their actions; instead, they justify their attitudes in the light of previously established and socially accepted rules of behaviour. Accordingly, repeated behaviour based on such rules may become programmatic and transformed into tacit knowledge, i.e. a set of routines.

According to the above perspective, individuals are apt to resist change if the new arrangements clash with their prevailing rules, meanings or unconsciously accepted routines; conversely, changes that do not challenge their predominant habitualised behaviours are easier to accommodate (Guerreiro *et al.*, 2006; Ribeiro & Scapens, 2006). Apparently, an interaction or even a contest between logics occurs, leading to the replacement of less powerful or unsuitable coexisting logics with emerging or recombined ones that bring about new types of action (Rupidara & McGraw, 2010). This process of social interaction depends not only on the degree of legitimacy of the competing ideas and interests, but also on the extent to which the actors have enough power to intervene in such processes (Guerreiro *et al.*, 2006). This raises the need to examine the existing routines and institutions for OD practitioners to study resistance to change prior to any intervention (Burns and Scapens, 2000).

2.2.7 Filling the gaps: A summary

From the above discussion, it can be seen that both open systems theory and the social construction perspective (summarised in Table 2.1) are useful metaphors that enhance our understanding and facilitate our functioning in a given context.

Table 2.1: Summary of key differences between the two views of organizations

Views of Organizations	Open System Theory	Social Construction Perspective
How they see organizations	Organizations are open: externally to the environment to which they adapt, and internally through the interconnectedness of their units.	An organization is really a concept developed out of our own actions and language.
How organizations work	Cyclical input-throughput-output process, a feedback loop. Any change in any part will affect the others, so integration is needed.	Constantly constructed through the interactions of its employees with others at any one moment.
How change is perceived	1) Stimulated by changes in external environment; 2) discrete or episodic; 3) rational.	1) Ignited by changes in meaning and logic, emerging from communication patterns; 2) complex; 3) continuous.
How resistance is perceived	A set of constraining forces that can be avoided via the proper design of suitable interventions.	A clash between new situation and employees' prevailing rules of meanings and unconsciously accepted routines.
OD interventions	Should relate the problem to the system, not individuals, calling for a holistic analysis.	Should concentrate on what the change means to people and how they make sense of it, considering the importance of communication and interpretation in creating change.
Considerations	Organizations are rational, purposeful, adaptive and non-political entities.	Recognizes: 1) active role of lower-level employees; 2) power and interests of multiple actors; 3) language and discourse.

Source: The author

Yet, while open systems theory highlights the systemic nature of change, appreciates the interconnectedness of organization's subsystems and speaks of them adapting to their environment, the social construction perspective helps us to make sense of the way social reality is formulated from the voices of many people around the world (Campbell, 2000). Therefore, it seems reasonable for Anderson (2012: 78) to contend that "the social construction perspective fills in the missing elements of systems theory to provide a richer and more dynamic view of how organisations work". The following discussion provides further evidence in support of this view.

One of the main critiques of the systemic approach to change is related to its core assumptions of organizations as "rational and non-political entities", meaning that its models are based on a rationalist perspective which assumes that individuals will always

respond enthusiastically to their managers' commands, as if they were automatons (Graetz & Smith, 2010: 146). This rational thinking is limited, because it takes for granted that organizations are purposeful and adaptive, as well as perceiving change as a discrete and temporary disturbance that needs to be sustained and controlled, neglecting the fact that change is a natural and inherently continuous phenomenon (ibid; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). Moreover, rational philosophy assumes that change is internally driven by top management and can be brought about at any pace and on any scale as a linear process, perceiving organizational members merely as change recipients who can do nothing except adopt or resist (Graetz & Smith, 2010).

In contrast, models of organizational change compatible with a social construction viewpoint see change in a quite different way. Indeed, they question the very structures that systems theory assumes when locating organizational change in categories (i.e. leadership, structure and reward) and whether calling them "models" is appropriate for our understanding (Anderson, 2012: 79). Weick (1995) introduces the concept of *sensemaking*, which conceptualises organizational change as something derived and developed from continual interactions and conversations among its members, by whom the social reality is constructed. Such a view should be privileged for several reasons: it recognises how messy and unpredictable change can be; it rethinks the concept of organizational change by emphasising the role of cognitive schemata, dialogue, communication and interpretative mechanisms; it highlights the conception of change as a continuous phenomenon rather than an episodic one, since people's meanings may shift at various points in time; and it appreciates the active role that lower-level employees may have in initiating and directing change, which indicates that change involves multiple actors, rather than a single manager or change agent.

The above has so far reviewed two ways of looking at organizations and their relative merits as ways of approaching organizational change. Now it is time to move on to examine how change has been handled; thus, the next section appraises approaches to managing change.

2.3 MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: PLANNED vs. EMERGENT APPROACHES

2.3.1 Introduction

Although there is no one agreed, definite and practical approach to managing organizational change, given that different authors apply different terminology when describing the same phenomenon or approach (first/second order, revolutionary/evolutionary, etc), the literature on change management seems to be dominated, in terms of how change comes about, by a dichotomy between planned and emergent approaches to change (Coram & Burnes, 2001; Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 1996, 2009; Kickert, 2010; Bright & Godwin, 2010; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). This section compares and contrasts these two approaches by describing their salient features and underlining the strengths and weaknesses of each.

2.3.2 Planned approach

The planned approach to managing change has dominated theory and practice over the past fifty years (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). As its name suggests, the core assumption of theories and models based on this approach is that change is intended (not emergent) and can be successfully planned and primarily orchestrated by change managers, from whom the change is derived and by whom it is planned and anticipated. Thus, organizations are seen as mechanical systems (Morgan, 1998) which are directed toward compliance with a hierarchical and predetermined vision by those who have the power to exert control over organizational activities (Bright & Godwin, 2010). In this sense, not only is planned change hierarchical (controlled) in nature, but it is also predictable and its consequences anticipated. Therefore, the planned approach to change is helpful and even preferable for managers, as it provides them with guidance and sets a clear direction to take series of steps and actions, by which the organization goes through process that moves it from an undesired or less desired state to a more satisfactory one (Burnes, 2009; Cummings & Worley, 2009).

The planned approach originated in the seminal work of social psychologist Kurt Lewin (1947, 1951), who developed a model for change consisting of three phases through which people in organizations go about changing: unfreezing, moving and refreezing. Lewin's original goal was to resolve social conflict in society by changing group behaviour, but in

organizational terms it could be translated into increasing the effectiveness of human activity through applied behavioural science. Therefore, the key contribution for which Lewin has been credited is his promotion of an ethical and humanistic approach to change, elucidating the role of learning and participation. Table 2.2 summarises some theoretical and practical contributions of his influential work on the planned approach (Field Theory, Group Dynamics, Action Research and the 3-Step model).

Table 2.2: Lewin's work on the planned approach

Lewin's Work	Theoretical Contribution	Practical Contribution
Field Theory	Its key value is to understand and change group behaviour. Lewin postulated that group behaviour is an intricate set of symbolic interactions and forces that not only affect group structures, but also modify individual behaviour. Hence, individual behaviour is a function of the group environment or 'field', and thus stems from changes in the forces within the field.	Force field analysis helps to identify two sets of forces: those striving to maintain the status quo and those pushing for change. Interventions are then designed to modify these forces to bring about change.
Group Dynamics	Lewin was the first psychologist to write about 'group dynamics'. To him, dynamics refers to the forces that operate in groups and shape the norms, beliefs and values of its members. This theory has not only laid the foundation for our understanding of groups but has also been linked to complexity theories.	Interventions must focus on the group level to create disequilibrium. Then there is a need to provide a participative process through which members can be committed to changing their behaviour.
Action Research	He introduced the terminology of 'felt need', which relates to the individuals' realisation that change is necessary. His work on action research has also laid the foundation for the planned approach to change, which holds that change can only be achieved through planned processes and actions. Action research further promotes the humanistic and democratic approach to change by emphasising learning and participation in the collaborative process.	This model is based on two major components: 1) it stresses that change requires action; 2) 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.
Three-Step Model	Along with action research, the 3-step model expresses the pioneering work of Lewin on behavioural science, which latterly led to the creation of the OD movement. This model has also been considered to be the foundation of most of the later change process models, since it is a broad model providing a general framework for understanding the change process; more recent contributors can be seen to have elaborated on it to make it more practical.	The 3-step model can serve as guidance for practitioners to follow three basic steps: 1) <i>Unfreezing</i> . Recognising the need for change is important to weaken those forces maintaining the organization's equilibrium and reduce resistance; 2) <i>Moving</i> . Apply the change by shifting old behaviours and introduce new values or beliefs; 3) <i>Refreezing</i> . Stabilize the group at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviours are relatively safe from regression.

Adapted from Burnes (2004b)

Although his works tend to be treated separately and as independent elements by his critics, “Lewin saw them as a unified whole ... [that is] necessary to understand and bring about planned change” (Burnes, 2004b: 981).

2.3.3 Challenges to planned change

Despite the popularity of the planned approach, it has attracted many criticisms since the 1980s (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Dawson, 1994; By, 2005; Burnes, 2004b, 2009; Bright & Godwin, 2010; Nasim & Sushil, 2011), the first being that it assumes that organizations operate in a stable and predictable environment (static context), moving from one state to another via preplanned steps. This seems to neglect the dynamic and complex nature of the external environment, which may actually make planning very difficult. Thus, Styhre (2002) argues that an organization’s external environment at the time of refreezing might not be the same as at the time of its unfreezing. Moreover, being too literal in planning change via a linear process might hinder our understanding and lead to errors of judgment. In this regard, Burke (2011a: 12) contends that the implementation of planned change is messy and far more complex than the planning. Indeed, “what actually occurs is anything but linear”, because things do not proceed exactly as planned; there are always unanticipated consequences and outcomes to be considered, requiring the plan to be altered. Therefore, it has been argued that organizational change is a relatively open-ended and continuous process, rather than a pre-chosen and fixed sequence of actions or discrete and self-contained events, and that this process is highly dependent on change managers who may or may not be aware of the consequences of their decisions (By, 2005). Nevertheless, thinking of change as a rationally controlled, orderly and linear process may be helpful for managers in simplifying the complex nature of change and offering them clear guidance for practice (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

The second criticism of the planned approach is that it is only applicable to incremental and small-scale changes, and hence cannot deal with situations that require large-scale and transformational change, given the uncertainty and turbulence in the environment (Kickert, 2010). Thirdly, the planned approach is accused of overlooking the role of power and conflict in organizational life, supposing that all stakeholders will easily agree with the implementation of the change, which is not always the case (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Drummond-Hay & Bamford, 2009). Critics of planned change also point out that it is a management-driven approach that requires leadership, so fails to account for situations that

require bottom-up change. Thus, while encouraging decision making, it ignores the people at the lower levels and results in the expending of much energy and time as top executives push their ideas and try to convince organizational members, which tends to increase rigidity and resistance (Bright & Godwin, 2010). Additionally, Ryan *et al.* (2008) testify that applying a top-down change strategy implies one-way communication from the top, which causes a lack of commitment to change and leads to change being lost at the lower organizational levels. The final criticism of the planned approach to change relates to the lack of contingency thinking, typically by hypothesizing that one approach (best practice) and a general set of steps can be appropriate for all organizations, in all contexts and at all times (Dawson, 1994).

Noting the existence of such criticisms, Burnes (2004b, 2009) takes a position against them in defence of Kurt Lewin, arguing that most of his critics seem either to misunderstand the elements of Lewin's planned approach or to study them in isolation. For Lewin, according to Burnes (2004b: 993), change is not something that can be predicted or planned, nor are organizational groups to be considered stable; instead, he argues that change should be regarded as a complex and iterative learning process, whereby "social settings are in a state of constant change but that, just like a river, the rate varies depending on the environment". Moreover, Lewin does not neglect the role of power and politics in organizations, as his critics claim, because he addresses serious problems such as racism and religion. Furthermore, Burnes (2004b) makes a rejoinder to those who suspect the appropriateness of Lewin's approach to large-scale change, asserting that this interpretation relates more to the speed of change than to its magnitude, adding that Lewin was interested in behavioural change at the individual, group, organizational and even societal levels. Burnes concludes by affirming that Lewin's work is still applicable in and relevant to the contemporary world.

It is worth pointing out that some aspects of the aforementioned criticisms of the planned approach to change have arguably been resolved through the practice of OD. For instance, OD has made a significant move from its focus on individuals and groups towards that of the total system and more organization-wide issues (i.e. socio-technical systems, organizational culture and learning) (Cumming & Worley, 2009), which can meet transformational change requirements. Although there has been a noticeable tendency for OD practices to become more business focused (Rees, 2008), a humanistic value

orientation is still the core feature and value of OD practitioners, which could have a considerable impact on an organization's profitability, since it values human factors such as quality of life (ibid). Strategies and processes associated with OD values, including health, freedom, potential and openness, could also create an environment in which performance is respected and rewarded (Bacigalupo *et al.*, 2009), as well as leading individuals to achieve fulfilment and psychological growth (Rees, 2012). Thus, OD has done well in focusing on understanding people within the organization and on how they can work more effectively by applying behavioural science; hence issues of power and politics seem to be addressed early in the diagnosis step (Cumming & Worley, 2009).

2.3.4 In response: The emergent approach

Beginning in the 1980s and in response to the many challenges to the appropriateness and efficacy of planned change in such a complex and rapidly evolving business environment, the emergent approach has come to be seen as more pertinent, so has prevailed over the planned approach and become dominant (Burnes, 2009). The underpinning metaphor in the planned approach is to see organizations as machinelike, whereas emergent change sees them as living systems (Bright & Godwin, 2010). Hence, this approach is largely associated with open systems theory, which stresses the way organizations are separate from but connected to their external environment. It also adopts a contingency perspective, which supports the view that every context is unique in its situational variables, so that no two organizations are alike and there is no one best way for all, but only for each one at any time (Burnes, 1996).

Burnes (2004a) indicates that the advocates of the emergent approach to change come from different schools of thought, such as complexity theory and the processual approach; therefore, they reject the assumption of the planned approach that change is episodic, discontinuous and achievable via a linear process, arguing instead that it should be viewed as a continuous, open-ended, cumulative and non-predictable process of adapting to changing circumstances without prior intention (Dawson, 1994; Pettigrew, 1997; By, 2005; Alfes, 2010). As described by Kickert (2010: 495) "an emergent change process consists of a continuous sequence of autonomous ... accommodations, adaptations and alterations. There is no deliberate orchestration of change, no dramatic discontinuity, just recurrent variations in practice over time". Thus, this approach supports the dynamic model of change, suggesting that organizations are dynamic and complex systems undergoing long-

term and cyclical processes of change without beginning or end points (Senge, 1990). Stressing this dynamic view of the organization and recognizing the unpredictable nature of change make the emergent approach appropriately compatible with today's highly turbulent environment. Therefore, in order to cope with the complexity and uncertainty of the environment (whether internal or external), it has been suggested that change must be perceived as a process of learning and that organizations should embrace open learning systems, by which change is triggered from the way the entire system acquires, interprets and processes information about the environment (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; By, 2004).

From a practitioner point of view, interventions when change is perceived as continuous are not the same as under the episodic perspective, because in the first instance, the change is already there, so that managing organizational change is in essence a matter of managing dialogue and a sensemaking process (Weick, 1995); hence, the role of the change agent is to redirect and to manage language and dialogue so as to make sense of the ongoing change (Weick & Quinn, 1999), whereas in episodic change, interventions normally start with unfreezing and creating readiness for change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1993). In this sense, Lewin's rational 'unfreeze-move-refreeze' model can best be replaced in the continuous emergent view of change by 'freeze-rebalance-unfreeze' (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Freezing ongoing change means making the change apparent and evident for people; rebalancing refers to the reinterpretations and redirections of the change by utilizing the sensemaking and logic of attraction; and unfreezing means resuming improvisation and building capacity for learning (*ibid*). Yet, while there seems to be little room for interventions in continuous and unmanageable change, it is essential for OD practitioners, if they are to intervene meaningfully, to have fair linguistic and interpretative skills (Kickert, 2010).

In addition, whereas the planned approach is heavily reliant on change leaders who set certain objectives and methods in advance, within given timetables (i.e. in a top-down, command-and-control style), the emergent approach is less dependent on detailed plans or projections, emphasizing instead the bottom-up approach to initiating and implementing change. The rationale behind this is that both external and internal environments are too complex and change too rapidly for top managers to be able to identify, plan and control every action required; instead, more delegation is needed to devolve the responsibility for change and distribute power to those at lower levels, from whom change stems and by whom the need for change is first realized (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). Moreover, Bright

and Godwin (2010) argue not only that a bottom-up approach to change will increase the commitment and intrinsic motivation of members, but also that the empowering nature of the process will create a local awareness and encourage people to innovate, since anybody at any level can come up with an idea with the potential to create change throughout an organization. This not only requires a substantial shift in the roles played by top managers, from controllers to facilitators (ibid), but also emphasizes the need to see the change process from the perspective of multi-actor interests, rather than that of a single change agent. In this regard, Kickert (2010) argues that the process of change consists of neither centrally planned events nor controlled reform, but rather is an example of emergent and complex change that comes from multi-rational perspectives of power and politics, involving complex networks of many different actors inside organizations.

In capturing the core components of the emergent approach and its usefulness, Weick (2000: 227) states:

The advantages of emergent change include its capabilities to increase the readiness for and receptiveness to planned change and institutionalize whatever sticks from the planned change: sensitivity to local contingencies; suitability for on-line real-time experimentation, learning, and sensemaking; comprehensibility and manageability; likelihood of satisfying needs for autonomy, control, and expression; proneness to swift implementation; resistance to unravelling; ability to exploit existing tacit knowledge; and tightened and shortened feedback loops from results to action.

Like the planned approach, the emergent approach has also been subject to a number of criticisms, the first being the accusation that its advocates exaggerate the admittedly important role of political and cultural variables in the change process (Burnes, 2009). Second, By (2004) asserts that the emergent approach lacks coherence and diversity in its practical techniques and tends to be too general, which explains why this approach is preferred by few practitioners. The third criticism relates to its unsuitability and inapplicability for organizations operating in stable conditions, where fine tuning is highly relevant (Coram & Burnes, 2001), because the emergent approach, by its own definition, is based on the assumption that all organizations operate in dynamic and uncertain environments to which they constantly have to adapt. Contradictions exist here, because if this were the case, then it would be reasonable to assume that turbulent times require different responses in different contexts; thus, a model of change would have to explain

how to vary change strategies according to the changing environment with which an optimum alignment should be accomplished (Dunphy & Stace, 1993), but this seems not to be the case with the emergent approach, weakening the claim that “the emergent model is suitable for all organizations, all situations and all times” (Burnes, 1996: 14).

Furthermore, as the emergent approach is derived from criticisms of planned change and accepts the claim of contingent philosophy that there is no universally valid way of leading and managing change, it is surprising that a number of its advocates have proposed sequences of actions to serve as practical guidance for managers, such as the Ten Commandments for Executing model (Kanter *et al.*, 1992) and the Eight Stage Process for Successful Organizational Transformation (Kotter, 1996). These are equivalent to the three stages of the change process, which in essence means that the approach is no more than Lewin’s three-step model in disguise. This last point could be justified by arguing that being overly reliant on contingency thinking and always calling for an approach that matches the circumstances may hinder managers from exercising their choice over the contingencies to make them more amendable, which may result in their taking decisions by default, thus missing an opportunity to achieve competitive advantage (Burnes, 1996).

2.3.5 Section summary

A review of the literature on managing organizational change indicates a notable tendency among writers to support one of two broad models of change: the planned and emergent approaches, summarised in Table 2.3. This section has highlighted the core components, strengths and limitations of each approach. To sum up, while the planned approach offers step-based sequential recipes, as a process driven by management that moves the organization through series of linear events, the emergent approach recognises the unpredictable and continuous nature of change and views it as a process driven from the bottom up which evolves through the interplay of multiple actors and variables (e.g. power, politics and context) within the organization.

Table 2.3: Summary of key differences between planned and emergent change

Approaches to change	Planned change	Emergent change
Signification	Change can be successfully planned and primarily orchestrated by change managers, to move the organization from an undesired or less desired state to a more satisfactory one.	Based on the assumption that all organizations operate in dynamic and uncertain environments to which they constantly have to adapt.
Metaphors of organizations	Machines.	Living systems.
How change is perceived	1) Intended; 2) hierarchical and top-down, thus highly dependent on change managers; 3) discontinuous; 4) linear.	1) Continuous, open-ended, complex, cumulative and unforeseeable process of adapting to changing circumstances; 2) without prior intention; 3) bottom-up.
Associated thinking	OD; behavioural science.	Open systems theory; Contingency perspective; Complexity theory; Processual approach.
Suitable in	1) Stable environment; 2) incremental and small-scale changes.	1) Rapid and complex business environment; 2) transformational change.
OD interventions	Planned via pre-chosen fixed sequences of actions.	Redirecting, and managing language and dialogue so as to make sense of the ongoing change.
Implications for managers	Helpful for managers in simplifying the complex nature of change and offering them clear guidance for practice.	Less preferable, as it lacks coherence and diversity in its practical techniques.
Considerations	1) Overlooks the role of power and conflicts; 2) lack of contingency thinking as it adopts best practice.	1) Exaggerates the role of politics and culture; 2) assumes that there is no universal way of managing change.

Source: The author

The review also reveals that the extent to which both the planned and emergent approaches can be applied depends on the degree of their fitness with a given situation; for instance, while the planned model is best suited to a relatively stable environment, the emergent approach suits fast-moving and chaotic contexts. This highlights the significant role of context in determining which approach is more appropriate. Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) argue that organizational change refers to four dimensions: content, process, criterion and context issues. The last of these relates to the forces and conditions existing in organizations' internal and external environments, to which they are open and from which changes are triggered (Section 2.2.2). These contextual factors, whether internal or external to the organization, have substantial impacts on its effectiveness in responding to environment change (ibid). Hence, the next section will examine organizational change theories and approaches from a contextual point of view.

2.4 WESTERN VS. MIDDLE EASTERN CONTEXTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

2.4.1 Introduction

Accepting the claim of contingency theory that there is no best way to manage change (Burnes, 2009), organizational change cannot be studied separately from the special circumstances of an organization, as every context is unique; indeed, it can be understood and managed only by considering the historical, economic, social and political characteristics of each organization (Rees & Althakhri, 2008). Accordingly, while theories and models of change management work well in context A, they may not be applicable in context B. Since most such practices were developed in the West (usually the USA), a modification of the underlying theories and models seems to be essential if they are to produce competitive advantage elsewhere (Huo, 1995; Hutchings & Weir, 2006).

This section will discuss the divergence/convergence debate, concerning the transferability and applicability of Western philosophy and organizational change practices to developing countries. Then, given the context of this thesis, it will justify the adoption of the divergent approach by highlighting some political, economic and socio-cultural issues related to the Middle Eastern setting.

2.4.2 Change management and the convergence/divergence debate

It seems undeniable that in today's climate of globalisation, benchmarking and best practice, the business world has become more like a small village, one in which some argue that there are certain best ways of managing (i.e. strategies and techniques) that could be applied universally (Vanhala *et al.*, 2006). This universalistic view results in a convergence of management practices, as it is argued that these best practices can traverse national culture as well as institutional variables, particularly the hard (technical) elements of management (Wright *et al.*, 2001). Such arguments have long been associated with human resource (HR) practices such as those of multinational corporations and their subsidiaries. For example, proponents of the convergent hypothesis argue that if two business environments become more alike, it is easier to transmit knowledge of HR practices and policies between them cross-nationally; thus their HR practices and policies will be standardized, followed by structural convergence, which will create an environment

in which firms are forced to be more flexible, agile and innovative (Hamlin & Serventi, 2008).

Proponents of the divergence theory, by contrast, view management practices as culturally bounded and contextually sensitive, so that they cannot be applied across national boundaries (Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994; Rowley & Benson, 2002; Groeschl, 2003). Such scholars take a contingency view and argue that the outcome of knowledge transfer is likely to be organizational inefficiency and ineffectiveness, as well as resistance to change, if it is undertaken without taking into account various factors including education, sociology, politics, law and cultural values (Jaeger, 1990). Similarly, Hofstede (2005) argues that theories and models of management reflect its socio-cultural aspects and that every context is unique; thus, he identifies five dimensions for measuring differences between national cultures. It has also been proposed that people from different cultural backgrounds may come up with new or even unique ideas, which could lead to creativity and innovation (Luthans & Doh, 2009). Additionally, Miroshnik (2002) believes that divergent processes offer greater chances for improving problem-solving skills, enhancing flexibility and adapting new marketing ideas.

Besides cultural differences, internal and external factors will also vary among organizations to the extent that no two organizations can be alike. The external context includes customer demands, competitor behaviour and economic conditions, which bring about various opportunities and threats that could be exploited and addressed in various ways. The internal context includes the organization's structure and culture, which affect individuals' attitudes and reactions to change (Pettigrew *et al.*, 1992). Current events and past history could also be an issue; Bordia *et al.* (2011) found that employees' perceptions of a poor organizational change history reduced trust, job satisfaction and openness to change, while increasing cynicism and turnover intention. Organizational size and age can also have substantial influence on the likelihood and applicability of organizational change (Hannan & Freeman, 1984; Barnett & Carroll, 1995). All of these features differ with context, which supports the divergent side of the argument.

In an attempt to reconcile these opposing views, McCourt and Eldridge (2003) argue that organizations should invent their own models by assessing the current good practice critically, in the light of particular conditions and circumstances, then choosing to adopt, reject or adapt this practice. In other words, it is not so much a matter of best practice as of

the most appropriate practice for the organization at the time. The authors therefore propose a “crossvergence” model, which shows the interaction between good practice and the particular context (ibid: 14).

Although the aforementioned arguments are not directly related to change management, it is quite clear that the same issue could be raised when transferring change management practices to different historical or cultural settings, as it is one aspect of management in general. For instance, Rees (2012) analyses the transferability of a particular case of value-based change management interventions labelled OD and highlights the issue of applying classical OD theory and practices in international contexts, arguing that an articulation of values is required in order to establish a fit between OD values and national culture, whether by OD totally adopting the values held by workers in the international contexts, changing its non-core values to suit cultural contexts, or changing the values of those present in the setting to achieve the match. This example serves as evidence of the role that culture can play in shaping management practices in general and change interventions in particular. This is why almost every textbook on managing organizational change devotes considerable attention to discussing the key role of organizational culture, leadership, power and politics in managing change initiatives (Kotter, 1996; Senior & Fleming, 2006; Burnes, 2009; Burke, 2011). Further evidence can be drawn from the words of Senior and Fleming (2006: 139):

Regardless of how well change might be planned in terms of the more formal organizational characteristics, it is the hidden informal aspects of organizational life that will ultimately help or hinder an organization's success.

It is worth mentioning that many theories and much of the research into organizational change have been developed without rich context (Finch, 2012), as a consequence of which they are “perceived as having caused more confusion than clarity in their epistemological contribution” (Nasim & Sushil, 2011: 186). This view is supported by Armenakis and Bedeian (1999), who declare that there is too little integration of findings relating to the interactions of contextual elements in the contrasting environments of organizations, while such knowledge as there is has been derived from isolated investigations. Although it is not our intent to review or generalize the findings of studies conducted out of their original context (in the USA or the UK), it seems necessary to carry

out an analysis of these studies in order to clarify such ambiguity. Hence, the next subsection explores the different characteristics and cultural features of Middle Eastern countries.

2.4.3 Why the Middle East¹ is different

The Arab world has been characterised as having slow economic growth because its political systems and central control over business necessitate a relationship with the government in order to win contracts and secure deals (Mellahi, 2003). Hence, it is unsurprising that nepotism or *wasta* is highly prevalent (ibid). Research indicates that nepotism has a significant negative impact on human resource management (HRM), job satisfaction and quitting intention (Arasli *et al.*, 2006). Tribalism is another noticeable feature of the Arab world and influences its management practices heavily (Rees & Althakhri, 2008). For example, Bakhtari (1995) affirms that the tribal system acts as a facilitator to constitute the boundaries and hierarchical structure within the public and private sectors in the Arab world.

Islam also plays a major role in shaping cultural values, norms and beliefs (Tayeb, 1997; Darwish, 2001, Mellahi, 2003; Rees & Althakhri, 2008; Ali, 2010; Abdulla *et al.*, 2011), but should not be treated as the dominant feature of all Arab countries, since in some a contradiction has been recognised between Islamic values and Arab traditions (Smith *et al.*, 2007; Branine & Pollard, 2010). For instance, in the case of employee selection, Islam asserts that this should be done on the basis of competencies, experience, shouldering responsibility, organizational fit and reputation within the community, whereas the practice of *wasta* ignores these principles in favour of choosing who you know (Ali, 2010; Abdulla *et al.*, 2011). Although some traditional values in Arab countries contradict Islam, however, this does not mean that Islam has no influence in these countries. Islam concerns not only worship, but also committed adherence to Islamic values at work and elsewhere, based on the Holy Quran and the sayings of the Prophet Mohammed (Mellahi, 2003). Studies have shown that individuals who are highly committed to the Islamic work ethic are extremely likely to be committed to their organizations and more satisfied with their jobs (Darwish, 2001).

¹ The term 'Middle East' is often used interchangeably with the term 'Middle East and North Africa', constituted by the countries of the Arab League plus Iran and Israel (Yousef, 2004; Harrigan *et al.*, 2006). However, this thesis uses 'Middle East' as a synonym of 'Arab world' or 'Arab region', including North Africa but excluding Iran and Israel.

Arab culture can also affect change management (Rees & Althakhri, 2008). Applying Hofstede's (2005) dimensions, the Arab world appears to be typically dominated by high uncertainty avoidance, large power distance, high collectivism and a masculine orientation. A combination of the first two of these dimensions, for instance, would create a context in which the leader has absolute power and authority and where there is strong respect for the hierarchy among subordinates. This appears to explain the finding of Abdulla *et al.* (2011) that supervision is a significant determinant of job satisfaction in the UAE. Moreover, since high uncertainty avoidance reflects the extent to which people dislike and avoid ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 2005), it would be reasonable to assume that clear organizational policies, strategies and procedures could help employees to understand the organization's goals and become committed (Abdulla *et al.*, 2011).

Correspondingly, the Arab world could be described as collectivist (Hofstede, n.d.), so teamwork, cooperation and the sharing of values and knowledge have higher priority than in an individualistic setting. Motivation and reward are often based on being part of a group (Wheeler, 2002). Nepotism may also be openly allowed in such contexts, where individuals have strong commitments to relatives. Loyalty and trustworthiness are also valued. In this regard, Wat and Shaffer (2005) argue that when relationships between supervisors and subordinates are built on trust, employees are more likely to perceive fairness. Time orientation may also be an issue. It has long been considered that long-term planning might be problematic in the Arab world, as Muslims believe that none but God can foresee the future. However, Rees and Althakhri (2008) dispute this claim and attribute this to a misunderstanding of Islamic teachings.

Effective communication may be perceived differently according to the context in which it takes place. For instance, Hall and Hall (1990) distinguish high-context from low-context cultures with respect to communication style. The former depends on the context of the information given, whereas communication style in the low context emphasises written messages or words. Al-Nashmi and Zin (2011) state that the level of communication satisfaction differs among nationalities. Thus, communication in the Arab world (higher context) would be more implicit, since underlying meanings and details are embedded in the context. Similarly, while a low-context culture might adopt direct communication to increase clarity and avoid ambiguity, a high-context culture would use indirect

communication to share communication networks and socialise with others (Singhal & Nagao, 1993).

As well as national culture, organizational culture has a considerable impact on the whole organization (Burnes, 2009; Senior & Fleming, 2006). Rees and Althakhri (2008) state that public sector organizations are dominant in Arab countries as a result of high oil revenues. These organizations have long been associated with bureaucracy and a culture of conformity and blame, in which the management style tends to be authoritarian, a top-down approach to communication is preferred, stability is desired, decision-making is centralised and managers are reluctant to embrace innovation and change (Ryan *et al.*, 2008; Greasley *et al.*, 2009; Althakhri, 2011; Rees *et al.*, 2011).

2.4.4 Section summary

This section has shown how the Arab region is unique in its political and economic features and in its culture, which can be seen to be in opposition to those of Western culture. From this review, it is possible to suggest that within the Arab countries, there are a number of factors including Arab culture and other micro-level factors (e.g. loyalty, trustworthiness, fairness, commitment, supervision, reward expectations, communication style, nepotism, organizational culture, power and politics, tribalism, Islam, past events, time orientation and long-term planning), that could facilitate or inhabit change initiatives and OD interventions, which questions the validity and generalizability of Western theories and models when applied to the Middle East.

2.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The foregoing literature review has shed light on some aspects of organizational change of relevance to this study. It started by discriminating between the two ways of viewing organizations and how they work—as open systems and as socially constructed—then differentiated between the planned and emergent approaches to change, before finally showing how context matters when applying change interventions, particularly in Middle Eastern countries.

The review uncovered how our basic theoretical premises about organizations can determine not only the way we think about the nature of change, how it occurs and how it can be managed, but also the underlying models and the interventions based on them.

Given the complexity of change, it appears sensible to seek insights from a range of sources by viewing organizations not only as open systems, as most have done, but also as social constructions, since the review suggests that a combined view could offer a richer and complementary explanation, helping practitioners to understand how organizations evolve over time and thus bring about change.

Although classical and diagnostic OD differs from the social construction perspective, the latter might be beneficial in providing OD practitioners with an alternative dialogic approach that facilitates “dialogue containers” and generative conversations (Bushe & Marshak, 2009). As in classical OD, the assumption inherent in the open systems model leads people to think of an organization as a collection of its subsystems, thus placing the emphasis on organizational culture, structure and reward systems, rather than individual and group perspectives. Thus, Bamford and Forrester (2003: 546) argue that organizational change studies tend to be macroscopic, focusing on the organizational dimensions at the expense of individual perceptions of change and reaction to it, which “has led to overgeneralizations and potentially false assumptions concerning individual perceptions of change”. Keeping in mind both open systems and the social construction model would enable OD practitioners to make better interpretations of the change process and thus to identify suitable interventions.

The review of the two approaches to managing change shows that both planned and emergent approaches have strengths and weaknesses. This is consistent with the conclusion drawn by Burnes (1996: 16) that “it is misleading to speak of ‘good’ or ‘bad’ approaches to change. Instead, we need to think in terms of the appropriateness of an approach with regard to the circumstances being addressed”. It could be argued that rather than viewing the planned and emergent approaches as opposing systems of ideas, it is better to see them as approaches that fit with and address different situational contingencies (ibid). Dawson (1994) warns of the limitations that change interventions could have if based on one dimension and stresses the need to establish a link to each complex business environment.

Therefore, recent literature calls for a more flexible approach and a profound shift from choosing one approach over the other (either-or) to weaving both together simultaneously and balancing paradoxical thinking (both-and), so as to produce a logical pathway of balanced paradoxes in the ever-changing environment. Examples are the integration of theory E and theory O (Beer & Nohria, 2000), duality theory (Graetz & Smith, 2009),

integration of the planned and emergent approaches (Bright & Godwin, 2010) and the concept of managing change and continuity (Nasim & Sushil, 2011).

The review also highlighted issues related to the Middle Eastern context and to apparent contrasts with Western culture, making it rational to support the divergent view of change management. The question is: if these theories and models have not worked properly in their original context, as evinced by 70% failure rates (section 1.2), then to what extent are they applicable to Middle Eastern culture? This should alert both researchers and practitioners to the need to take into account the unique cultural and contextual variables of every setting when conceptualising a model or applying interventions.

In building the case for this study and in linking chapter 2 with the aim to develop a model for institutionalizing change (chapter 3), a number of considerations arise. First, when applying any change or intervention, it is important to note the systemic properties of an organization, as well as the interconnectedness of its subsystems. Thus it is inadequate to identify critical factors that impact upon the institutionalization process; rather we should be aware of the interrelatedness of these factors and how they connect with each other to produce the final institutionalized behaviours or change, given the weight of each factor in the interaction.

We are also motivated to investigate the institutionalization process from an individual perspective, because we believe that doing so means treating the human beings concerned as active agents who are able to influence the institutionalization process, rather than as passive recipients. One way to do this is to apply the conversational model of change (Ford & Ford, 1995), which adopts the social construction perspective and acknowledges the process of interpretation of meanings. In this sense, the institutionalization of change can be seen as a process of interactions between what people think of change and how they make sense of it.

Finally, given the critical role of culture in the successful institutionalization of change and the shortage of change literature on the Middle East (Rees & Althakhri, 2008), we are stimulated to contextualize the model to make it more suitable for the unique characteristics and cultural setting of the Arab countries. This can be accomplished via proper identification of the critical factors that affect institutionalization in the region, as well as considering the cultural variables that influence the communication.

CHAPTER 3

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF CHANGE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Change programmes vary in their targets and levels of improvement, from personal change (learning or acquiring new behaviours) to team change (new roles for a team) and organizational change (a new information technology system or a new structure). Whatever the change may be, once it is decided that it is to be effectively implemented, attention should be paid to institutionalizing each element of the change; otherwise, it becomes difficult to maintain the benefits resulting from the corresponding interventions, which in most cases will have come at a heavy cost in terms of investment (Wilson & Kurz, 2008). Armenakis *et al.* (1999) assert that appreciating the stage of institutionalization will improve the success rate of planned change.

However, the review in chapter 2 warned against being bound to a single explanation or approach to organizational change, arguing that the social construction perspective holds the promise of extending current understandings of planned organizational change and offers refreshing strategies for managing change initiatives, which have long been associated with open systems theory. Hence, beside open systems theory, the language-based approach to change is adopted for this study, in order to build a framework based on a synthetic approach and multilevel theory of institutionalization. In addition, institutional theory is applied to explore the social construction activities of the institutionalization process.

This chapter therefore reviews those research streams that contribute to the theoretical development of the model of institutionalization. It commences by discussing the concept of institutionalization, its validity and the difficulties of attaining it to a high degree, then investigates the process by which changes become institutionalized, before identifying and examining some critical factors affecting this process in the context of the Arab world, finally offering an analysis of institutionalization strategies and approaches, with specific reference to dialogue as an additional vehicle for change.

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION

The noun ‘institutionalization’ has different meanings, significations and connotations for different people, but the Oxford English Dictionary defines the verb ‘institutionalize’ as to “establish (something, typically a practice or activity) as a convention or norm in an organization or culture”. In terms of this study, the earlier literature on organizational change management has tended to treat the noun as synonymous or interchangeable with terms such as ‘stability’, ‘sustainability’, ‘maintaining momentum’, ‘permanence’, ‘normalization’, ‘embedding’, ‘integration’, ‘persistence’ and ‘anchoring’. For the purposes of clarity and consistency, the present research uses the term ‘institutionalization’ in the dictionary sense outlined above. It is thus slightly different from sustainability, which may sometimes refer to the consistent achievement of goals and the continuous maintenance of improved performance—e.g. sustaining competitive advantage, which focuses on corporate strategy (Collins & Porras, 1995), and sustainable development, which focuses on economic and environmental issues (Dunphy *et al.*, 2002)—whereas institutionalization implies a more static view, through long-term viability and integration, rather than a dynamic perspective (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005).

The concept of institutionalization has its roots in a number of disciplines, which suggests that in order to understand it properly, one should not rely on a single source of knowledge, but should seek an interdisciplinary approach, drawing explanations from a number of sources. This is why it is intended to explore the concept in the context of psychology, sociology and learning, before digging deeper into its implications for organizational change.

Since institutionalization is about behaviours that are repeated over time, two approaches to individual change are of particular interest: behaviourism and gestalt-field psychology (Burnes, 2009). Behaviourists conceive behaviour as a consequence of individuals’ interactions with their environment, so that all behaviours are learned and the individual is the passive recipient of the external environment. Perhaps one of the earliest and most influential experiments in this area was conducted by the social philosopher and behaviourist BF Skinner (1957; 1969), who developed reinforcement theory while working with lab rats, reporting that their rate of responding increased when their responses were associated with stimuli. Reinforcement theory was later applied in numerous ways via many techniques, including positive and negative reinforcement, as well as reward and

punishment strategies, all of which have been proven to be effective in managing behaviour. In this paradigm, behaviour that is rewarded is expected to be repeated, because individual actions are determined by their anticipated consequences. Behaviourists, therefore, might consider the manipulation of external stimuli as a strategy to achieve organizational change.

Gestalt-field psychologists, on the other hand, view individual behaviour towards institutionalization not just as a product of external impetus, but rather as deriving from the individual's justifications of the reasons for and interpretations of external stimuli. Accordingly, change interventions from this perspective would aim to help people to change their understanding of themselves and the situation in question, via internal reflection exercises such as discussion, involvement and debate, which in turn should be enough to change the behaviour (Burnes, 2009).

Institutionalization has also been analyzed from the learning perspective, since "change is about learning" (Beer *et al.*, 1990: 159); thus an organization needs to learn continuously so as to sustain change initiatives. Accordingly, institutionalization "is the process of embedding learning that has occurred by individuals and groups into the institutions of the organization including systems, structures, procedures, and strategy" (Crossan & Bedrow, 2003: 1090). Hence, institutionalization distinguishes organizational learning from individual and group learning, because it leads to the embedding of knowledge in the organizational memory (Wiseman, 2007). Jacobs (2002) argues that human resource development is an effective strategy for the institutionalization of change interventions, accentuating the value of cascade training to provide the necessary competence for employees to ensure the institutionalization.

From the social perspective, institutionalization is "essentially social constructions that are transmitted across generations of organizational members... which through reinforcement and collective awareness eventually lead to normative consensus and shared values" (Buller & McEvoy, 1989: 34). Goodman and Dean (1982) also define institutionalization on the basis of the extent to which individuals know, understand, accept and display their behaviours. They criticize the literature as being brainwashed by the dichotomy between success and failure of change, observing five facets of institutionalization that allow for an indexing of the degree of persistence. These are, in order: 1) knowledge of the behaviour; 2) performance of the behaviour; 3) preferences for the behaviour; 4) normative consensus;

and 5) value consensus. It is noteworthy that these five categories can serve well in measuring the level of institutionalization by assessing each criterion; for example, performance of the behaviour can be rated either by the number of people performing it, or by the frequency with which it is performed. Harvey (1990: 109-118) proposes nine determinants for institutionalizing change, allowing the measurement of institutionalization to be considered in greater depth.

Taking a historical view of the organizational change literature, institutionalizing change can be traced back to Lewin's (1947) concept of refreezing. From his metaphorical perspective, an institutionalized change is one that is frozen and the process of institutionalizing the new equilibrium state is that of freezing it. This social-psychological approach to change assumes that after convincing people of the need for change and carrying it out, the new behaviour patterns, new working methods or new values and norms have to be embedded in the roots of the organization, or else people will revert to the habits which applied prior to the change (Kickert, 2010). Thus, institutionalizing organizational change can be described as ensuring the endurance of change efforts (Cummings & Worley, 2009), when change becomes part of the organization's everyday activities on an ongoing basis (Jacobs, 2002) and when employees become fully committed to the change and see it as a norm, not only a "program of the month" (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999: 97). In this sense, the institutionalization of organizational change must be considered a step as critical and substantial as the previous stages of determining the strategies of readiness and change to be made (*ibid*).

This view is supported by numerous studies that followed Lewin's work, dealing with institutionalization as a distinct stage. For instance, Schein (1987) expands on Lewin's three steps, stressing that refreezing is the integration of change for organizational members and has two parts: personal and interpersonal. The former refers to the notions that individuals need to feel comfortable with the new behaviour and that the change does not conflict with their own concepts, whereas the latter relates to the idea that the new behaviour needs to fit well with all employees if they are to work together effectively. Moreover, Carnall (2003), in his five-stage 'coping cycle', assumes that at the last stage, called 'internalization', people reach the point where they no longer see the change as new but as the accepted way of doing things.

Another well-known study resulted in Kotter's (1995: 145) eight-step model of the successful implementation of organizational change, whose final step is "anchoring new approaches in the culture". He underlines the powerful influence of corporate culture on behaviour, commenting that for change to be sustained, it must fit the organization's core values and beliefs, while cultural change comes only at the last stage, when employees see the connection between new actions and organizational improvement. For Kotter,

change sticks when it becomes the way we do things around here, when it seeps into the bloodstream of the corporate body. Until new behaviours are rooted in social norms and shared values, they are subject to degradation as soon as the pressure for change is removed (ibid: 67).

Correspondingly, the ten-step model for successful organizational change which Kanter *et al.* (1992) call the "ten commandments for executing change" situates institutionalization as the last step, entitled "reinforce and institutionalize change". Similarly, in a review of organizational change in the public sector, Fernandez and Rainey (2006) propose an eight-step strategy for implementing organizational change successfully, of which institutionalization is the seventh step.

3.2.1 Institutionalization is 'easier said than done'

There seems to be a consensus among researchers and consultants that achieving a high degree of institutionalization is difficult and rather problematic. Thus, Goodman and Dean (1982: 37) report that "lasting change is often the exception rather than the rule", while Burke (2011b: 154) considers it "easier to initiate a change effort than to sustain it once underway". There are several factors that may increase the likelihood of a reversion to how things used to be done before the intervention, one being a lack of organizational commitment. Armenakis *et al.* (1999: 98) indicate that some changes are only implemented for show and to be in fashion, or to give the impression that the management is proactive. They further attribute the failure to institutionalize changes initiated with sincere intentions to improve the organization to two causes: 1) impatience and the assumption that successful change planning and implementation will guarantee institutionalization; 2) neglecting the need to see the change through to institutionalization.

Additionally, Anderson (2012) gives four reasons for this phenomenon, as examples rather than an exhaustive list:

- 1) Change is usually driven and maintained by motivating the actors, and as long as the consultants are watching, leaders may feel compelled to support the change. Thus, once the consultants have completed their engagement, people often fall back into the comfort of their old habits, since the pressure for change has been removed.
- 2) Institutionalization requires continuous attention and discipline, which can be obtained from employees for a given time, but they often cannot keep up the same effort and level of energy, especially in the face of continuing work challenges.
- 3) Institutionalization normally takes time, as some employees might need further education and training lasting for weeks or months. Hence, while accepting the need for trial and error, people are impatient, so that when the first error occurs they mistakenly assume that change has failed and return to the old ways.
- 4) Systemic organizational forces (e.g. cultural values, reward, expectations) sometimes inhibit the full adoption of the change, outweighing the forces driving the change. A leader who conceives change as a threat to his position may resist it; indeed, he will do so if he believes that involving others in high-level decisions will make him a weak decision-maker.

From the above, it is quite clear how advocates of the planned change approach have given recognition to the institutionalization of change and regard it as a distinct stage or step at which change must become: 1) embedded deeply in the organization; 2) an integral part of the organizational system and its members (personal and interpersonal); 3) part of the everyday activities, so that people no longer see it as something added on but as the norm; 4) part of the corporate culture, norms, beliefs and values. Hence, it can be said that without institutionalization, change will be subject to decay and people are more likely return to their old habits, which means that all of the effort, time and money that have been invested in the change interventions will have been wasted. In spite of the importance of institutionalization, however, the utility of the concept has been challenged, as discussed in the next subsection.

3.2.2 Is institutionalization a valid concept?

It is worth pointing out that rapidly changing and chaotic environments have caused both academics and practitioners to doubt whether institutionalizing change is still valid in a context in which continuous change is the only way to survive (Senge, 1990; Lawler &

Worley, 2006). They even suspect that designing organizations to seek alignment, stability and equilibrium may no longer be relevant in today's business environment.

The question, as posed by Cummings and Worley (2009: 200), is: "Why endeavour to make any change permanent given that it may require changing again soon?" In other words, organizations may perceive institutionalization as pointless on the basis of the coming wave of change. In this regard, Fleck (2007) argues that institutionalization does not in itself provide a competitive advantage or long-term success; on the contrary, enhancing organizational stability will bring about rigidity and resistance to change. In this sense, establishing a stable organization to perform in a highly combative and complex environment does not seem to be appropriate; instead, one should "develop organizations that can learn how to change" so as to be able to change continuously (Anderson, 2012: 312). As a result, a number of authors have proposed models intended to foster the capability for organizational change, such as *Built to Change* (Lawler & Worley, 2006), the *Learning Organization* (Senge, 1990) and *Self-design Interventions* (Mohrman & Cummings, 1989).

All of these perspectives emphasise the emergent nature of change, giving support to dynamic models of change and rejecting the static ones, viewing organizations as continuously adapting to their environment. Nevertheless, organizations also need stability as much as they need change, because stability fosters efficiency and profitability (Burchell & Kolb, 2006). These authors thus suggest that

stability should be recognized for its contribution to organizing and managing enterprises, gaining efficiencies for profitability, consolidating gains made, providing regularity in organizational life, giving meaning and security to organizational members, providing uncertainty reduction, trust, knowledge accumulation, reliability and cooperation (ibid: 34).

This tension between change and stability or so-called continuity seems to be an inevitable aspect of organizational life, long debated among researchers, who argue that organizations should balance concurrently the forces of change and of continuity if they want to achieve long-term success and sustainability (ibid; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). Otherwise, increasing stability without change would lead to stagnation and inertia, whereas the opposite could lead to chaos and disaster (ibid).

Given that the emphasis here is on continuous change, it seems rational to assume that public sector organizations differ from private ones in their management of change and continuity, because the former 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 centralized and there is a reluctance to consider innovation and change” (Althakhri, 2011: 18), while the latter are “based on profit purposes, enterprise goals, frameworks that can adapt more easily to changing customer needs and interests, shareholder interests, and market niches” (Rusaw, 2007: 348). Hence, public sector organizations prefer continuity and tend to adopt a planned approach when change is needed, whereas those in the private sector are apt to embrace change and advocate the emergent approach.

The above arguments and models do not necessarily conflict with or dispute the concept of institutionalization. Instead, they put change agents in the position of needing to rethink the concept and apply it in a different way. Cummings and Worley (2009), for example, argue that the focus of institutionalization should be on OD interventions, including the process of change itself, in order to enhance the organization’s capability for change. Another proposal, by Fleck (2007), is that the focus of institutionalization should be on the habits and behaviours being institutionalized, considering the visible hand of management in fabricating environmental institutionalization, and distinguishing between proactive and reactive management of the institutionalization process.

Organizational institutionalization is, therefore, neither good nor bad in itself. It may, however, create good as well as bad habits. Good habits such as the systematic problem solving of administrative issues and superior ability to handle environmental pressures are likely to foster a proactive institutionalization process, which neutralizes rigidity and change resistance. On the other hand, bad habits like unsystematic problem solving, and the inability to handle external pressures are likely to give rise to a reactive institutionalization process, which promotes rigidity and change resistance, and reduces long-term success chances (ibid: 78).

In concluding this exposition of the validity of the concept of institutionalization, we shall accept the claim that organizations must maintain a balance between change and continuity, especially if they operate in a dynamic environment. Meanwhile, given that institutionalization can be both beneficial, since it protects change from decay, and harmful, in that it can block further potential developments, it is reasonable to support the

argument of Buchanan *et al.* (2005) that “the central issue concerns sustainability for periods appropriate in a given context”. In other words, change initiatives should be institutionalized long enough for an organization in a particular context to obtain its intended goals. Thus, given that the pace of change tends to be faster in the private than the public sector, it could be hypothesized that the concept of institutionalization is more pertinent in public sector organizations than private ones. This is one reason for selecting the case study of a public sector organization, the Abu Dhabi Police, rather than a private one, as the setting of the present research.

Having discussed the notion of institutionalization, it is time now to shed light on the process of institutionalization, upon which the framework will be built.

3.3 INSTITUTIONALIZATION AS A PROCESS

Although institutionalization is well recognized as a valuable concept in enhancing successful organizational change, it has long been regarded as a discrete issue, or as one qualitative stage in an extended process of implementation, which has to be integrated into the organizational culture (Schein, 1992, Kotter, 1995). This is explicit, since most models of managing change tend to be based on the unfreeze-move-refreeze model (Lewin, 1951) and thus include institutionalization as their last step or stage (section 3.2), without paying attention to the process through which the change has passed before becoming institutionalized. Johnson *et al.* (2004) indicate that the emphasis on institutionalization has been primarily on measurement of construction and evaluation, with scant analysis of the process leading to institutionalization. Similarly, Wilson and Kurz (2008) underline the need to conceptualize and develop an approach that promotes the systematic integration of interventions and their ultimate institutionalization. Hence, a gap in the literature exists with regard to specifying how change is institutionalized.

Indeed, breaking down institutionalization into processes or stages would clarify such ambiguity, expand our understanding of the process that would otherwise occur more haphazardly, and create a sense of movement for organizational members, thus allowing issues of resistance to be addressed through the chaotic change (Oakland & Tanner, 2007). Gallant and Drinan (2008: 29) rightly declare that “A stage theory provides a roadmap of sorts with signs to guide progress... Stages serve as a heuristic and are thus designed to give direction to both observers of, and participants in, processes of change... Stage

implies a perception of the level of viability of a system that can be sustained over a period of time”. Marple and Simerson (2000) also highlight the importance of process models in telling the story of an organization passing through a sequence of causal events. In this sense, institutionalization as process model can be useful for change agents, as it provides them with a guide to the process, as well as the fluidity and movement within and between stages, which would otherwise be subject to circumstances.

Drawing some insights here from institutional theory could be seen as a rational choice, as it adopts a process-based approach to institutionalization and focuses on its varying levels (Baptista, 2009). Although institutional theory is more interested in the institutionalization of the social structure to attain a high degree of resilience (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Scott, 2005), its emphasis on the dynamics of social change and on behaviours as socially constructed makes it relevant to this study and gives it the potential to facilitate our analysis. Berger and Luckmann (1966) describe three phases of institutionalization in general social settings: (1) externalization, the process by which the shared meanings in social settings are produced; (2) objectivation, the process by which facts become independent and experienced in common with others; and (3) internalization, the process by which objectified facts are “experienced as possessing a reality of their own, a reality that confronts the individual as an external and coercive fact” (ibid: 58), become part of routine behaviour and are “retrojected into consciousness in the course of socialization” (ibid: 61).

Thus, the degree to which change can be institutionalized depends on the extent to which the process of institutionalization has been completed. In this regard, Kostova and Roth (2002) differentiate between *active* and *minimal* adoption of change. The former occurs only when both the implementation and internalization processes are completed, meaning that employees see the new practice as valuable and become committed to the change, whereas the latter refers to practices that are adopted on a ceremonial basis, due to the incompleteness of the internalization.

A similar model identified in the literature addresses the micro-level processes of institutionalization in organizational settings. Tolbert and Zucker (1994) define institutionalization as a set of sequential processes, namely habituation, objectification and sedimentation (Table 3.1). According to this model, organizational members respond to a particular problem by developing certain patterns of behaviour in order to solve it.

Such behaviours are habitualized to the extent that actors recall them with minimal decision-making effort, because their enactment and repetition narrow the choices and options that are available in any given situation (pre-institutionalization). Once these *typifications* of actions become independent of the specific individuals who carry them out, it can be said that the meanings attributed to habitualized actions have come to be generalized (semi-institutionalization). After that, maintaining these patterned behaviours over time establishes task routines that are later transmitted to new members, who lack knowledge of their origins (full institutionalization).

Table 3.1: Stages of institutionalization

Stages	Pre-institutionalization	Semi-institutionalization	Full institutionalization
Processes	Habitualization	Objectification	Sedimentation
Signification	Behaviours that have been developed empirically and adopted by an actor or set of actors in order to solve recurring problems	Process of generalizing and interacting the meaning of an action, and developing shared social meanings	Historical continuity of transplantation of actions to a context beyond their point of origin
Impetus for diffusion	Imitation	Imitative/normative	Normative
Key words	Generation in response to particular stimuli	Generalization by diffusion	Changes become social givens and norms

Source: Adapted from Tolbert and Zucker (1994)

The aforementioned models seem to add valuable insights to the organizational change literature, for at least two reasons. First, it is believed that an expanded conceptualization of the process leading to institutionalization is key to understanding how change becomes institutionalized or why it fails to do so. Thus, institutionalization as a set of three processes can be seen as an extension of some models of change, such as those of Scott and Jaffe (1988), who conceive employees' attitudes toward change as a consequence of four phases of transition—initial denial, resistance, progressive exploration and final commitment—and the five-stage ‘coping cycle’ of Carnall (2003): denial, defence, discarding, adaptation and internalization.

These models consider institutionalization to be the last, separate step of the change process, assuming that if individuals finally adopt the change, they will never return to their old habits; but this is not always the case (section 1.3). By contrast, institutional theory “suggests variability in levels of institutionalization, thus implying that some patterns of social behaviour are more subject to critical evaluation, modification, and even

elimination than others” (Tolbert & Zucker, 1994: 16). In short, institutional theory can explain why some changes seem to be irreversible while others fail to be institutionalized, since such patterned behaviours can vary according to the completion of the institutionalization processes and depending on the depth to which they are embedded in a social system.

The second implication is that the institutionalization processes starts at the individual level and spreads out across group and organizational levels, as they acquire, share and apply their behaviour in a collaborative way via interactions within and between levels, forming a systemic framework. As in organizational learning, Wiseman (2007) comments that institutionalization processes carry and transfer knowledge from the individual level to group level and then eventually to the wider organizational level. It is important to note that at this stage, the process of creating shared reality (objectification) depends on the level of interactions between people in the socially constructed world as well as their interpretations (Weick, 1995). This underlines the fundamental role of communication during the institutionalization process.

Notwithstanding the above conceptualization of institutionalization, its progress is neither linear nor smooth (Dambrin *et al.*, 2007), as there are several factors that can hinder or facilitate its enactment (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005; 2007). These are identified and examined in the following section.

3.4 CRITICAL FACTORS AFFECTING INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Given the high failure rates of change efforts (chapter 1), it is important to understand the factors that affect the likelihood of sustaining organizational change so as to create the greatest opportunity for positive outcomes to persist over the long term. Although many researchers have attempted to identify the critical factors in successful organizational change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Self *et al.*, 2007; Walker *et al.*, 2007), most of these studies have concentrated on the implementation process without paying sufficient attention to the subsequent institutionalization (Kaplan *et al.*, 2006); nor is there any evidence that factors contributing to initial implementation will necessarily lead to institutionalization.

Table 3.2: Seven perspectives on factors affecting sustainability

Authors	Summary	Factors
Lewin (1951) & Senge <i>et al.</i> (1999)	Three challenges to sustaining change: fear and anxiety, a concern with performance measurement, and issues with innovations becoming isolated from the organization.	1) Individual : accept the fear as a learning opportunity and become committed to group decisions and norms; 2) Managerial : deal with high risks, change their own behaviours and address problems systemically. 3) Cultural : assess progress to meet the needs of stakeholders. 4) Processual : sustainability regarded as a single discrete issue.
Kotter (1995)	Declaring and celebrating victory too soon kills momentum. Anchoring change is achieved when it becomes part of the corporate culture and when new behaviours become shared values and norms.	1) Managerial : championing initiatives of their predecessors, not their own; 2) Leadership : needs a clear vision; 3) Cultural : establish a sense of urgency and a link between new behaviours rooted in social norms and performance; 4) Political : guiding coalition powerful enough to maintain momentum; 5) Temporal : sufficient time for change to become part of the culture.
Jacobs (2002)	Institutionalization requires as much attention as earlier change steps and depends on the interactions of the organizational and intervention characteristics, with support strategies such as training and rewards.	1) Substantial : Change fits within the organization; 2) Individual : competent, committed to change and sufficient reward; 3) Leadership : clear, consistent, stable and challenging goals; 4) Processual : champions, internal support, monitoring and control, diffusion beyond implementation; 5) Contextual : social stability and union agreement.
Rimmer <i>et al.</i> (1996)	Studied the sustainability of best practice in 42 Australian firms, concluding that the cultural and political climate of an enterprise have a fundamental impact on sustainability, emphasising that aspects of readiness, managerial and stakeholder values and power should fit with competitive strategy.	1) Substantial : change consistent with competitive strategy; 2) Managerial : focus on long-term goals; 3) Cultural : change consistent with management beliefs; 4) Financial : benefits outweigh costs; 5) Political : change supported by stakeholders and external networks; 6) Contextual : consistent with social norms, and management-employee relations supported by legislation; 7) Temporal : enough time to show benefits of long-term success.
Dale <i>et al.</i> (1997 a, b; 1999)	Aimed to develop a sustainability audit tool, based on case studies of six British manufacturing companies. Identify the change process itself as a factor contributing to sustainability and define the latter on the basis of continuous quality improvement.	1) Individual : attitudes towards change (welcome or fear); 2) Managerial : team leader style, supervision and openness to suggestions; 3) Leadership : consistent and having staff confidence; 4) Organizational : policies support teamwork, commitment, reward, flexibility, communication and recognition; 5) Cultural : share goals and encourage teamwork; 6) Processual : clear roles & responsibilities for change; 7) Contextual : meet customer demands.
Reisner (2002)	In exploring why transformation was not sustained in the US Postal Service, Reisner blames three <i>momentum busters</i> : indifference of senior managers, resistance and funding obstacles.	1) Leadership : commitment and support for change; 2) Organizational : budget welcomes innovation and decision-making process is quick and flexible; 3) Contextual : trade union support; no external threats or distractions.
Pettigrew (1987) & Dawson (1994)	Pettigrew emphasizes the substance and process of change in context, which means paying attention to the flow of events, as well as to internal, external and past history contexts. Management must establish legitimacy for interpretations and courses of action.	1) Substantial : perceived centrality of change to organizational performance; 2) Managerial : credible ideas and legitimate plans; 3) Leadership : strong and persistent; 4) Political : challenges to management have been defeated as lacking confidence; 5) Processual : stabilize change; 6) Contextual : external stability challenges the status quo; 7) Temporal : time sequencing and history influence sustainability.

Source: Buchanan *et al.* (2005, 2007)

Therefore, a provisional model of factors affecting the institutionalization of change, developed by Buchanan and associates (2005; 2007), is chosen to be reviewed in this section, because of its promising insights and informativeness for this study. This model is based on the synthetic approach and encompasses seven perspectives on institutionalizing organizational change (the authors use the term ‘sustainability’), suggested by various theorists in the literature. Table 3.2 summarizes these seven perspectives and the respective factors. The review resulted in the identification of eleven categories of influence for sustaining change, listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Factors affecting sustainability

Category	Outline definition	Supportive conditions
Substantial	Perceived centrality / scale / fit with organization.	Perceived as central to effectiveness and survival, and contributing to strategy.
Individual	Commitment / competencies / emotions / expectations.	Those affected are committed to success, have skills and knowledge, are confident about the future; reward expectations can be met and innovation is welcome.
Managerial	Style / approach / preferences/ behaviours	Plans and ideas are seen as credible and legitimate, causes are addressed systemically, facilitative style, high-trust and high-discretion relations, and accept change to their own.
Financial	Contribution / balance of costs and benefits.	Change contributes to key performance measures; benefits outweigh costs.
Leadership	Setting vision / values / purpose / goals / challenges.	Leaders are consistent, strong, persistent and committed to change.
Organizational	Policies / mechanisms / procedures / systems / structures.	Decision processes are rapid and flexible, no structural barriers inhibiting cross-functional collaboration, finance policies favour innovation and reward, human resource policies encourage teamwork, and training meets both individual and organizational needs.
Cultural	Shared beliefs / perceptions / norms / values / priorities.	Sense of urgency, climate and values are receptive to change, continuous improvement and teamwork are encouraged, the link between change and improvement is clear, change has ‘mainstream’ status and is integrated, and new behaviours are rooted in shared norms.
Political	Stakeholder and coalition power and influence.	Challenges to change initiatives are defeated as lacking credibility, powerful guiding coalition has support of external networks, management and staff are involved in decision making and stakeholders see themselves as winners.
Processual	Implementation methods/ project management structures.	Clear responsibility for change, strong improvement infrastructure, steering committee and facilitators, dedicated change champions with internal support, high levels of communication and involvement, diffusion beyond initial setting.
Contextual	External conditions / stability / threats / wider social norms.	Change is seen as an appropriate response to the environment, meets customer needs and is consistent with social norms, as if it is ‘the right thing to do’. No external threats or distractions; if so, should not challenge the status quo.
Temporal	Timing / pacing / flow of events.	Pace and sequence of change are carefully phased, allowing time for change to become part of the corporate culture.

Sources: Buchanan *et al.* (2005: 201; 2007: 255-258)

The tentative model presented in Figure 3.1 predicts the consequences of institutionalization through the interactions between the contextual properties and configurations of the critical factors, justifying a number of outcomes dependent on the presence or absence of the eleven factors identified above: decay, sustainability or development. Further, this model highlights three significant issues related to receptiveness to change, the first being the substance of change; for example, Dunphy and Stace (1993) distinguish between fine tuning, incremental adjustments, modular transformations and corporate transformations. The second and third are the implementation process dimension and temporality, while other factors may interact in different ways according to the organizational context (inner and outer), which determines the weight and relative significant of those factors. Buchanan *et al.* (2005: 201) conclude that “the process of sustaining change is dependent on the interplay of multiple factors on different levels of analysis and timeframes”.

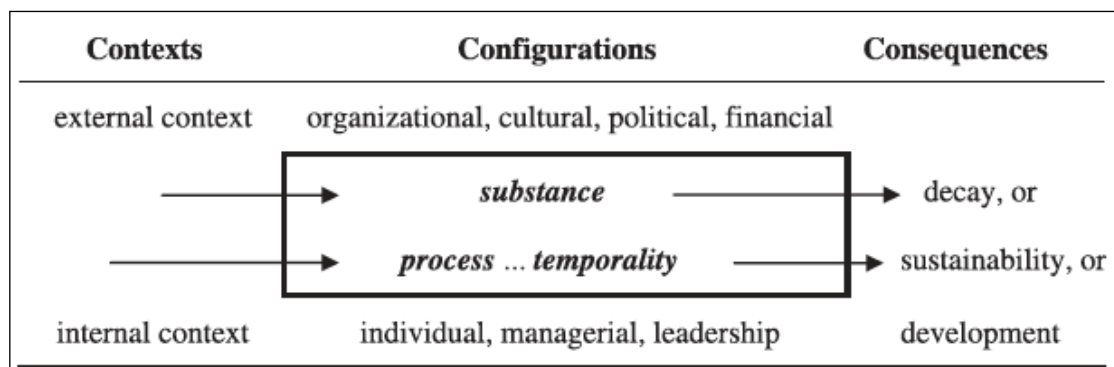


Figure 3.1: The process of sustainability in context

Source: Buchanan *et al.* (2005: 202)

The theoretical underpinning of this model can be justified in three ways. First, given the limited research into institutionalization, the model is seen as both specific in its focus on issues surrounding institutionalization and comprehensive in its scope, since it incorporates the work of many theorists on sustaining change and covers 50 years of research. Secondly, the model is relatively new and has recently been developed in the literature. Thirdly, it adopts a processual perspective, which “appears to offer a useful lens through which to examine sustainability, focusing on the flow of events in a wider spatial, temporal and political context” (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005: 200).

This does not mean that the model is without shortcomings. The limitations of the originating study reside predominantly in its methodology, which depends to some extent on the subjective selection of relevant sources as well as partial discrimination between references. It is also true that the seven reported studies differ in the nature and the substance of the changes examined, in the approaches taken and in the methodologies adopted, so that each perspective is subject to criticism; for example, Jacob (2002) presents his theoretical model without empirical support, while Kotter (1995) relies on almost 100 case studies of American organizations at the expense of theory development.

Nonetheless, since the approach to institutionalization taken by the present study is an interdisciplinary one which draws on the literature of both organizational change and institutional theory, it is essential to build a bridge between these two approaches. Azzone and Palermo (2011) argue that they have some common elements which enable a dialogue between them; for example, the emergent approach to change management acknowledges the critical role of power and politics and of environment turbulence (Coram & Burnes, 2001), as does neoinstitutionalism when recognizing the relevance of key actors and powerful organizational groups (Scott, 2005).

It goes without saying that factors such as leadership, power and politics, communication and culture can have a substantial impact on change in general and institutionalization in particular, but the present research is concerned with the characteristics and conditions of these factors, how they interact and how they should be managed in the institutionalization process. Given the context of this research, the next subsection integrates the critical factors affecting change management in the Middle East (identified earlier in chapter 2) with the eleven factors influencing institutionalization.

3.4.1 Perspectives from the Middle East

Our review in chapter 2 (section 2.4.2) found that change management practices are context-dependent and culturally biased, while the discussion of political, economic and cultural features of the Middle East (section 2.4.3) argued that Arab national culture, tribalism, Islam and organizational culture could strongly affect organizational change and thus institutionalization. Hence, it is important to consider those critical factors that might apply in Middle Eastern countries, significantly facilitating or hindering change initiatives and the design of OD interventions.

As the 11-factor model of Buchanan *et al.* (2005; 2007) is adopted for this study, it is important to note that despite its specific focus on institutionalization, it appears to be rather generic; it is also assumed that factors influencing institutionalization, its conditions and its significance can be determined only by the internal and external contexts. Hence, it is encouraging to combine relevant factors discussed in chapter 2 with the 11 factors listed in Table 3.3, in order to cover all possible variables that affect institutionalization, especially in a Middle Eastern context. At this stage we have a wide range of factors potentially influencing the institutionalization process, which for clarity—and to avoid overlapping and repetition—it is convenient to categorize them into four main clusters, listed in Table 3.4: management characteristics, employee characteristics, context characteristics and change characteristics. Given the focus of this study on the intra-organizational level of analysis of institutionalization, factors that are contingent on the external environment are excluded (e.g. political and economic).

Table 3.4: Critical factors in institutionalization

Categories of Critical Factors	Table 3.3	Chapter 2
Management characteristics	Managerial, Leadership, Financial	Loyalty, Trustworthiness, Fairness, Commitment, Supervision
Employee characteristics	Individual	Reward expectations, Communication styles, Nepotism
Context characteristics	Cultural, Organizational	National culture, Organizational culture, Power and politics, Tribalism, Islam, Past events
Change characteristics	Substance, Temporal, Process	Time orientation, Long-term planning

Source: The author

At this point, we have to some extent answered the question ‘why’, related to reasons for succeeding or failing to attain institutionalization: it is conditioned by the presence of such factors in respect of a range of issues. Does management establish a clear and consistent vision? Are individuals competent? Have their reward expectations been met? Is change congruous with organizational strategies and goals? And so on; a high ‘yes’ count predicts successful institutionalization and a low one failure (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005). The next section therefore addresses the question of ‘how’, related to strategies and approaches for institutionalizing change.

3.5 HOW TO INSTITUTIONALIZE CHANGE

It seems necessary to remind the reader that the analysis of institutionalization is intended to be from the perspective of individual agency, which impels this research to choose the study of Armenakis and his associates (1999), because they take an employee-centric approach to change and focus on the change recipients, unlike other studies which adopt a leader-centric view of change (Schein, 1987; Kotter, 1995). The philosophy behind such an approach is that change must eventually be conducted by change recipients; thus understanding their motivation to support or resist organizational change provides valuable practical insights into how best to manage change (Armenakis & Harris, 2009).

3.5.1 The change message

Armenakis *et al.* (1999) identify five key beliefs involved in the production of a change message, which is vital in influencing individuals' perceptions and attitudes. The five beliefs are: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, principal support and personal valence. The extent to which organizational members make sense of these five components of the change message not only determines the nature of their ultimate commitment to the change, but also has implications for the creation of readiness for change and its adoption (Armenakis *et al.*, 1993), as their sentiments towards each element are integrated to frame their overall motivation regarding the change and therefore affect the likelihood of successful institutionalization (Armenakis & Harris, 2009). This does not mean that any one component stands alone, but that all are interrelated and interdependent, influencing and framing each other to shape the overall commitment to change (Self & Schraeder, 2009). Table 3.5 represents the five component factors of the change message, what they signify and the question addressed by each.

Table 3.5: The five components of the change message

Components	Signification	Questions addressed
Discrepancy	Reflects the gap between current & proposed state (the need for change)	Is the change necessary? Do we still need the change?
Appropriateness	Related to whether the chosen initiative is appropriate, if not the best one (agree the change)	Is the change being introduced the right change to make?
Efficacy	The belief that the change can be achieved & sustained (capability & confidence to carry out the change)	Do I or we (organizational members) have the ability to carry out the change successfully?
Principal support	The extent to which formal and informal leaders are committed to the change	Are key organizational members still committed to and supportive of the change?
Personal valence	Employees' belief that the change is advantageous and has positive implications for them (benefits)	What's in it for me?

Source: Adapted from Armenakis and associates (1993; 1999; 2009)

Accordingly, it seems that recognising the need for change (discrepancy) is not in itself enough for employees to keep track of the change; they must be convinced that the method being implemented is appropriate for achieving the ultimate goal and desired result, as they might perceive that the change is needed but at the same time disagree with the method (ibid). Employees must also be confident of their ability to carry out the change (efficacy). In addition, consistent seriousness and commitment from management (principal support) should be apparent to all employees, whose acknowledgement of change has long been associated with managerial support (Lyons *et al.*, 2009). Finally, the benefits gained from the change must be clear to all members (personal valence) to encourage them to sustain it (ibid). Liu and Perrewé (2005) note that change recipients experience strongly positive emotions when they perceive change as carrying a high potential for their own success and growth. Thus, the change message conveyed by management can be a valid instrument by which managers assess their own behaviour in relation to the above five beliefs, then choose appropriate modifications or interventions.

3.5.2 Strategies for institutionalizing change

Armenakis *et al.* (1999) provide a framework for institutionalizing change (Figure 3.2), recommending seven strategies that enable managers to shape and reinforce the change message.

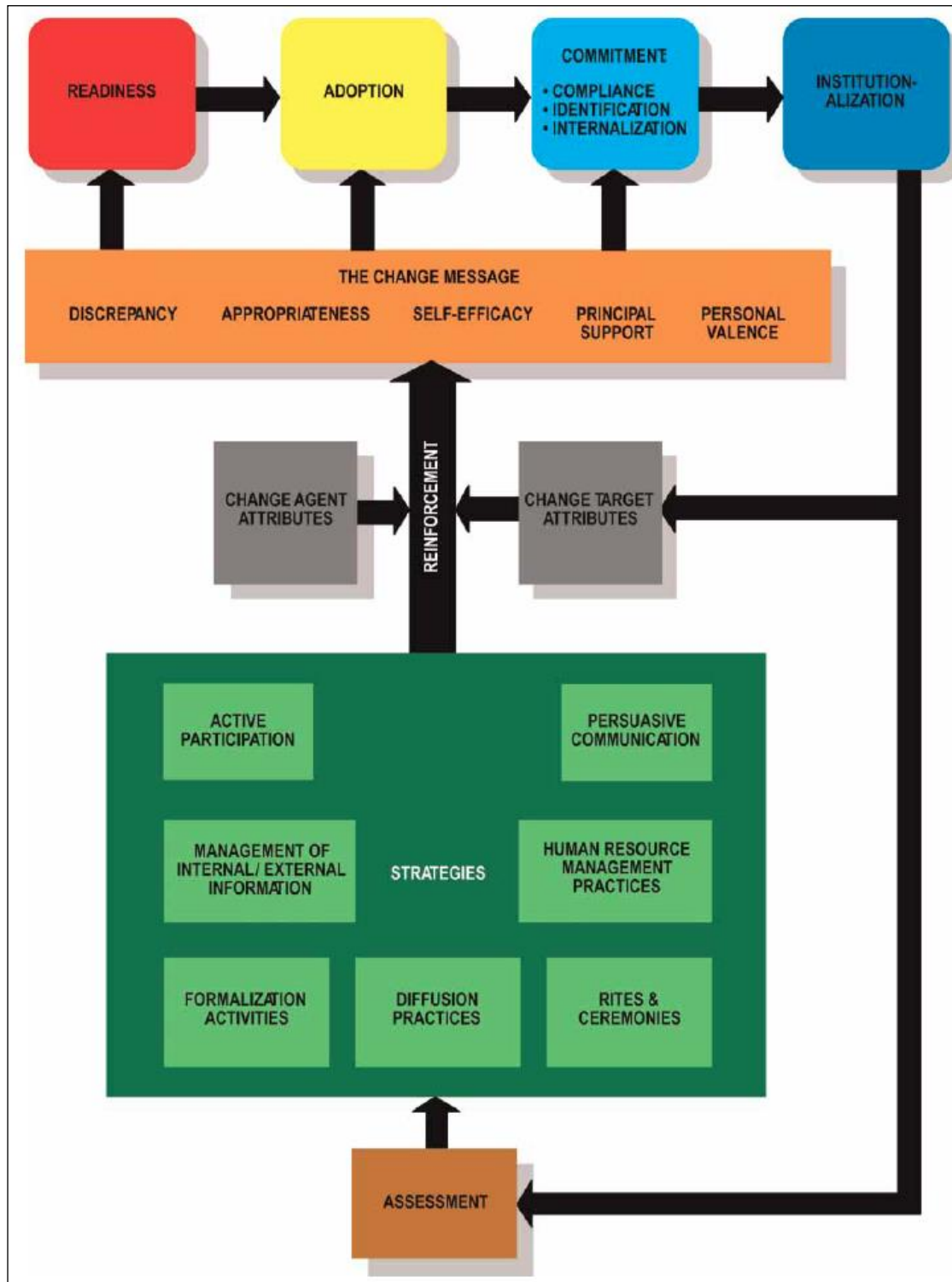


Figure 3.2: Institutionalizing change

Source: Armenakis & Harris (2009: 134)

While the present study is primarily concerned with the institutionalization process, it is important not to forget that the earlier stages of creating readiness and implementation may have significant effects on institutionalization. Thus, it can be suggested that individuals'

sentiments central to institutionalization should be established at earlier stages, in order to generate positive change momentum, as indicated in the framework. The seven strategies are:

1. Active participation: Engaging employees in the change process will enhance the relationship between the change agent and organizational members, giving them the opportunity for mutual communication in a way that promotes learning and eliminates uncertainty, building the credibility of the change agent and helping him or her to observe, examine and reshape employees' present attitudes and values (Choi & Ruona, 2011). This view is supported by Lines (2004), who argues that participation correlates positively with goal achievement and organizational commitment and negatively with resistance to change. In his opinion, participation accords employees a sense of ownership of the change process, which increases their commitment to it and elicits a positive reaction, thus improving outcomes. He further claims that the extent to which participants are involved in the implementation of change matters, indicating that employees who are invited to participate in the development of change plans are more likely to embrace the change than those who merely give their opinions on decisions made by others.

2. Persuasive communication: The key word here is 'persuasive', referring to the effectiveness of the means used to transmit relevant information. Change managers articulate possible reasons and justifications which are necessary to shape employees' perceptions of the change. Thus, communication in all its forms (speech, written reports, video, phone calls, etc.) can be seen as a vehicle by which change managers deliver and clarify the change message. Research underlines the importance of comprehending the change initiative, as employees are apt to resist if they suffer from lack of clarity (Alas, 2007) or have irrational ideas (Bovey & Hede, 2001) with respect to change.

3. Management of internal/external information: Information from internal and external sources is important to reinforce the change message. Tools such as survey data, benchmarking metrics and other sources of data can support the need for change. The key points here are the quality of information being transmitted and how its content might be relevant to the five core components of the change message. Bordia *et al.* (2004) assert that negative emotions such as anxiety, fear and threat are possible outcomes of uncertainty regarding the change, when change recipients lack information on the situation and can neither estimate the likelihood of a certain event nor predict the outcomes.

4. Human resource management practices: HRM practices can be utilized to complement other strategies and reinforce desired attitudes in the institutionalization process. For example, selection activities can be applied to choose individuals whose values match the represented change; performance appraisal including change criteria may yield useful feedback to organizational members; training is also important to provide employees with the required knowledge and skills; and the reward system and compensation can encourage employees to adopt the change and sustain adoptive behaviours. All of this will tend to create a climate which encourages and supports the change.

5. Diffusion practices: Spreading the change message across organizational groups and members will enhance institutionalization. A pilot programme is a common practice that encourages potential adopters from the pilot division to share their experience with other divisions and demonstrate the benefits. In organizational networks, diffusion practices can establish some kind of organizational dialogue whereby employees “learn to talk, walk the talk, and sustain the talk and walk” (Ashkenas & Jick, 1992, cited in Armenakis *et al.*, 1999).

6. Rites and ceremonies: Activities such as meetings, conferences and ceremonies can serve as symbolic representations of the change outcomes, where employees exchange stories about good and difficult times during the change, as well as celebrating their accomplishments and achievements. Reward and recognition will motivate employees to adopt and maintain the new values and behaviours, while signifying the consequences of actions and expressing the letting go of the past. To this end, employees should keep in mind that the old is gone forever, focusing on the new state and its challenges in order to preserve its life-fulfilling values.

7. Formalization activities: Change should be concomitant with other formal activities including changes in structure, policies and procedures. For instance, in supporting the new structure, a revision of job descriptions is required. Applying other formal activities will eliminate inconsistencies and barriers to the adoption and institutionalization of new behaviours, while sending a powerful message regarding management’s commitment to and support for the change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999).

Besides these seven strategies, reward and punishment can be highly relevant and effective in institutionalizing behaviours. The discussion of reinforcement theory in section 3.2 showed that behaviour which is reinforced tends to be repeated and vice versa (Skinner, 1988). While it is not our object to study this theory in detail, its practical implications for reward and punishment practices have potential advantages for managers. According to reinforcement theory, human actions can be modified by simply using positive and negative types of reinforcement. Positive reinforcement means presenting a reward after a desired behaviour to increase the likelihood of it reoccurring, whereas negative reinforcement means removing an aversive stimulus after a desired behaviour to avoid an unwanted consequence. Conversely, punishment can be practiced by presenting an aversive stimulus or removing a rewarding stimulus contingent on a response (ibid). There are also a number of techniques to show how the reinforcer should be presented after the occurrence of the behaviour, referring to Skinner's schedules of reinforcement (1957). These comprise four main strategies: 1) fixed interval: reinforcing behaviours at a specific time; 2) fixed ratio: reinforcing behaviours after a specific number of responses; 3) variable interval: reinforcing behaviours at random time intervals; and 4) variable ratio: reinforcing behaviours after random numbers of responses. Managers can effectively apply these reinforcement techniques to increase the frequency of productive behaviour and decrease the frequency of disruptive behaviour, thus enhancing institutionalization, especially because the principles of reward and punishment will foster the personal valence factor of the change message.

All of the abovementioned strategies and tactics should be precisely linked to the organizational change efforts and in particular should be designed to reinforce the five components of the change message. Assessment (i.e. the extent to which organizational members have heard and believe the change message) is also fundamental to establish the link between managerial interventions and the perceptions, attitudes and satisfaction of individuals; hence managers must conduct a proper diagnosis to determine what actions need to be taken to remedy a situation where the message lacks credibility, for example (ibid).

Perhaps the most important aspect of institutionalization is to make the message 'stick'. One way to do this is to repeat it over and over again in a way that expresses consistency and perseverance, forming a story that can be easily remembered (Burke, 2011a).

Persuasive communication can play a critical role in this, as managers can utilize numerous tactics such as speeches, memos and technology (e.g. email, video transmission) in order to communicate and spread the story.

Nonetheless, in socially constructed organizations, shared meanings, perceptions and interpretations of organizational change constructed by change recipients may not be as managers intend, i.e. individuals may interpret the message differently or even misunderstand it (Bartunek *et al.*, 2011). This is the case when individuals' experiences and schemas differ from those of the change agents (Sonenshein, 2009). Thus, managers must seek to achieve a shared and similar understanding of change; hence Ford and Ford (2008) have stressed the significance of ongoing conversations between change agents and recipients. Additionally, Harris (1994) highlights the role of individuals' interpretations and how their beliefs and attitudes can be shaped by the words of their leaders. Therefore, the next section discusses the language-based approach to change and its potential to provide change agents with a tool enabling them to convey the change message effectively.

3.6 THE LANGUAGE-BASED APPROACH

Recent literature questions the validity of classical OD interventions and its data-based change method, doubting the extent to which diagnosis can reflect the underlying objective reality (Bushe & Marshak, 2009; Van Nistelrooij & Sminia, 2010; Werkman, 2010). It is commonly accepted that the task of change agents is to align their interventions to fit an objective reality that exists 'out there' in the organization and that successful change thus depends on their ability to apply suitable interventions to that reality (Ford, 1999). But what if we conceptualize organizations as socially constructed entities, in which reality is interpreted, constructed, enacted and sustained (ibid; Berger & Luckmann, 1966)? In such a constructivist view, our knowledge and understanding of reality is not a mirror of the 'true' reality, but rather a construction that is created in the process of making sense of our surroundings (Weick, 1995).

Within constructed realities, Watzlawick (1976) differentiates between first and second-order realities, or what Bohm (1996) calls presented and represented reality. First-order realities "are composed of uninterpreted facts and data that are accessible (i.e. in the world), measurable, and empirically verifiable [and] require a set of linguistic agreements, understandings, and vocabulary for their existence" (Ford, 1999: 481-482), while second-

order reality is created in the meaning attached to the first-order reality, meaning that our interpretations, opinions, judgments and evaluations of the data represent a second-order reality that is not necessarily the same as in the presented (first-order) reality (Bohm, 1996). Doctors who diagnose a chronic illness may respond differently to the first-order reality of the patient's data on the basis of their interpretations (second-order reality).

What is significant about these second-order representations is that they provide a context in which the first-order realities are presented and thus people act according to these representations as if they were presentations (Ford, 1999). Note that different interpretations and articulations may result in different effects and practical consequences in an organization, regardless of what happens to the first-order reality; different doctors may offer different advice and propose different treatments for the same patient because each relies on his/her own understanding (represented reality), drawing his/her own conclusions from the signs and symptoms (presented reality).

The question arises of how we can know about things that are considered to be new to us or of which we have little experience. Useful insights may come from applying Weick's (1995) analytical framework of the seven properties of the sensemaking process. In retrospective processes, for example, people draw on their past experience of change programmes as frames of reference (Thurlow & Mills, 2009), allowing them to interpret reality on the basis of the language and events that have been created as meaningful in the past. The idea of sensemaking is also central to plausibility rather than accuracy, proposing that sense-makers may prefer a specific meaning or find that a particular explanation is more meaningful than the alternatives. They may also be selective when choosing among clues upon which to base their understanding. Further, sensemaking is a collective process, meaning that people may seek information in interactions with others (Kramer *et al.*, 2004). Thus, in the process of socialization and social interactions, historical stories and individuals' experiences and judgments are engaged and exchanged in a way that guides them in how to see the world and act accordingly (Weick, 1995). All of these insights offer rich explanations and make managers aware of the interpretative process through which people socially construct and assign meanings to their experiences.

Therefore, Ford (1999) argues that both types of reality are created and perpetuated in and through the process of conversations, which involve speaking, listening, writing, reading and attending to facial expressions and body movements. For him, conversations are not

only a means for constructing reality; they are also the reality itself or the linguistic products “that are interconnected with other linguistic products to form an intertextuality of conversations”, existing in words, phrases and sentences (ibid: 485). From this conversational perspective, organizations can be seen as networks of conversations and change can be regarded as a language-based phenomenon that occurs within communication (Ford & Ford, 1995); thus, leading change is a matter of shifting and managing conversations among individuals in a conversational network, while resistance can be related to individuals’ unwillingness to speak or listen differently (Ford, 1999).

Shifting conversations can therefore bring about alterations in what people talk about or pay attention to in an existing context, which then provides an opportunity to generate a new second-order reality that encourages the adoption of new behaviours. Accordingly, the task of change agents is no longer associated with planning and executing a well-defined process, as in planned change, but more equivalent to the emergent approach (chapter 2), where producing change requires a shift of conversation through change agents initiating, reintegrating, redirecting and negotiating the existing network of conversations in order to construct a new conversational reality that supports the change (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

Ford and Ford (1995) suggest that organizational change unfolds in four types of conversations: initiative, understanding, performance and closure; each type is formed from a distinct combination of the five categories of speech acts (Searle, 1969), summarized in Table 3.6. Thus, successful change is conditional on the ability of managers to function effectively in a way that reflects the evolving context and progress of the change. This can be accomplished via a proper understanding of and differentiation between these types of conversations, choosing a suitable pattern in a given context, trying it to see what happens, making an evaluation and applying appropriate adjustments (ibid). There is no certain mix of conversational types or well written scripts that can be applied to every change; rather “producing change is like experimental theatre or improvisational jazz where the script (music) is being written while it is being performed... the specific conversations ... have to be generated on a moment to moment basis” (Ford, 1999: 487-488).

Table 3.6: The five categories of speech acts

Type	Signification	Examples
Assertive (Claim)	Statements that are supportable by evidence; thus they are assessable and assailable on a dimension of true and false.	Judgments, evaluations, excuses, assessments, opinions and justifications.
Directive (Request)	Conversations that attempt to get the job done and make the listeners do something.	Invitations, advice, orders, instructions and commands.
Commissive	Natural responses to a request that commit the speaker to some future action(s) in order to establish agreement in a conversation.	Promises and oaths.
Expressive	Expressing the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition.	Apologises, excuses, thanks, congratulations, worries and wishes.
Declarative	Creating a new state or reality based on the speaker's position.	Pronouncing someone guilty, or declaring that a new project is complete.

Source: Adapted from Searle (1969) and Ford and Ford (1995)

The following is a description of each of the four types of conversation, which can be seen as managerially driven and control oriented, since it serves as a tool for managing change (Jian, 2007).

- 1. Initiative conversations:** Managers may rely on one or several types of speech acts in order to produce new ideas, make recommendations or propose alterations of the current state. It is essential for these conversations to identify possible opportunities or crises so as to evoke acceptance and action.
- 2. Conversations for understanding** are characterized by assertions and expressives, because managers need to make claims, examine hypotheses and assumptions, and provide evidence for people who seek to know the truth and make sense of the situation. These conversations are intended to translate events and decode meanings so as to create a shared context in which people engage in the change process and learn how to talk to each other.
- 3. Conversations for performance** occur where spoken words are translated into actions. A mix of directives (requests) and commissives (promises) can generate actions and provoke commitments to specific tasks. Questions of who, what, when and where regarding the action should be thoroughly understood in order to achieve the intended result(s).
- 4. Conversations for closure** have as their main object to send a message that implies a sense of completion of the change process and ending of the project, to ensure

that people disengage from the past and go forward. Assertions, expressives and declarations are common speech acts in this type of conversation, as managers normally enact some activities such as celebrating a happy ending, expressing thanks or even regrets, offering acknowledgement or recognition and summarizing the status or results of change (Ford & Ford, 1995).

This conversational view of organizational change is quite different from the traditional perspective, as the change is seen here as a new reality that is brought into existence through communication; thus, successful change depends on the effectiveness of communication (Ford, 1999). Placing change in a communicative context may have implications for other aspects of organizational change. For instance, while resistance to change has long been portrayed as a negative attitude that needs to be overcome, this approach conceives resistance as a dialogue that can be altered or “an issue of language maintenance” (ibid: 495). Change managers should examine the themes of such conversations for resistance, identifying aspects that need to be amended; employees’ objections should then be deconstructed and managers should rebuild their points of view. Regarding resistance to change as a second-order reality may help managers to intervene more meaningfully and reframe the conditions and circumstances so as to alter the interpretations that yield resistance; in other words, to produce a new second-order reality. In this manner, resistance can be exploited to enhance communication between change agents and recipients, to add value to people, to increase their encouragement and commitment, and ultimately to obtain success (Ford *et al.*, 2008).

Another feature of this dialogic approach is that it downplays the effects of situational factors (e.g. leadership, structure, culture) on the change process; traditional organizational change considers these to be key determinants of the change, whereas the present approach argues that they are relevant only to the degree that they are invoked and drawn upon in conversations among organizational members (Ford & Ford, 1995). Change in this sense is no longer seen as “an abstract set of influences among boxes, but as series of conversations where change can be discussed and debated, and new ideas can emerge” (Anderson, 2012: 81). Managers need to listen carefully not only to their subordinates’ language, but also to their own conversations about change or any critical factor of change, in order to understand how and why certain factors are appealed to in conversations; they can then choose to interfere either by shifting the focus or changing the content of enacted conversations.

3.6.1 An integrated approach: Implications for managers

Managers often complain about the lack of practical guidance in the organizational change literature, as noted in chapter two, but the relatively new perspective on organizational change outlined above provides them with an alternative approach to managing change by managing conversations. Being aware of the four types of conversation listed here could enable managers to be more deliberate and specific in their communication during the various stages and processes of change. Nevertheless, while the model has efficiently described the potential applicability of speech acts as tools to facilitate the function of conversations, little has been said regarding the content of these conversations, apart from labels that define the stage of development of the change: initiative, understanding, performance and closure.

At this stage, we are in a position to propose that the five components of the change message offer a possible content from which change managers can draw their conversations, since these elements could play a promising role in highlighting aspects of change that have the potential to be sources either of resistance or of commitment to the change. For instance, managers who talk specifically about initiating the change could be even more specific and be encouraged to talk about discrepancy (i.e. how the new change could improve the current ineffective state) or appropriateness (i.e. how the proposed change is the right one to achieve optimal outcomes). The same is argued to be true as the change moves forward towards understanding, performance and closure. Thus, the five elements of the change message can be seen to shape a framework within which managers can purposely shift their conversations according to the language of organizational members. To this end, managers would be required to conduct a proper diagnostic examination of the dialogue going on in the organization if they are to intervene meaningfully.

Given that the focus of this research is on institutionalization, it is essential at this stage to ensure the persistence and consistency of conversations, meaning that what managers have been saying about the change must be compatible with their attitudes. Otherwise, they might contribute to generating employee resistance, since they are engaged in a sensemaking process with change recipients; thus, if they break agreements or misrepresent facts, employees' trust may be lost, relationships damaged and resistance to change provoked (Ford *et al.*, 2008). Principal support is also fundamental to creating and

sustaining an effective change message, while change recipients who experience perceptions of trust and fairness are likely to have positive emotions regarding the change (Murphy & Tyler, 2008). Self and Schraeder (2009) note that during times of change, employees will often observe their managers, assessing their seriousness and commitment towards the change, so as to act accordingly.

Our earlier discussion of the process of institutionalization found that it occurs in a sequence of three processes: habitualization, objectification and sedimentation, which are highly dependent on human interactions in organizations. Thus, generating persuasive meanings (i.e. reflecting the five components of the change message) that are attributed to habitualized action might not be enough for change to be institutionalized; instead, managers must communicate, interact and generalize the meanings of their conversations in order to develop a consensus of meanings embedded in a social system. Hence, beside the seven strategies suggested by Armenakis *et al.* (1999), as well as reward and punishment practices to reinforce the change message, it seems reasonable to propose network management as an effective strategy for delivering and negotiating the change message, because it refers to “the management of the interaction processes within networks”, enabling managers to contribute by “guiding interaction and providing opportunities ... selecting actors and resources, influencing network conditions and handling complexity” (Kickert, 2010: 499). Repeating conversations can also be a powerful strategy for sustaining the change message and making it stick in the minds of organizational members.

Hence, practical training in the conversations of change and action communication appear to be critical for managerial effectiveness, as noted in chapter two; change managers need certain linguistic, diagnostic and interpretative skills (Kickert, 2010), as sense-givers, in order to “influence the sensemaking and meaning construction of others towards a preferred redefinition of organizational reality” (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991: 442). Weick and Quinn (1999: 381) also declare that

the role of the change agent becomes one of managing language, dialogue, and identity... They recognize adaptive emergent changes, make them more salient, and reframe them... They explain current upheavals, where they are heading, what they will have produced by way of a redesign, and how further intentional changes can be made at the margins.

In this sense, it could be argued that an effective leadership style is one that supports network interaction, follower participation and engagement, and bottom-up transformation. This view is consistent with the assertion of Bennis and Kegan (2012) that charismatic leadership is less desired than intellectual stimulation in the state of institutionalization; while the former is critical to drive radical change, the latter increases employees' awareness of problems and encourages them to take a novel approach when dealing with them. From this point of view, leaders should have a particular set of qualities and skills, including openness and adaptability to new ideas, flexibility in style, and a collaborative approach to work, thus motivating participative exchange.

Moreover, Graetz and Smith (2010) call into question the leader-centred model of organizational change, arguing that such models represent a partial story told by senior managers which neglects many other stories unfolding around them in the organization. They further contest the claim that the charismatic trait is relevant only when it comes to communicating the new vision, giving the example of the team-centric leadership of Peter Biggs, the new chief of Clemenger BBDO, who brought about innovation by opening doors for individuals to interact and show their personalities. All of these attributes and skills are necessary for managers to promote their capacity for handling and managing dialogue during change, particularly at the stage of institutionalization.

The following section concludes this chapter by drawing together the key points of the reviewed literature.

3.7 CONCLUSION OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW: TOWARDS A MODEL OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION

The preceding literature review has acknowledged that change is an accepted tenet of modern life and that it is becoming ever more unceasing and unpredictable and far less controllable than before (By, 2005; Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Choi & Ruona, 2011). This is why managing change is admitted to be the most challenging issue facing organizations today and why both academics and consultants are increasingly offering a wide range of competing theories and ever more puzzling guidelines (By, 2005; Burnes, 2009). Hence, managing change is no longer a function of a single method or theory; rather, one should seek an alternative approach based on interdisciplinary perspectives and multiple theoretical explanations (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Graetz & Smith, 2009; Burnes, 2009;

Bright & Godwin, 2010; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). This study has therefore explored two ways of viewing organizations, as open systems and as socially constructed, each perspective offering different and useful insights, complementary to each other and helpful in guiding managers to better management practice.

Considering the large body of research on managing organizational change, the review has emphasised the influential work of Kurt Lewin, encapsulated in his three-step model, which inspired researchers for decades and paved the way for the planned approach to change and OD to prosper. Nevertheless, by the early 1980s, due to organizations' higher demands for constant, rapid and dramatic change, the idea that change can unfold in a simple linear fashion had been rejected. Since then, very many other approaches have emerged in response to the shortcomings of the planned approach, with labels such as emergent, processual, political, institutional, cultural, contingency, complexity and chaos (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Dawson, 1994; Burnes, 2009; Cummings and Worley, 2009).

Notwithstanding the availability of this broad range of approaches, the success rate of change initiatives is admittedly very poor, not only when initiating the change, but even after the successful implementation of a well-planned change (Goodman & Dean, 1982; 1983; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Jacobs, 2002). This was the point of departure for the present research and its concern with institutionalization, expressed in three main issues and questions: How do changes in human behaviour or work methods become institutionalized? Why do some changes in organizations become institutionalized, whereas others decay? How can change initiatives be institutionalized? Answering these questions has involved mining the relevant literature on institutionalization processes, factors and strategies.

The institutionalization of change is rooted in the refreezing step of planned change (Lewin, 1947), which aims to make new ways of working stick by integrating them into the organizational system and its culture; in other words, making the change permanent and preventing new behaviours from reverting to the old habits (Goodman & Dean, 1982; Schein, 1987; Kotter, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Jacobs, 2002; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Change is costly (Wilson & Kurz, 2008) and organizations spend considerable amounts of time and money in order to bring it about (e.g. by installing new information systems). Therefore, it is sensible to think that organizations want to see and maintain the benefits of these investments.

The review also suggests that institutionalization, despite its advantages, may not always be desirable, but may even be counterproductive, especially in a dynamic context that requires continuous change (Senge, 1990; Lawler & Worley, 2006; Anderson, 2012). The rationale behind this argument is that sustaining change might prevent workers from acquiring valuable new skills and stop further development of the organization (Buchanan, 2005), given that each new change would cancel previous efforts of institutionalization. In short, organizations in today's complex environment cannot remain static, where change is perceived to be a temporary fix that quickly reverts to the status quo.

This issue has been addressed in this review by arguing that organizations do need stability as well as change, for the purpose of maintaining regulatory and enhancing organizational efficiency, otherwise employees would lack commitment to change, believing that further change would soon follow. Pascale *et al.* (2000) stress that chaos theory is not applicable to organizations, because they are not chaotic. This does not mean, however, that no change should occur during the stage of institutionalization, as organizations will always adjust to changes in their environment, "but continuous radical change is likely to be dysfunctional as well as unsustainable, [so] periods of change need to be followed by periods of relative stability during which time the change is being put into effect" (Galliers & Baker, 1995: 266). In other words, organizations need to keep a balance between change and continuity if they are to prosper and achieve competitive advantage (Burchell & Kolb, 2006; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). After all, the institutionalization of change should continue for a specified period of time that is appropriate in a given context (Buchanan, 2005), which is why the review has proposed that the concept is more applicable to public than private sector organizations, given that the latter are more subject to continuous change.

3.7.1 The model

This chapter has so far critically reviewed the relevant literature that contributes to developing the framework for this study. By deploying institutional theory, the cognitive process of institutionalization has been examined from a social construction perspective, reaching the conclusion that institutionalization has multiple levels and degrees, which are dependent on the levels of interaction among individuals in a social network (Berger and Luckmann 1966; Tolbert & Zucker, 1994). Until meanings, perceptions and interpretations of change are widely shared and deeply embedded in a social system, the change is subject

to decay and relapse to the previous state. Indeed, conceptualizing institutionalization as a set of processes can enrich our understanding and offer useful explanations of how the change in a socially constructed organization becomes institutionalized. This study will therefore adopt as its theoretical framework the three-process model of institutionalization, comprising habitualization, objectification and sedimentation (ibid).

In answering the question as to why some change initiatives fail to endure, this chapter has investigated the critical factors for successful institutionalization of change, formulating four clusters that combine to determine the overall level of acceptance and commitment to the change within the organization: management characteristics, employee characteristics, context characteristics and change characteristics. These categorizations result from the combination (Table 3.4) of the eleven factors identified by Buchanan *et al.* (2005; 2007) with those determined in chapter 2 to be particularly influential in the context of this research, the Middle East. Given that change is context dependent, it is fair to assume that the relative importance of each cluster or factor varies according to the internal and external, past and present contexts in which the interactions occur.

The model of Armenakis *et al.* (1999) was taken as the framework for answering the question of how to institutionalize change, reflecting the significance of the change message as a valid instrument, which “both conveys the nature of the change and shapes the sentiments that determine reactions to the change” (Armenakis & Harris, 2002: 169). The utilization of the seven strategies as well as the practices of reward and punishment, drawn from reinforcement theory, have also been analysed. As this research respects the social construction point of view, this chapter then also proposed the conversational approach to change (Ford & Ford, 1995) as a potentially effective tool enabling managers to become more conscious, deliberate and eloquent in their dialogue, by which a second-order reality is generated (Watzlawick, 1976), to encourage or deter certain behaviours.

Thus, while managers can effectively deploy these strategies in order to reinforce the five beliefs of organizational members regarding the change message, which to a large extent shape their commitment to the change, they can also deploy them to generate, shift, articulate or even repeat conversations so as to bring into existence a represented reality that reflects the five components of the change message and thus supports institutionalization. This reality will then be interpreted, assimilated and shared through social interactions between people inside the organization. In this sense, it can be

hypothesized that a high degree of institutionalization can be achieved only after a long time, once people have had enough time to socialize the meanings of the new reality. Thus, any breakdown in communication could stop the enactment of the institutionalization process, while any inconsistent element of the change message could present a different second-order reality that would generate resistance, making institutionalization fragile and regression more likely (Kotter, 1995; Buchanan, 2005). Hence, this research suggests network management as a potentially effective strategy by which managers can modify and reframe the existing network by redividing the resources or/and altering the actors' positions to facilitate interactions between them (Kickert, 2010). The extent to which a new language is incorporated into the organizational network will influence the likelihood of success (Ford, 1999).

To this end, the framework (Figure 3.3) was constructed by bringing together various conceptual elements reviewed in this chapter, including the three processes of institutionalization, the four categories of critical factors influencing it and the eight strategies (including the suggested network management) for reinforcing and drawing into conversations the five components of the change message. This model fulfils three criteria, as promised in chapter 2. First, it considers the systemic properties of an organization by identifying specific variables (i.e. factors) and processes that lead to institutionalization; then it specifies the inputs (strategies), throughputs (interactions between the variables conveying the change message), outputs (institutionalization processes) and feedback loop (assessment) that are necessary for making an appropriate decision or correction in relation to an identified problem. It is not our objective to review methodological issues related to assessment. In addition, while recognizing the impact of the external environment on an open systems organization and its internal social processes (chapter 2), given the scope of this research, the framework illustrates only the internal aspects of open systems theory.

It should also be noted that while the four variables appear discrete in the framework, they are interdependent and interact continually in complex ways, rather like the ingredients in a chemical solution that are combined to produce a particular outcome. The author could have used arrows going in both directions between variables to show the causality effects and convey the open systems principle (i.e. a change in any variable will eventually have an impact on the others), but he preferred to use the chemical interaction metaphor (i.e. a

change in any ingredient will change the overall result), because it depicts the complexity of interaction between factors while not overcomplicating the diagram of the framework.

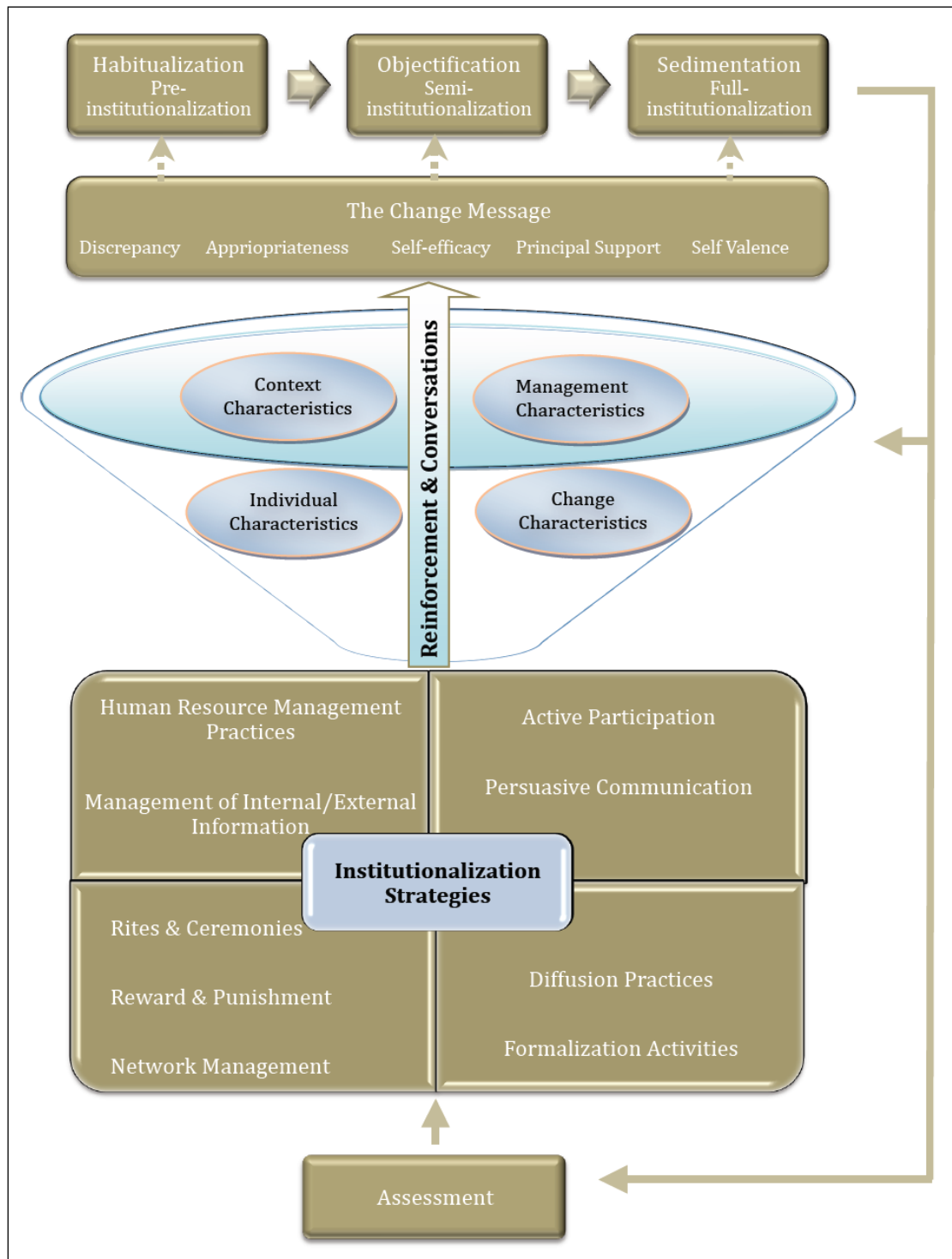


Figure 3.3: Conceptual framework for this study

The model also acknowledges to some extent the social construction perspective, because it treats the individual not just as a recipient but as an active agent whose emotions and

cognitive interpretations have an influence on the institutionalization process (Weick, 1995; Bartunek *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, it equips managers with an extra conversational instrument that enlightens them and enriches their interventions. Given that change can be emergent and subject to continuity (chapter 2), managers may face a situation where the current change needs to be deinstitutionalized on the basis of a new one; thus they can effectively redirect the language and dialogue to tell and spread a new story (i.e. a new second-order reality) for organizational members to make sense of the emerging patterns and ongoing change. Accordingly, the approach being taken here is a mixed one, since it sees institutionalization as a process arising not only from the systemic connections of managerial strategies with the organizational categories or factors, but also through the interactions of people's thoughts about these factors or strategies and how they translate them.

Thirdly, the model is context-dependent, meaning that it should be put in context so as to identify and distinguish particular factors that have potential effects on institutionalization. Thus, the framework is contextualized by considering various political and cultural issues (recalled from chapter 2) that might arise in a Middle Eastern setting. It is worth mentioning that the aim here is not only to identify and examine the aforementioned factors and their relative significance; this conceptual framework also serves as a theoretical guide to explore the conditions and circumstances of each factor that can facilitate or hinder the enactment of institutionalization processes, so as to design appropriate interventions to manage them.

The next chapter describes the qualitative and quantitative tools that were used to gather data in order to answer the related research questions.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Previous chapters have highlighted the key theoretical and contextual issues surrounding organizational change and the institutionalization of change efforts; chapter 3 concluded with a conceptual framework that showed how the institutionalization strategies and the critical factors in a given context could be incorporated to convey a change message that shapes the enactment of institutionalization processes. This chapter presents an overview of the research design and methodology, linking the literature review phase with the data analysis, discussion and conclusion. It reflects the practical guidance that helped the researcher to conduct the study as well as to collect and analyze data so as to answer the research questions.

Given the numerous research philosophies and strategies available to researchers to answer their research questions, it is beyond the scope of this study to review them all; instead, this chapter offers a description and justification of only the chosen research paradigm and methodology. It explains the purpose of this research, derives research questions from the aim and objectives, provides an overview of the research setting (the ADP), then rationalizes the philosophical assumptions, the case study strategy and the data collection instruments. Finally, it addresses some potential ethical issues.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

At this stage, it is important to remind the reader of the research aim and objectives, particularly in this section, as it develops the research questions. It has been earlier stated that three basic considerations underlie this research: How do changes in human behaviour or work methods become institutionalized? Why do some changes in organizations become institutionalized whereas others decay? How can change initiatives be institutionalized?

In recapitulation, this research therefore aims to explore how best to institutionalize organizational change in the Middle East, and eventually to develop a theoretical framework for institutionalization that is well suited to the unique characteristics and cultural setting of the Middle Eastern region in general and to those of the UAE in particular. The framework depicts three basic conceptual elements: institutionalization processes, critical factors influencing these processes and strategies for institutionalizing change. This framework will later serve to guide this exploratory research and will be tested in a UAE public sector organization, the ADP.

The following basic objectives will contribute to achieving the above research aim at the conceptual level:

- To review perspectives on and approaches to organizational change and their relative merits.
- To analyse various models used to explore institutionalization processes.
- To investigate strategies for institutionalizing change.
- To identify critical factors and their characteristics influencing institutionalization in the context of the Middle East.

Given that this study is concerned with the institutionalizing of the QMS as a specific change initiative within the ADP, the following are the specific research questions that it seeks to answer:

1. How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel, particularly with respect to the five components of the change message?
2. What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative?
3. To what extent have those strategies addressed the five components of the change message?
4. What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS initiative in the ADP?

4.3 RESEARCH SETTING: THE ABU DHABI POLICE

The ADP was established in 1957 by the ruler of Abu Dhabi, employing 80 officers to guard key locations in the city such as Al-Hosn Palace, government buildings, banks and ships. In 1971, the newly founded Ministry of the Interior took responsibility for implementing the law and protecting lives and property. Since 2004, the ADP has been under the command of the current Minister of the Interior and Deputy Prime Minister of the UAE, becoming one of the largest public sector organizations in the UAE, with more than 37,000 employees (Abu Dhabi Police, 2007).

Due to the rapid growth and development of the UAE economy (section 1.5), great pressure has been put on the ADP to adopt change and develop its capacity in order to meet the country's needs and the high expectations of various stakeholders. Evidence for this can be found by browsing through various initiatives such as the implementation of a QMS, since many departments have been certified using ISO 9001. This certification is accompanied by remarkable advantages: enhancing services provided by reducing errors, facilitating decision-making, achieving standardization and helping the ADP to become more customer-focused, thus increasing customer satisfaction.

Despite these advantages, not all ADP departments have stayed the course, nor has their commitment to change been sustained. Evidence for this comes from the last quality inspection, held in February 2012, which found that every department had a number of quality errors, differing in quantity and magnitude, which also suggests that these ADP departments differed in the degree to which the QMS had been institutionalized. Buchanan *et al.* (2005: 191) declare that determining whether or not changes have been institutionalized “depends on the profile of change under consideration, and involves a combination of observation, objective calculation and subjective judgment”; but in this study, the total number and magnitude of quality errors reported during the quality inspection constituted the main criterion for assessing the extent of institutionalization. This may be seen to justify the selection of the QMS as the focus of this research, given that the initiative was introduced in 2004, allowing what would reasonably be considered a long enough time for change to be institutionalized and thus providing an appropriate object of study. It was decided to choose two departments, one having a relatively low level of institutionalization of the QMS and the other being a stronger case of

institutionalization—designated X and Y respectively in this thesis—in order to compare them.

The choice of the ADP as a case study can also be rationalized in several ways. First, the researcher has been an ADP employee since 2002, giving him personal experience which was anticipated to help him greatly to gain access and to understand the phenomenon and its cultural context. Additionally, given that the ADP is one of the largest public sector employers in the UAE, it has a well-documented history of successful implementation of organizational change; for instance, it was awarded the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award for good performance and development in 2007 and 2009. Moreover, the ADP has undergone radical and far-reaching changes, mainly due to the introduction of a new strategy, vision and aims in 2003 and a reconfiguring of its organizational structure in 2004. Since then, the force has adopted numerous initiatives such as Total Quality Management and Comprehensive Police Stations, each of which could on one hand be considered major achievements for the ADP, but on the other could be regarded as entailing unwanted extra work or an alternative mission. The latter interpretation seemed to cause confusion and loss of commitment among ADP personnel, because in the context of rapid change, their efforts and attention might be directed to each new initiative at the expense of the previous one. Given that the ADP's success in implementing organizational change is discernible from its earning a number of governmental awards, it is essential to ensure that the change that has taken place has become part of its everyday activities and is now profoundly embedded within its culture and environment. Practically speaking, researching institutionalization can therefore be seen as a basic requisite for the ADP in order to ensure its success.

4.4 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Within the field of social science research, there are two main philosophical or meta-theoretical traditions that dominate epistemological choices: positivism and social constructionism (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). The main distinction between them is the way that reality is perceived: whether subjectively (interpreted through and dependent on the perspective of individual minds) or objectively (governed by the mental and physical regularities of human life that exist independently of our knowledge). The keystone of positivism is 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” (ibid: 28). Its key assumption is that the social world, in common with the natural world, consists of patterns and regularities, causes and consequences that have their own existence. In this sense, positivists believe that reality is independent of individual interpretation and even beyond the awareness of researchers and participants. Hence, this approach recognises only the concrete facts and observable events of social phenomena, testing the correlations between variables while paying little attention to the subjective state of the individual (ibid; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Denscombe, 2007; Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

In historical opposition to the positivist paradigm is constructivism, which perceives the world and reality not as independently and objectively constructed, but rather as socially constructed; that is, determined by what people think of the world, how they interpret their shared experiences and how they make sense of a particular phenomenon within a particular context (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). Thus, in order to understand individuals’ motives and behaviours, it is important to investigate their different views and subjective explanations of the situation as these influence their actions and social interactions (ibid; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Having recognized the epistemology and ontology of each approach, it is important to note that neither is free of constructive criticism. For example, positivists “openly admit that they adopt an unqualified or strong relativism, which is logically self-refuting and (in its strong form) hinders the development and use of systematic standards for judging research quality” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 16). This may be because human beings are not all the same in their expertise, skills, training, or even their interest in research; thus, subjective realities vary from person to person. Meanwhile, constructionists are also criticised for being unable to conduct value-free research, neglecting the fact that human decisions are made throughout the research process (ibid).

Given the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, this research, rather than being bounded either quantitatively by a deductive and objective conception of social reality (positivism), or qualitatively by an inductive and subjective approach to understanding the social world, adopts “a more pluralistic and compatibilist”, i.e. pragmatic approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 16). This is regarded as a powerful third research paradigm choice which produces an immediately useful middle position philosophically

and methodologically, avoiding the extremes, since it advocates the use of mixed methods or triangulation (ibid). It is pragmatic in that its concern is with the consequence of actions, rather than antecedent conditions (Creswell, 2009), with “what works” and solutions to problems, rather than the method itself, as answering the research question has priority over any individual method (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Moreover, pragmatism opens the door for researchers to choose among multiple methods and mix them freely, allowing more room for flexibility and offering them a better chance of answering their research questions. It also acknowledges the values of the researcher, whose contextual background and activities cannot be separated from the research process; thus the researcher plays a crucial role in analysing the data, while the meaning stems from the consequences of ideas (Cameron & Price, 2009). Johnson *et al.* (2007) argue that researchers need to complement one method with another so as to provide a solid understanding and superior research findings and outcomes. This seems to be particularly necessary in the present study, as it takes an interdisciplinary perspective; hence it is critical to comprehend the problem under examination from different philosophical standpoints. This study does not aim to provide a justification of knowledge, nor to search for facts, but to attempt to understand how subjective and objective points of view can be aligned so as to gain rich insights and a holistic picture (ibid; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). Table 4.1 provides an overview of the three abovementioned research philosophies.

Table 4.1: Comparison of the three main research philosophies

Paradigm	Positivism	Pragmatism	Constructivism
Epistemology (the researcher's view of what constitutes acceptable knowledge)	Only observable phenomena can provide credible knowledge. Focus on causality and law-like generalizations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements. Knower and known form a dualism.	Either or both of observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge, dependent upon research questions. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena can provide acceptable knowledge. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions. Knower and known are inseparable.
Ontology (the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being)	Objective, external and exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs.	Accepted external reality. Choose multiple views and explanations that best produce desired outcomes.	Subjective, socially constructed, may change, multiple.
Axiology (the researcher's view of the role of values in research)	Inquiry is value free	Values play a larger role in interpreting results.	Inquiry is value bound
Methods	Quantitative	Mixed or multiple methods, qualitative & quantitative	Qualitative
Logic	Deductive	Deductive & inductive	Inductive
Causal linkages	Real causes temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects.	There may be causal relationships, but we will never be able to pin them down.	All entities simultaneously shaping each other. It is impossible to distinguish causes from effects.

Adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2009: 119) and Saleh *et al.* (2011)

4.5 RESEARCH STRATEGY: CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY

Carter and Little (2007: 1317) differentiate between the terms ‘methodology’ and ‘method’, applying the former to “the justification of methods” and the latter to techniques for collecting data and evidence. This section explains the choice of case study as the methodology or research strategy for the present investigation.

Many research strategies can be distinguished in the literature, including grounded theory, action research, survey, ethnography and experiment (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Given the explanatory and exploratory nature of this research, the means chosen to collect primary data from the ADP is the case study methodology, defined 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” (Robson, 2002: 178). This appears to be an appropriate and powerful strategy for several reasons: first, it allows the

investigation of contemporary phenomena that interact within a chosen context; this is particularly important when the phenomena (i.e. concepts and variables) in question are difficult to measure or separate from the context (Yin, 2003). Second, research findings are not drawn from statistical significance, but from an in-depth analysis of subjects and objects; thus the case study methodology is often seen as suitable for researchers who seek detailed information from an assortment of data. Third, employing a case study strategy can also enable the researcher to handle the complex and dynamic characteristics of the social world. Finally, it offers researchers the flexibility to adopt a variety of methods and triangulate multiple sources of evidence so as to be able to examine, explore and understand phenomena (Stake, 1995; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Runeson & Höst, 2009). Yin (2003) indicates that the case study is an effective research strategy in answering ‘what’, ‘why’, or ‘how’ questions.

Nevertheless, case study methodology is not without criticism, particularly in relation to the reliability and validity of research findings. This is because of its relatively high potential for descriptive or researcher bias towards verification, understood as a propensity to verify the researcher’s preconceived assumptions. Voss *et al.* (2002) also believe that the odds of being biased and prejudiced are relatively high when analyzing a single event, because of the risk of exaggerating the available data. However, proper design should minimize such issues, while Flyvbjerg (2006: 235) regards this criticism as resting on a misunderstanding or oversimplification, since “it is falsification, not verification, that characterizes the case study” and that questions of subjectivism and bias apply to all methods, not only to the case study. He further comments that the case study is important in that it produces practical (context-dependent) knowledge and concrete experience, which are valuable in helping researchers to learn and to develop their professional skills.

A further suite of criticisms holds that it is unsafe to generalize from a single case study, which can be used to generate hypotheses but not to test them, whereas theory building is dependent upon other methods of inquiry; thus case studies cannot contribute to scientific development (Stake, 1978). Yin (2003) disputes this, arguing that the case study relies not on statistical or empirical analysis but rather on analytical interpretation to provide generalization, since it is usually employed to probe into different aspects and factors involved in organizational behaviour or processes within an individual entity. Flyvbjerg (2006) also strongly rejects the criticism, asserting that “it is incorrect to conclude that one

cannot generalize from a single case. It depends on the case one is speaking of and how it is chosen”, while the strategic selection of cases (e.g. random or information-oriented selection) can increase the generalizability of case studies. Limitations of time and resources can also be challenging for case study researchers (Runeson & Höst, 2009), but simultaneous collection of data from multiple sources of evidence can save time.

There are various different ways to conduct a case study. Yin (2003) discriminates between four case study strategies based upon two discrete dimensions: single vs. multiple case studies and holistic vs. embedded case studies. The present research is interested in determining what QMS implementation strategy has been adopted and how it is actually being used in the ADP as a whole, as well as identifying what differentiates a particular department from others in implementing the QMS; thus, the appropriate approach is a single case study that treats the ADP as a holistic case, within which the departments selected for examination will be treated as embedded cases. It was also considered that conducting a comparative study between departments differing in the nature of their work, as well as their level of institutionalization of change, could yield informative results.

It can be concluded that the case study strategy is particularly appropriate for this research, as the topic (institutionalization of the QMS) is broad and rather complex, while little relevant research has been conducted in the UAE, which is highly important in determining critical factors influencing the institutionalization of organizational change. Moreover, given the aim and objectives of the research, the case study fitted well an investigation of the current practices and strategies applied by the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative. Indeed, Dul and Hak (2008) observe that the majority of business researchers prefer the case study strategy for exploratory research or theory testing.

4.6 RESEARCH APPROACH: TRIANGULATION

As indicated in Table 4.1, there are two principal research approaches for collecting primary data: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research seeks to investigate social phenomena in depth, in order to explore people’s points of view, to understand how they comprehend and interpret their surroundings and to make sense of the rationale and meanings behind their behaviours, whereas quantitative investigators are more concerned with numbers and measurable data, as they quantify phenomena by using large samples and various statistical techniques to test links between theory and empirical evidence and

to explore causal relationships between variables. Qualitative researchers often conduct fieldwork so as to collect data by methods such as observations, in-depth interviews and focus groups; meanwhile, quantitative researchers may include instruments such as experiments, surveys and the secondary analysis of quantitative data, by which specific and precise data can be collected and modelled through the use of mathematical techniques, enabling them to test hypotheses (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009).

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches have some limitations, however. For example, while qualitative research provides rich and meaningful conceptualizations of the social world, it is more likely than quantitative research to be challenged with descriptive bias and the subjectivity of the researcher, as well as the lack of rigorous experimental controls during data collection and analysis. Qualitative data has also been criticised as being of low reliability, time-consuming to gather and difficult to decode and analyse (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Conversely, the limitations of quantitative methods reside predominantly in their focus on explaining trends and a reliance on procedural practices and measurement processes that provide hard, specific and generalizable results from the natural world to explain human behaviour, without taking into account the foibles of human nature (ibid; Bryman & Bell, 2007). Quantitative approaches are also said to be inflexible and ineffectual in apprehending the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2003; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009).

To minimise such deficiencies, this research employed a mixed-methods or triangulation approach, which is compatible with its philosophical position, as it combines the quantitative and qualitative approaches in a way that neutralizes the various arguments between constructivism and positivism. Moran-Ellis *et al.* (2006: 46) define triangulation as “the use of two or more methods that draw on different meta-theoretical assumptions”. Indeed, it is healthier to use a mixture of approaches, since collecting data from different sources or by more than one method mitigates the limitations of each method, while giving the researcher a richer picture of complex social phenomena and the chance to acquire a better understanding by undertaking a more rounded study (Yin, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Cameron & Price, 2009; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). Further, Voss *et al.* (2002) state that triangulation leads to more valid outcomes, as it increases validity

and reliability by comparing results and establishing links (i.e. cross-checking of results to support the findings), while limiting the possibility of bias.

To conclude, this research has employed mixed methods in order to achieve its objectives, as the researcher needed not only to measure quantitatively the participants' views on the themes of this study, but also to explore qualitatively hidden factors and the relationships between variables, which cannot be done otherwise. Thus, it was decided to conduct semi-structured interviews as a means of collecting qualitative data, while questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data. The following sections offer a detailed description and discussion of each method.

4.7 QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), one of the most widely used data collection techniques within business and management research is the questionnaire, where each respondent is asked to answer standardized questions to assess individual perceptions and reactions on specific matters. This method was chosen to collect quantitative data, in order to support the findings of the interview phase (section 4.8) and overcome the potential shortcomings of employing one method. The rationale behind this choice was that a questionnaire could be distributed to a large sample of ADP personnel in a relatively short time (Holt *et al.*, 2007). The following are the details of the process by which the researcher designed and distributed the questionnaires and analysed the data.

4.7.1 Questionnaire design

The design of a questionnaire affects not only the validity and reliability of the data collected, but also the response rates (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The researcher addressed these issues by taking a series of steps, the first being to review carefully the relevant literature in order to identify reliable questionnaire contents providing adequate coverage of the main research questions (Bell, 2010). The use of such a literature review can enhance the content or internal validity of a research questionnaire (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Having recognised survey design as a crucial stage, given that there was not likely to be another chance to collect data, the researcher expended considerable time and effort in planning and constructing the questions. Accordingly, following a preliminary section seeking demographic information, the survey was divided

into three main sections: section one was designed to elicit general indications of individuals' feelings and perceptions about the QMS, section two assessed the five components of the change message to determine employees' commitment to the QMS and the final section measured critical factors influencing the enactment of institutionalization processes (Appendix 1).

The second step was to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Validity in this context refers to the extent to which the questionnaire truly measures what it was supposed to measure or what the study intended, while reliability is concerned with the repeatability and consistency over time of the findings, asking if they can be reproduced by a similar data collection technique or analysis procedures (Golafshani, 2003; Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). For the contents to be internally valid, respondents should decode the questions in the way the researcher intended (i.e. ensure consistency). This was accomplished via mindful use of language when wording each statement; thus, leading, repeated and double-barrelled questions were avoided, making them as simple, clear and concise as possible (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007). Another issue was related to the language, since the survey was initially designed in English, whereas the first language in the research setting was Arabic. Therefore, after completing the first version of the questionnaire (in English), given the supervisor's comments, modifications and approval, the researcher translated it into Arabic. He then sought the help of a bilingual friend who had relevant experience to revise both versions and ensure the compatibility of their meanings. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also calculated (i.e. after the data collection) to test the internal reliability and consistency of all the items in the questionnaire (n=46), which yielded the acceptable value of .834 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; DeVellis, 2012). Chapter 5 (section 5.4.1) will comment further on internal consistency and the use of Cronbach's alpha.

The third matter considered by the researcher was the type of individual questionnaire items. Given that in the qualitative part of this study, interviewees were asked a series of open-ended questions (section 4.8.1), the quantitative survey comprised closed-ended questions, each requiring respondents to select a response from a predetermined set, which should be quicker for participants and even easier for the researcher to analyse (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Additionally, closed-ended questions enabled the researcher to attain a consistent dataset for comparison between variables and respondents or groups of

participants (Bryman and Bell, 2007), unlike the open-ended style, which has been criticised as time-consuming and difficult to analyse due to the potential for eliciting irrelevant information (ibid; Bell, 2010).

The fourth decision concerned the rating scale for recording responses to these closed questions; a five-point Likert scale was employed throughout the questionnaire, asking respondents to specify their level of agreement with each of a list of statements, from 5=strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree. Both positive and negative statements were used so as to encourage respondents to read each statement carefully and think about each box before ticking it (Corbetta, 2003).

At the fifth stage, the researcher gave thorough thought to constructing the questionnaire eloquently and attractively, which meant addressing several considerations (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). First, the order and flow of the questions were made as logical as possible in order to hold the attention of the respondents. The layout of the questionnaire was also designed to make it easy for them to read the questions and fill in the boxes, while visual appearance was kept uncomplicated. Dillman (2007) recommends the use of colours for paper-based surveys to make them look more attractive, so that respondents will value them more highly, but notes that this entails higher printing costs. In order to maintain respondents' focus and increase response rates, the questionnaire was designed to be completed in no more than 18 minutes. This was accomplished by the researcher completing the survey himself and removing non-value-adding items from the item pool in the first draft. An introductory letter was also attached to the questionnaire, describing the aim and objectives of the study and the survey, so as to familiarize respondents with the purpose of the research and the process they could expect to go through. It also emphasized their right to withdraw their participation and assured the anonymity and confidentiality of all responses, the data being used for an academic purpose only. Finally, the researcher expressed his deepest appreciation to those who had completed the survey, providing his contact details in case any participant wished to ask a question at any time.

The sixth step was to conduct pilot testing (pretesting), which is advocated by a number of research methodology authors (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Cameron & Price, 2009; Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). They argue that it is crucial for researchers to critically review and assess the questionnaire before the administration of its final version, because this establishes the content or internal validity of the questions and

enhances the reliability of the data, while allowing the researcher to make appropriate amendments and refinements so that respondents will have no obstacles in answering the questions and the researcher will have no problems in analysing the data. In the present case, pretesting comprised three stages. The first draft of the survey was discussed with the supervisor, who advised the researcher to make some modifications; for example, some items were divided into two or three statements because they contained more than one idea. The second draft was then translated into Arabic and sent to an expert, who offered some comments on the content and structure of the questionnaire, as well as making a few corrections related to the language (i.e. some statements were rephrased) to suit the Arab context. Finally, the third draft was distributed to ten employees of the ADP (within the sample), followed by a discussion with each of them to ensure the validity of the questions as well as the consistency of meanings. All of the above tests contributed to the rephrasing and improving of the final draft of the questionnaire.

Administration was the final step in designing the questionnaire, which in this study was self-administered and thus delivered by hand to each respondent. Unlike internet-mediated questionnaires, this approach, besides its potentiality to improve response rates, appeared to have other advantages. For example, it offered the researcher the opportunity to establish personal contact with participants, which allowed him to communicate with them more openly and to explain any ambiguous issues. Saunders *et al.* (2009) note that respondents might not be willing to provide confidential or sensitive information to someone they have never met, whereas trust is the key to collecting such data, particularly with regard to how the information will be used.

4.7.2 Questionnaire sample

The literature emphasises the need for sampling, as it is not always possible to survey the entire population, nor are unlimited time and budget available to researchers (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The population in this context refers to “the full set of cases from which a sample is taken”, while the sample is a subset of the population selected to represent the whole. The key point here is to select a representative sample that would provide a valid alternative to a census, where the researcher needs to make inferences and generalizations about the population so as to answer the research questions (ibid: 212). The sample also enables researchers to study a relatively small and manageable number of units of population in the detail and depth required to meet their objectives.

There are two main ways of defining and selecting a sample of participants: by probability (or representative) and non-probability (or judgemental) sampling (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Probability samples depend on chance for the selection of each case from the population, so that the sample can be said to represent all cases, whereas non-probability sampling does not meet this criterion and thus cannot be used to make inferences about the general population (*ibid*). The present research is expected to contribute to the generalizability of the existing body of research in the Middle Eastern context; hence probability sampling was used to produce a representative sample from the two selected departments of the ADP.

To this end, three steps were followed, as recommended by Saunders *et al.* (2009: 214). The first was to define the population clearly and identify an appropriate sampling frame. The researcher's initial intention was to include everyone listed as an employee in the ADP database under departments X and Y; however, he added a criterion that each participant must be familiar with the QMS and knowledgeable enough about it; in other words, they should have worked on and implemented the QMS. This was accomplished by excluding those who had joined the workforce after 31/12/2010. With this limitation, the total valid population of the two selected departments was 3771 employees ($X=1888 + Y=1883$). The researcher was helped by a neutral third party, an ADP manager, to obtain the list of employees and their work contact details, in order to ensure that the sampling frame was as complete, accurate and up to date as possible, before moving to the next step.

The second step was to choose an appropriate sample size. Many factors affect such a choice, depending on the level of confidence and the degree of accuracy (i.e. margin of error) that the researcher requires in his data (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Most business and management researchers consider it appropriate to establish the population's characteristics at 95% certainty, i.e. within plus or minus 5% of their true values (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). This study therefore used the Sample Size Calculator,² entering a confidence level of 95%, a confidence interval of +/- 5% and a total population size of 3771, resulting in a desired sample size of 349 employees. However, the researcher decided to distribute up to 500 surveys within the sampling frame (i.e. 250 questionnaires were distributed to each department), so as to reduce sampling error.

² Available at www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm.

In collecting the data, 318 forms were returned to the researcher, six of which were excluded due to incompleteness of some sections and items, or because of the over-consistency of responses, indicating that the respondent had not read the questions. A total response rate of 63.15% was achieved. This rate, which must be regarded as strong, was calculated by applying the following formula (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 220):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total response rate} &= \frac{\text{total number of responses}}{\text{total number in sample} - \text{ineligible}} \\ &= \frac{312}{500 - 6} = \frac{312}{494} = 63.15\%\end{aligned}$$

The third step was to select a suitable sampling technique. Five main techniques are available for researchers to choose a probability sample: simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster, and multi-stage (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). It was decided to select participants randomly from different sections and branches of departments X and Y in a diagonal representative manner, across hierarchical positions and ranks, which would offer rich insights by ensuring a variety of opinions, experience and thoughts related to the topic.

4.7.3 Questionnaire analysis

The questionnaire was analysed using the SPSS software. In the first section, descriptive analysis was employed in order to measure the frequency distribution, percentage, mean value and standard deviation for all questionnaire items and themes. Descriptive statistics are useful for researchers because they give a general idea of the sample and of respondents' attitudes towards items and themes; they allow the researcher "to summarise the data in a more compact form and can be presented in tables, charts and other graphical forms... [allowing] patterns to be discerned that are not apparent in the raw data" (Collis & Hussey, 2009: 221). In the second part of the analysis, as the data was determined to be parametric, two parametric inferential tests were deployed: the Pearson's correlation coefficient test (section 5.4) and the independent samples *t*-test (section 5.5). The former was applied to examine the relationships between questionnaires main themes, while the latter was used to compare means so as to identify any significant difference between variables and groups (by gender, age, department, experience or qualification) which might affect the result (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010).

4.8 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

As noted above, the use of qualitative methods or interviews was essential for the present research, as the researcher was concerned with the participants' opinions, motives and attitudes toward the institutionalization of QMS in the ADP, which could not be explored by a questionnaire survey alone. Collis and Hussey (2009: 144) define an interview as "a method for collecting data in which selected participants are asked questions to find out what they do, think, or feel". This method is widely used in business research; Myers (2009: 121) describes interviews as "one of the important data gathering techniques for qualitative researchers in business and management".

Among the possible types, the semi-structured interview appeared to be more suitable for the present research than the structured or unstructured alternatives, offering the interviewer sufficient structural guidance by allowing him to ask a list of predetermined questions about the topic, while according him the flexibility to elaborate on some points, informally and conversationally, to investigate further and seek more valid evidence (Yin, 2003; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009). Indeed, it is always possible that new ideas or subjects might emerge during these conversations, requiring the researcher to have a degree of freedom to go beyond the set questions in response to emergent issues. Thus, this approach has the advantages of both structured and unstructured interviews, allowing greater depth of analysis than the former, while providing a more comprehensive view of the phenomenon under study than the latter.

Interviews can be conducted face-to-face, by telephone or via a video recording if structured. Although videotaped interviews enable interviewers to take more accurate notes and hence are less influenced by applicants' nonverbal behaviours (Chapman & Rowe, 2001), it was found that face-to-face ratings were significantly higher than video ratings (Van Iddekinge *et al.*, 2006), given that transcribing and auditing of tape-recorded data can be time consuming and the presence of the machine may affect interviewees' answers (Voss *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, the present researcher decided to use a tape-recorder, subject to permission being granted by the participants, because it provides an authentic record of what has been said, so that the interviewer can concentrate on meaning without being distracted by the need to take notes (*ibid*). However, only five of the 17 participants agreed to have their interviews recorded, while the rest were reluctant; for example, when asked if he would mind his voice being recorded, one interviewee answered that it would

depend “on the degree of honesty you need to hear”, implying that he would be unable to speak openly if the interview was recorded.

Having said that, a certain set of skills and qualities (e.g. communication skills) are required if the researcher is to obtain reliable and valid information from social interactions (Cooper *et al.*, 2003). The present researcher fortunately has had some experience in this regard, having worked in recruitment during his time with the ADP, which entailed relevant training and the conducting of interviews. Additionally, the researcher conducted both semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire survey when following the MSc programme at the University of Manchester in 2011; this expanded his knowledge and experience in conducting sound academic research.

4.8.1 Interview design and process

It is argued that in order to minimise bias and produce credible outcomes, researchers should ensure proper design and careful preparation of interviews. Hence, an interview guide was developed in order to standardize the interview process and achieve consistency. This guide (Appendix 2) includes a list of questions and subthemes that are categorised according to the four research questions, thus serving as a checklist to ensure that all key points were pursued with all interviewees. Interview themes (see the framework for this study, Figure 3.3) were derived from the relevant literature and theories of organizational change, along with the researcher’s own experience of the topic and critical discussions with his fellow students and supervisors. This prearranged set of topics not only helped the researcher to start with a focus that directed the interview in a purposive way, but also added credibility to his account and showed that he was knowledgeable enough to assess the accuracy of responses (Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). This is why it was intended to provide the interviewees with a list of the interview themes prior to the event, so as to allow time for them to consider the information being requested and prepare supported documentation, which in return would promote the validity and reliability of the interview data (King, 2004).

In practice, the researcher handed all potential participants an information sheet, which fully described the research aim and objectives, so as to familiarize them with the purpose of the research and the process they might expect to go through. Those who took part in the interviews had been given sufficient time to decide whether they wanted to participate or

not. Once they had agreed to do so, several issues were considered to increase the reliability of the findings. For example, the researcher was aware that the interviews should be conducted at an appropriate time for all interviewees in case there were tasks for them to finish at work, as well as to avoid any discomfort; thus the timing of meetings was arranged to suit participants' convenience only. Furthermore, the researcher made sure that each interview was kept relatively short and where possible divided it into sections with breaks for relaxation. The research site was also considered to be a suitable and safe location, so as to avoid any physical harm, noise or interruption.

The researcher began each interview by introducing himself, explaining briefly the study and its objectives, and reminding the participants of their right to decline to answer any particular sets of questions or discuss specific topics. Recognizing the importance of anonymity and confidentiality with regard to the data and its analysis, he assured interviewees that their responses would be used for academic purposes only. This helped to build trust between interviewer and interviewees, made them more comfortable and encouraged them to answer more accurately. The researcher then asked general questions about the topic using the open question technique to obtain as much information as possible by excluding short (yes/no) answers, stimulating the interviewees and encouraging them to respond in full (Armstrong, 2009). Some intervention was necessary when the conversation drifted off the topic, to redirect the interview within its framework. Each theme was discussed separately, to avoid overlap, while the questions were asked precisely according to the interview guide for the purpose of consistency. The researcher concluded each interview by thanking the interviewee for participating in the study.

4.8.2 Interview sample

It is worth pointing out that there is no specific instrument nor any particular numerical standard of participation that researchers should follow to ensure validity and reliability in the field of qualitative research; rather, the researcher is advised to conduct as many interviews as possible until he is sure of discovering what he needs to know (Silverman, 2005). Thus, the focus of qualitative research should not be on the size of its sample, but on ensuring that the sample is appropriate (i.e. informative and knowledgeable enough to answer research questions) and representative (i.e. covering every relevant group within the population and selected from different levels), in order to permit an in-depth analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

The selection of the sample for this research was purposive; thus 17 managers were chosen from the various levels and ranks within the organizational structure of departments X and Y, all of whom had been directly involved in the implementation and institutionalization of the QMS. Table 4.2 lists the managerial positions of the interviewees, whose full profiles are discussed in chapter 6.

Table 4.2: Interview sample

Managerial Positions	Managerial Levels	X (n=7)	Y (n=10)	Percentage (%)
Head of department	Top	1	0	5.9
Deputy director	Top	1	1	11.8
Head of section	Middle	3	5	47
Head of branch	Middle	1	3	23.5
Supervisor	Lower	1	1	11.8

Source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

4.8.3 Interview analysis

At the analysis stage, the researcher must try to make sense of what has been said during the interviews. There is no clear guidance on how to analyse the larger meaning of qualitative data, so this step is considered the most difficult in any case study research. Nevertheless, researchers can make it less difficult by developing a systematic strategy for analysing the data (Yin, 2009). Thus, this research adopts the six-phase model of Creswell (2009) for analysing qualitative data:

- **Step 1:** Organize and prepare the data for analysis, which includes typing all data gathered during interviews, such as transcripts and field notes.
- **Step 2:** Read through all data in order to obtain a general sense of the material. The present researcher thoroughly and repeatedly read and reviewed all the data, so as to avoid missing anything, which helped him to become familiar with the responses and grasp the key information.
- **Step 3:** Coding and reiterating the coding of the data helped the researcher to identify key themes relating to the research questions; he used colour coding to highlight the main themes within statements, giving each a different colour using Microsoft Word.

This step was useful because it reduced the amount of data by allocating all statements to appropriate chunks or categories.

- **Step 4:** Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis. The researcher paid extra attention to the multiple perspectives of the interviewees and made special notes of the pattern, regularities and paradoxes between the responses, recording supportive quotations.
- **Step 5:** Represent the data in a way that makes it readable. Here, the data was represented as a detailed discussion of themes and subthemes; tables were also utilized to simplify the results and their interconnections.
- **Step 6:** The final step in data analysis involves drawing interpretations or meanings from the data so as to learn lessons. Personal interpretation was employed, drawing on the researcher's own experience and culture.

The researcher next performed content analysis to compare the results with the information drawn from the literature review and to compare the interview and questionnaire findings (ibid).

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The main ethical issue arising from this research was that it was conducted on the premises of the sponsoring organization (i.e. the ADP). However, the researcher affirms that the organization neither interfered in nor sought to influence in any way his choice of research topic; nor did it manifest any desire to have access to the research data or results. Instead, professionally speaking, it was expected that the ADP would offer all possible help to facilitate any research conducted by members of its personnel, because its ultimate concern was with the personal growth and development of its employees; indeed, this is why the ADP had awarded the present researcher his scholarship in the first place.

Regarding access, it was anticipated that the researcher would face no major obstacles in gaining access to any departments, being an ADP employee whose study was sponsored by the ADP. He was also entitled to receive a formal letter from the Education and Scholarship Department authorizing him to conduct the study and requesting all departments to offer any necessary support.

However, being an ADP employee might also raise an ethical concern, particularly with regard to the questionnaire and interviews, where there might be a risk of a social desirability bias (Mortel, 2008). That is, given the status of the researcher as a senior police officer, employees might wish to present a favourable image of themselves. To counter this risk, the researcher stressed the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality for all participants, assuring them that their responses would be used for academic purposes only and that all data would be kept safe.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has set out the research questions, then described and justified the choice of methodology, including the research paradigm, strategy and methods, as summarized in Table 4.3. In effect, it represents the necessary guidelines and vital recommendations followed by the researcher as to how to apply the chosen methods effectively and analyse the data with minimal bias, ensuring the validity and reliability of the research process so as to answer the research question coherently. The next chapter presents a quantitative analysis of the questionnaire responses.

Table 4.3: Summary of research methodology

Research Paradigm	Research Methodology	Research Methods		Analysis Methods
Pragmatism	Single case study	Mixed methods		Merge findings
		Quantitative	Questionnaire	Descriptive + inferential statistics using SPSS software
		Qualitative	Semi-structured interviews	Creswell's (2003) six steps to qualitative analysis

Source: The author

CHAPTER 5

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis of the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire survey, to provide empirical evidence of the role of the change message as well as the factors influencing institutionalization of the QMS in the ADP. Thus, this chapter answers the first, third and fourth research questions, either fully or partially (i.e. some needed both quantitative and qualitative analysis): 1) How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel? 3) To what extent have the institutionalization strategies addressed the five components of the change message? 4) What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?

As explained in sections 4.3 and 4.7, valid survey responses were received from 312 participants in two ADP departments, allowing comparison between a relatively low level of institutionalization of the QMS and a stronger case of institutionalization, designated as departments X and Y respectively to preserve the anonymity of the respondents. These two departments were selected according to the total numbers and magnitude of the quality errors reported during the quality inspection.

The questionnaire first elicited demographic information about the respondents, then examined their general impressions and opinions of the QMS, before evaluating their overall commitment to it and seeking their views on the four factors influencing its institutionalization. This chapter is therefore divided into four main sections: the first offers a descriptive analysis of the demographic information of respondents, while the second uses descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation) to report the data. Section 5.4 then examines the relationships between main themes using advanced inferential statistics (i.e. the Pearson correlation coefficient test) and section 5.5 reports the application of the independent samples *t*-test to the main themes, in order to compare means and explore the variations between groups by gender, experience, rank, qualification and department. The chapter ends with a summary of the questionnaire findings.

5.2 GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

The questionnaire sought information about participants' gender, age, experience, rank and academic qualifications; descriptive statistics of these characteristics are listed in Table 5.1. This shows that the samples from the two departments were relatively homogeneous in that they contained a number of participants in each category of the sub-characteristics, which could be considered an advantage, since it adds a sense of control over the sample that eliminates alternate explanations, while allowing confidence about the reliability of the sample.

Table 5.1: Demographic profiles of respondents

Main characteristics	Sub-characteristics	X <i>n</i> = 138	Y <i>n</i> = 174	Total frequency <i>n</i> = 312	Percentage
Gender	Male	116	141	257	82.4
	Female	22	33	55	17.6
Age	30 years or less	83	98	181	58
	More than 30 years	55	76	131	42
Experience	15 years or less	79	109	188	60.3
	More than 15 years	59	65	124	39.7
Rank	Below lieutenant	112	149	261	83.7
	Lieutenant or above	26	25	51	16.3
Academic qualifications	School + Diploma	106	154	260	83.3
	University degree	32	20	52	16.7

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.1 reveals that the majority of respondents were male (82.4%), while females represented less than one fifth of the total sample (17.6%). This does not mean that females were unwilling to participate in this study, but appears to reflect broadly the proportion of females employed by the ADP; in the absence of official statistics, the researcher estimates that females represent 12% of the workforce. Regarding respondents' age, above half of the sample (58%) were 30 years old or younger, while 42% were aged above 30. The reader should be reminded that a prerequisite condition of inclusion in the sample was a minimum of three years' work experience. The table shows that approximately 60% of the sample had 15 years' experience or less, while 40% had worked for the ADP for more than 15 years.

The survey targeted all police ranks, but in order to maintain confidentiality and to ensure that it would be impossible to identify respondents from their demographic information, it was decided to make a binary categorization according to rank: below lieutenant and lieutenant or above. This rank was chosen as representing a middle position, differentiating employees at the lower, operational level from those designated as officers, fulfilling the functions of managers, supervisors and strategic decision-makers. Table 5.1 shows that 261 respondents (83.7%) were ranked below lieutenant, while the remaining 51 held the rank of lieutenant or above. As for educational qualifications, more than four-fifths of the sample (260 respondents) held a secondary school certificate or diploma, while 52 held university qualifications, including bachelor's degrees, master's degrees and PhDs.

5.3 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

5.3.1 Introduction

This section offers a descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the survey under 10 main themes generated by the literature review. Participants were asked to specify their level of agreement with each of a list of statements, using a five-point Likert scale: 5=strongly agree (SA); 4=agree (A); 3=neutral (N); 2=disagree (D); 1=strongly disagree (SD).³ Mean (M) and standard deviation (StD) values were calculated for the responses to each item. Both positive and negative statements were used to maintain respondents' concentration and to avoid response sets, while all were scored in the same manner to create consistency among the items, whether originally negatively or positively keyed, paying careful attention to the content of statements in terms of what agreement or disagreement would imply. Due to the large numbers of statements and the lack of space, statements are summarized in this chapter to avoid overcomplicating the tables, while the reader is invited to refer to Appendix 1 for the full versions of the items.

5.3.2 Participants' perceptions of the QMS

The first section of the questionnaire aimed to assess participants' general feelings and opinions regarding the QMS (i.e. whether it was a positive or a negative experience), addressing the first research question, which relates to how the QMS was perceived by the

³ In the text of the analysis, 'agreed' means 'agreed or strongly agreed', while 'disagreed' means 'disagreed or strongly disagreed', unless otherwise stated.

ADP personnel. This is why experience of QMS implementation was a precondition of inclusion in the survey sample, so as to validate the responses.

Table 5.2 shows that over 94% of respondents agreed (or strongly agreed) that the aim and objectives of the QMS were clear and understandable (S1); the mean value was 4.45, with a standard deviation of 0.679. Respondents also had a strong belief that the management had made the right decision to adopt the QMS: 42.3% and 47.8% of respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively with S2; M=4.31; StD=.687. Despite these positive opinions of the QMS, respondents seemed to have moderate views with respect to S3 (*QMS has increased my workload*), since responses were unequally distributed across all 5 options (M=3.34; StD=1.312).

Table 5.2: Descriptive analysis - Participants' perceptions

Participants' perceptions		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S1	QMS Objectives are clear	F	164	132	12	1	3	4.45	.679
		%	52.6	42.3	3.8	0.3	1		
S2	Right decision to adopt QMS	F	132	149	28	2	1	4.31	.687
		%	42.3	47.8	9	0.6	0.3		
S3	QMS increases workload	F	79	74	59	73	27	3.34	1.312
		%	25.3	23.7	18.9	23.4	8.7		

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.3.3 Participants' commitment to the QMS

The second section of the questionnaire aimed to assess participants' commitment to the QMS. Chapter 3 highlighted the importance of the change message and its five key beliefs in influencing individuals' perceptions and attitudes, as well as determining their ultimate commitment to the change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Table 5.3 displays the descriptive analysis of the five components of the change message, addressing the following research question: *To what extent have the institutionalization's strategies addressed the five components of the change message?* Three items were used to measure each theme of the change message.

Table 5.3: Descriptive analysis - Change message

Change Discrepancy		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S4	QMS imposed on staff	F	66	98	64	71	13	3.43	1.174
		%	21.2	31.4	20.5	22.8	4.2		
S5	QMS is necessary	F	146	144	20	1	1	4.39	.652
		%	46.8	46.2	6.4	0.3	0.3		
S6	QMS improves efficiency	F	145	134	28	3	2	4.34	.734
		%	46.5	42.9	9	1	0.6		
Change Appropriateness		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S7	One of best ways to achieve goals	F	156	125	24	5	2	4.37	.750
		%	50	40.1	7.7	1.6	0.6		
S8	Staff not convinced of its usefulness	F	28	56	70	115	43	2.71	1.175
		%	9	17.9	22.4	36.9	13.8		
S9	QMS complements the priorities	F	121	159	30	1	1	4.28	.672
		%	38.8	51	9.6	0.3	0.3		
Change Efficacy		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S10	Long-term commitment is achievable	F	104	163	40	4	1	4.17	.717
		%	33.3	52.2	12.8	1.3	0.3		
S11	Staff had skills to sustain QMS.	F	126	145	30	8	3	4.23	.800
		%	40.4	46.5	9.6	2.6	1		
S12	Training provided is relevant	F	65	162	57	17	11	3.81	.945
		%	20.8	51.9	18.3	5.4	3.5		
Principal Support		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S13	Managers were supportive	F	100	146	52	11	3	4.05	.845
		%	32.1	46.8	16.7	3.5	1		
S14	Good role models for commitment	F	112	121	51	22	6	4.00	.990
		%	35.9	38.8	16.3	7.1	1.9		
S15	Still encourage & motivate staff	F	124	116	54	16	2	4.10	.909
		%	39.7	37.2	17.3	5.1	0.6		
Self-Valence		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
S16	QMS makes job easier	F	107	152	41	9	3	4.13	.814
		%	34.3	48.7	13.1	2.9	1		
S17	Staff still rewarded for commitment	F	48	76	101	54	33	3.17	1.197
		%	15.4	24.4	32.4	17.3	10.6		
S18	Staff might lose if QMS remains	F	24	70	65	107	46	2.74	1.184
		%	7.7	22.4	20.8	34.3	14.7		

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.3.3.1 Change discrepancy

This theme refers to the extent to which the change was perceived as necessary and needed by the organization and its employees. Table 5.3 shows that approximately half of respondents believed that the QMS has been imposed on them, as they agreed with S4, while a fifth of them chose to be neutral; $M=3.43$; $StD=1.174$. Against this sense of obligation, 93% of respondents were in agreement with S5 (*I fully understand why the QMS is necessary*) and 89% admitted that the QMS has improved the operational efficacy of their departments (S6): $M=4.34$; $StD=.734$.

5.3.3.2 Change appropriateness

This factor relates to the extent to which the chosen initiative was seen as appropriate. In general terms, Table 5.3 suggests that respondents generally regarded the QMS as the right change initiative to implement. Thus, 90% agreed that the QMS was one of the best way to accomplish their objectives ($M=4.37$; $StD=.750$), while more than half disagreed with S8 (*I am not convinced that the QMS will help us meeting our customers' and stakeholders' needs*) and nearly 90% agreed that the QMS complemented the priorities of their department (S9): $M=4.28$; $StD=.672$.

5.3.3.3 Change efficacy

This factor refers to employees' confidence in their ability to carry out the change. Respondents were convinced that the QMS was feasible, since almost 85% agreed that establishing long-term commitment and maintaining the principles of the QMS were achievable (S10): $M=4.17$; $StD=.717$. They were also confident of their ability to apply such a change and make it sustainable (S11): $M=4.23$. Finally, they believed that the training provided was relevant to the skills required by the QMS (S12): $M=3.81$.

5.3.3.4 Principal support

Principal support is not only the extent to which formal and informal key leaders are committed to the change, but their commitment must also be apparent to all employees. The results for this factor indicate that respondents perceived their senior managers to be supportive of the QMS: $M=4.05$; $StD=.845$. In detail, 32.1% and 46.8% of respondents respectively strongly agreed and agreed with S13. They were also positive regarding the remaining two items, as approximately three-quarters of the sample agreed that senior managers were good role models for being committed to the QMS (S14: $M=4.00$) and that they encouraged and motivated staff to carry on the change (S15: $M=4.10$).

5.3.3.5 Self-valence

The last component of the change message is self-valence: if employees believe that a change is advantageous and has positive implications (i.e. benefits) for them, they are more likely to adopt that change and stay the course (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Table 5.3 shows that 83% of respondents agreed that the QMS made their jobs easier (S16: M=4.13; StD=.814). Nevertheless, views appeared to differ regarding reward expectations (S17), as almost a third of responses were neutral (M=3.17; StD=1.197). Lastly, item 18 assessed employees' general feelings and emotions about their future status and interest if the QMS remained. Perceptions varied, with 30.1% of respondents worried that they might lose some of their privileges if the QMS stayed the course, while 20.8% were neutral and almost half disagreed with S18 (M=2.74; StD=1.184).

5.3.4 Critical factors influencing the institutionalization of the QMS

The third section of the questionnaire aimed to assess participants' views regarding the four main themes identified in chapter 3: management characteristics, employee characteristics, change characteristics and context characteristics. Each theme comprised a cluster of subthemes or variables that collectively shaped the overall attributes of the factors. This subsection offers a descriptive analysis of the roles of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP; supportive and destructive characteristics of these four clusters of factors are then identified and empirically analysed.

Table 5.4: Descriptive analysis - Factors influencing institutionalization

Management Characteristics		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
19	Focus on long-term planning	F	80	155	48	24	5	3.90	.925
		%	25.6	49.7	15.4	7.7	1.6		
20	Involve staff in planning process	F	68	148	46	25	25	3.67	1.141
		%	21.8	47.4	14.7	8	8		
21	Concerned about personal consequences	F	60	139	77	30	6	3.70	.952
		%	19.2	44.6	24.7	9.6	1.9		
22	Helpful in times of need	F	124	137	41	8	2	4.20	.808
		%	39.7	43.9	13.1	2.6	0.6		
23	Encourage staff to do new stuff	F	109	122	49	23	9	3.96	1.031
		%	34.9	39.1	15.7	7.4	2.9		
24	Value relationships & trust certain people	F	57	78	77	65	35	3.18	1.269
		%	18.3	25	24.7	20.8	11.2		
25	Keep staff updated with change	F	69	142	59	26	16	3.71	1.061
		%	22.1	45.5	18.9	8.3	5.1		
26	Happy to receive feedback	F	77	143	70	11	11	3.85	.953
		%	24.7	45.8	22.4	3.5	3.5		
27	Regularly review & evaluate QMS	F	91	140	59	21	1	3.96	.883
		%	29.2	44.9	18.9	6.7	0.3		
28	Support QMS for personal interests	F	55	72	64	81	40	3.07	1.307
		%	17.6	23.1	20.5	26	12.8		

(Table 5.4 continued) Employee Characteristics		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
29	Staff often fear change	F	24	43	48	134	63	2.46	1.181
		%	7.7	13.8	15.4	42.9	20.2		
30	Prefer to maintain status quo	F	22	54	48	89	99	2.39	1.284
		%	7.1	17.3	15.4	28.5	31.7		
31	Given opportunity to participate	F	75	129	65	37	6	3.74	1.015
		%	24	41.3	20.8	11.9	1.9		
32	Reward expectations are met	F	39	75	130	40	28	3.18	1.095
		%	12.5	24	41.7	12.8	9		
33	Effective communication between staff	F	73	146	60	30	3	3.82	.932
		%	23.4	46.8	19.2	9.6	1		
34	Had authority to perform important tasks	F	44	112	99	42	15	3.41	1.042
		%	14.1	35.9	31.7	13.5	4.8		
Change Characteristics		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
35	Progress regularly publicized	F	62	139	57	49	5	3.65	1.019
		%	19.9	44.6	18.3	15.7	1.6		
36	Institutionalization treated as a new stage	F	35	110	87	49	31	3.22	1.145
		%	11.2	35.3	27.9	15.7	9.9		
37	A clear timetable was devised	F	59	161	64	19	9	3.78	.922
		%	18.9	51.6	20.5	6.1	2.9		
38	Sufficient resources allocated for QMS	F	81	147	52	20	12	3.85	1.005
		%	26	47.1	16.7	6.4	3.8		
39	There are challenges to institutionalization	F	36	122	81	51	22	3.32	1.096
		%	11.5	39.1	26	16.3	7.1		
40	There is a means of measuring success	F	65	87	72	61	27	3.33	1.246
		%	20.8	27.9	23.1	19.6	8.7		
Context Characteristics		F,%	SA	A	N	D	SD	M	StD
41	Wasta had positive impact on change	F	45	70	64	72	61	2.89	1.345
		%	14.4	22.4	20.5	23.1	19.6		
42	Teamwork not encouraged	F	27	95	56	89	45	2.90	1.228
		%	8.7	30.4	17.9	28.5	14.4		
43	Structure hinders collaboration	F	30	70	89	86	37	2.90	1.164
		%	9.6	22.4	28.5	27.6	11.9		
44	Decisions are hierarchical & centralised	F	58	108	93	44	9	3.52	1.039
		%	18.6	34.6	29.8	14.1	2.9		
45	Mistakes seen as opportunities to learn	F	50	159	88	11	4	3.77	.805
		%	16	51	28.2	3.5	1.3		
46	Past change had positive impact	F	101	148	48	13	2	4.07	.836
		%	32.4	47.4	15.4	4.2	0.6		

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.3.4.1 Management characteristics

This theme was assessed by 10 items, investigating participants' perceptions of their managers' styles and practices. These items were identified in the literature review to assess some important characteristics of management (e.g. long-term planning, supervision, empowerment). Table 5.4 shows that respondents generally held positive views of their managers, since the mean values of responses for all but two items lay between 3.67 and 4.20. It should also be noted that respondents acknowledged some managerial characteristics more strongly than others. For example, while respondents considered their managers to have done well in focusing on long-term planning to achieve their vision (S19: M=3.90), as well as opening a space for participation and involvement

by lower-level employees (S20: M=3.67), they were more consistent in finding that managers were supportive and helpful in times of need (S22: M=4.20). Notwithstanding these positive responses, participants were somewhat inconsistent regarding the political side of management, as mixed views were expressed in response to S24 (*My managers only trust certain groups of people, whom they have relations with*) and S28 (*Managers support the QMS for the sake of defending their personal powers and interests*); the mean values were neutral (3.18 and 3.07 respectively), while the standard deviations were relatively high (1.269 and 1.307).

5.3.4.2 Employee characteristics

This theme was appraised by six items, concerned with individuals' emotions, competences and expectations regarding the change, as indicated earlier in the literature review. Respondents had relatively moderate views about introducing the change, some being more optimistic and welcoming of the change than others, as reflected in the neutral mean values and high standard deviations in rating S29 (*I often fear the change*) and S30 (*I prefer to maintain the current situation, rather than introduce change*). Moreover, respondents were inconsistent and rather neutral with respect to their reward expectations (S32: N=41.7%) and to the authority given to them to perform important tasks (S34: N=31.7%); the mean values were 3.18 and 3.41 respectively and the standard deviations were above 1. However, respondents were slightly more positive and consistent with regard to the opportunities they were given to participate in the QMS process (S31: M=3.74; StD=1.015). Finally, they perceived communication with colleagues to be fairly effective (S33: M=3.82; StD=.932).

5.3.4.3 Change characteristics

The characteristics of the change initiative have been determined to be greatly influential, particularly at the institutionalization stage, as indicated in chapter 3. These characteristics include substance, temporal factors and the process of change (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005). Here, six statements were designed to gauge this factor. The data reported in Table 5.4 provides evidence that the achievements of change were visible to the majority of respondents, since almost two-thirds agreed that progress towards change objectives had been regularly publicized (S35: M=3.65; StD=1.019). Nonetheless, although respondents generally felt that there was a clear timetable for implementation of the QMS (S37: M=3.78), with sufficient resources being allocated to support the change (S38: M=3.85),

half believed that there remained some obstacles to institutionalization, while a quarter were neutral (S39: M=3.32). As to the remaining items, divergent opinions were recorded in response to S36 (*The process of institutionalizing the QMS has been treated as a new stage after completion of the implementation process*) and to S40 (*There is a means of measuring the success of the QMS*), since the standard deviations were relatively high (1.145 and 1.246 respectively).

5.3.4.4 Context characteristics

The context of change is clearly a crucial element for organizational change studies, yet it is rather a broad topic; this study therefore focuses on certain characteristics of organizational culture that might affect institutionalization, as recognised in the literature review. Table 5.4 reveals that respondents had divergent views about the practice of *wasta* in the context of the ADP; the mean value of responses to S41 was 2.89, while the standard deviation was the highest, at 1.345. Mixed views were also observed with reference to teamwork and organizational structure, as the mean values for S42 and S43 were both 2.90, while the respective standard deviations were 1.228 and 1.164. In contrast, consistently positive responses were recorded with regard to past change events, which seem to have given employees the courage to adopt new changes (S46: M=4.07; StD=.836). The remaining two items were related to the organizational culture of the ADP; respondents generally agreed that decision-making processes were hierarchical and centralized at ADP headquarters, and that mistakes in the implementation of change were seen as opportunities to learn, since the mean values for S44 and S45 were 3.52 and 3.77 respectively.

5.3.5 Section summary

Table 5.5 lists the overall mean values and standard deviations for each of the main themes, calculated by integrating the scores of variables under each theme using SPSS. It can be seen that respondents' overall ratings were distinctly higher for four factors, whose mean values were above 4: perceptions of the QMS, change discrepancy, change efficacy and principal support. The remaining factors had average mean values between 3.34 and 3.79, with the exception of employee characteristics, which had a mean of only 3.17.

Table 5.5: Descriptive analysis of all themes

Main Themes	n		Mean	StD
	Valid	Missing		
Participants' Perceptions	312	0	4.0331	.54845
Change Discrepancy	312	0	4.0502	.48996
Change Appropriateness	312	0	3.7874	.51072
Change Efficacy	312	0	4.0694	.64749
Principal Support	312	0	4.0513	.76560
Self-Valence	312	0	3.3440	.67351
Management Characteristics	312	0	3.7186	.52098
Employee Characteristics	312	0	3.1672	.66041
Change Characteristics	312	0	3.5240	.53265
Context Characteristics	312	0	3.3424	.58991

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.4 MEASURES OF CORRELATION

This section aims to determine the relationships (whether positive or negative) among the main themes of this study. Hence, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) was calculated, as this test is widely used to uncover relationships between groups of items (Bryman, 2012). Before considering such inferential tests, however, it is appropriate to examine the internal consistency of the items so as to establish the reliability of the questionnaire and to ensure that the data fulfils the assumptions that are required for conducting such tests in order to obtain valid results.

5.4.1 Reliability of items

Internal consistency is concerned with the interrelatedness of the items and the robustness of the questionnaire. It denotes "the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct"; in other words, it describes the correlation of a test with itself (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011: 1). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed as a measure of internal consistency in this study, because it is the index most commonly used to determine reliability (ibid; Bryman & Bell, 2007). When the alpha coefficient was

calculated for all 46 items, it was found to be .834, suggesting that the items had relatively high internal consistency. In most social science research, values of alpha between .70 and .95 are considered acceptable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; DeVellis, 2012).

5.4.2 Assumptions of Pearson's *r*

Statistical tests can be divided into two types: parametric and non-parametric. If the data is parametric, then a parametric test should be used, but outcomes are likely to be inaccurate if a parametric test is used on non-parametric data (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). Therefore, it is necessary to check the assumptions before deciding which statistical test to use. A parametric test is one that requires data from a large catalogue of distributions and for data to be considered as parametric, it must have a normal distribution and be able to be expressed using an interval scale. Examination of the data in the present research supported the assumptions that most of the variables and factors were normally distributed and that the data was of an interval type, based on frequency testing. Hence, Pearson's correlation coefficient test was employed in this study, while the scales categorized by Collis and Hussey (2009) were used to measure the positive and negative correlation results, as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Correlation results

Correlation Scores	Interpreting correlation	Validity coefficient
$r = 0.90$ to 0.99	Very high positive correlation	0.00
$r = 0.70$ to 0.89	High positive correlation	0.10
$r = 0.40$ to 0.69	Medium positive correlation	0.20
$r = 0.00$ to 0.39	Low positive correlation	0.30
$r = 0.00$ to -0.39	Low negative correlation	0.40
$r = 0.40$ to -0.69	Medium negative correlation	0.50
$r = 0.70$ to -0.89	High negative correlation	0.60
$r = 0.90$ to -0.99	Very high negative correlation	0.70

Source: Collis and Hussy (2009: 268)

5.4.3 Correlations among main themes

Table 5.7 displays the matrix of correlations among the main themes. A careful examination shows that there were statistically significant positive correlations among most of the themes, at a significance level of $p > .01$; however, some associations were found to be stronger than others.

Tables 5.7: Correlations among main themes

	Pearson	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
A	Pearson	1									
	Sig. 2-tailed										
	n	312									
B	Pearson	.342**	1								
	Sig. 2-tailed	.000									
	n	312	312								
C	Pearson	.205**	.207**	1							
	Sig. 2-tailed	.000	.000								
	n	312	312	312							
D	Pearson	.097	.313**	.287**	1						
	Sig. 2-tailed	.087	.000	.000							
	n	312	312	312	312						
E	Pearson	.090	.061	.228**	.497**	1					
	Sig. 2-tailed	.111	.285	.000	.000						
	n	312	312	312	312	312					
F	Pearson	.010	.095	.361**	.224**	.345**	1				
	Sig. 2-tailed	.865	.095	.000	.000	.000					
	n	312	312	312	312	312	312				
G	Pearson	.069	.069	.317**	.430**	.550**	.426**	1			
	Sig. 2-tailed	.223	.222	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	n	312	312	312	312	312	312	312			
H	Pearson	.135*	.046	.269**	.229**	.330**	.512**	.431**	1		
	Sig. 2-tailed	.017	.415	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	n	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312		
I	Pearson	.228**	.227**	.258**	.317**	.204**	.401**	.414**	.484**	1	
	Sig. 2-tailed	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	n	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	
J	Pearson	.170**	.142*	.212**	-.092	-.146**	.328**	.079	.314**	.310**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.012	.000	.103	.010	.000	.166	.000	.000	
	n	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics.

** Correlation significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

For example, the management characteristics factor (G) had medium and low positive correlations with most factors, these being, from the highest to the lowest: .550 with principal support (E), .431 with employee characteristics (H), .430 with change efficacy (D), .426 with self-valence (F), .414 with change characteristics (I) and .317 with change appropriateness (C). It is noteworthy that that both change appropriateness and change characteristics showed medium and low positive correlations with all other themes, while participants' perceptions of the QMS (A) had low positive correlations with only five factors: change discrepancy (B), change appropriateness, change characteristics and context characteristics (J), at a significance level of $p > .01$, and with employee characteristics at $p > .05$. No correlation was recorded between context characteristics and either change efficacy or management characteristics.

5.5 MEASURES OF DIFFERENCES

Researchers are sometimes interested not only in relationships between variables (as in correlation and regression), but also in differences between groups of people. This is the case in this section, which examines the variances between groups to explore the extent to which the variance in the variables and themes can be explained by different variable factors. Put simply, the objective is to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in mean scores between groups within the sample, by gender, age, experience, rank, qualification or department. This was done via the independent samples *t*-test, which is commonly used in situations where two independent groups need to be compared, while differences in means can be measured using the same variable (Pallant, 2010).

5.5.1 Assumptions of the independent *t*-test

A number of assumptions must be checked before conducting the independent samples *t*-test, to ensure valid results (Field, 2009): 1) The dependent variable should be measured on a continuous scale (at least at the interval level); 2) The independent variable should consist of two categorical groups (e.g. X and Y); 3) The observations should be independent, meaning no relationship between the observations in each group or between the group themselves; 4) There should be no significant outliers; 5) The independent *t*-test is a parametric test based on normal distribution, meaning that the dependent variable should be normally distributed for each group of the independent variable; 6) There must be homogeneity of variances. This assumption can be tested in SPSS using Levene's test:

if $p \leq .05$, we should use the information in the second line of the t -test table, which refers to equal variances not assumed (EVNA), whereas if $p > .05$, we should use the information in the first line, which refers to equal variances assumed (EVA).

Once we had double-checked that the above assumptions had been met, the independent samples t -test was conducted to compare the variables for the ten themes of this study. However, the following analysis reports only the factors that had statistically significant differences, due to the lack of space and the large number of themes and items.

5.5.2 Variance by gender

An independent-sample t -test was carried out on the main themes of this study in order to compare scores between males and females. Tables 5.8 and 5.9 show that males were in general more positive (i.e. tended to agree more on items) and happier with the implementation of the QMS in their departments, since they had significantly higher mean scores than females on the following six factors:

- A. Participants' perceptions of the QMS: $M=4.07$, $t(310)=2.687$, $p=.008$.
- C. Change appropriateness: $M=3.81$, $t(310)=2.336$, $p=.020$.
- D. Change efficacy: $M=4.13$, $t(310)=3.785$, $p=.000$.
- E. Principal support: $M=4.08$, $t(104.256)=2.038$, $p=.044$.
- H. Employee characteristics: $M=3.20$, $t(310)=2.042$, $p=.042$.
- I. Change characteristics: $M=3.55$, $t(310)=2.100$, $p=.037$.

Table 5.8: Group statistics – Variance of themes by gender

Themes	Male				Female			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
A	257	4.0713	.54694	.03412	55	3.8545	.52416	.07068
B	257	4.0700	.49593	.03094	55	3.9576	.45386	.06120
C	257	3.8184	.51443	.03209	55	3.6424	.47077	.06348
D	257	4.1323	.63243	.03945	55	3.7758	.64168	.08652
E	257	4.0843	.79783	.04977	55	3.8970	.57332	.07731
F	257	3.3437	.69589	.04341	55	3.3455	.56278	.07589
G	257	3.7331	.52822	.03295	55	3.6509	.48453	.06533
H	257	3.2023	.64828	.04044	55	3.0030	.69721	.09401
I	257	3.5532	.54205	.03381	55	3.3879	.46708	.06298
J	257	3.3385	.60647	.03783	55	3.3606	.50995	.06876

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics.

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.9: Independent samples *t*-test of gender

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
A	EVA	.007	.934	2.687	310	.008	.21679	.08068	.05804	.37554
	EVNA			2.762	81.168	.007	.21679	.07848	.06064	.37294
B	EVA	.697	.405	1.548	310	.123	.11246	.07263	-.03045	.25537
	EVNA			1.640	83.966	.105	.11246	.06857	-.02390	.24883
C	EVA	3.792	.052	2.336	310	.020	.17599	.07534	.02775	.32423
	EVNA			2.474	83.969	.015	.17599	.07113	.03455	.31744
D	EVA	.078	.781	3.785	310	.000	.35654	.09420	.17119	.54189
	EVNA			3.749	78.073	.000	.35654	.09509	.16723	.54585
E	EVA	9.677	.002	1.652	310	.100	.18734	.11343	-.03585	.41053
	EVNA			2.038	104.256	.044	.18734	.09194	.00502	.36965
F	EVA	1.129	.289	-.017	310	.986	-.00175	.10022	-.19895	.19546
	EVNA			-.020	93.020	.984	-.00175	.08742	-.17535	.17186
G	EVA	.817	.367	1.062	310	.289	.08216	.07739	-.07010	.23443
	EVNA			1.123	83.819	.265	.08216	.07317	-.06335	.22768
H	EVA	1.331	.250	2.042	310	.042	.19930	.09762	.00722	.39139
	EVNA			1.947	75.288	.055	.19930	.10234	-.00456	.40316
I	EVA	.393	.531	2.100	310	.037	.16530	.07871	.01043	.32016
	EVNA			2.312	88.071	.023	.16530	.07148	.02324	.30736
J	EVA	1.814	.179	-.252	310	.802	-.02208	.08777	-.19479	.15062
	EVNA			-.281	89.901	.779	-.02208	.07848	-.17800	.13383

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics
EVA: Equal variances assumed, EVNA: Equal variances not assumed

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.3 Variance by experience

Tables 5.10 and 5.11 compare results for those having more than 15 years' work experience with those having 15 years or less. The results indicate that respondents who had less work experience tended to agree on more items, as they had statistically significant higher mean values for the following three factors:

F. Self-valence: $M=3.47$, $t(301.071)=4.382$, $p=.000$.

H. Employee characteristics: $M=3.31$, $t(305.739)=5.183$, $p=.000$.

I. Change characteristics: $M=3.58$, $t(300.389)=2.483$, $p=.014$.

Table 5.10: Group statistics – Variance of themes by experience

Themes	15 years' work experience or less				More than 15 years' work experience			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
A	188	4.0372	.56258	.04103	124	4.0269	.52850	.04746
B	188	4.0372	.51053	.03723	124	4.0699	.45833	.04116
C	188	3.8174	.52990	.03865	124	3.7419	.47870	.04299
D	188	4.0248	.68381	.04987	124	4.1371	.58437	.05248
E	188	4.0355	.77921	.05683	124	4.0753	.74698	.06708
F	188	3.4699	.71378	.05206	124	3.1532	.55810	.05012
G	188	3.7410	.51820	.03779	124	3.6847	.52546	.04719
H	188	3.3103	.70336	.05130	124	2.9503	.52144	.04683
I	188	3.5816	.57386	.04185	124	3.4368	.45163	.04056
J	188	3.3883	.62284	.04543	124	3.2728	.53103	.04769

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics.

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.11: Independent samples *t*-test of experience

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
A	EVA	.202	.653	.163	310	.871	.01035	.06355	-.11469	.13539
	EVNA			.165	274.652	.869	.01035	.06274	-.11315	.13386
B	EVA	.389	.533	-.576	310	.565	-.03266	.05674	-.14431	.07899
	EVNA			-.588	282.324	.557	-.03266	.05550	-.14191	.07659
	EVA	1.414	.235	1.278	310	.202	.07544	.05902	-.04070	.19158
	EVNA			1.305	281.300	.193	.07544	.05781	-.03835	.18923
D	EVA	.681	.410	-1.502	310	.134	-.11227	.07476	-.25937	.03482
	EVNA			-1.551	289.944	.122	-.11227	.07240	-.25476	.03021
E	EVA	.003	.958	-.449	310	.654	-.03981	.08868	-.21431	.13469
	EVNA			-.453	271.075	.651	-.03981	.08792	-.21290	.13328
F	EVA	9.073	.003	4.169	310	.000	.31663	.07594	.16720	.46606
	EVNA			4.382	301.071	.000	.31663	.07226	.17443	.45884
G	EVA	.114	.736	.934	310	.351	.05628	.06028	-.06234	.17490
	EVNA			.931	260.822	.353	.05628	.06046	-.06276	.17532
H	EVA	20.574	.000	4.882	310	.000	.36001	.07374	.21492	.50511
	EVNA			5.183	305.739	.000	.36001	.06946	.22334	.49669
I	EVA	6.165	.014	2.366	310	.019	.14473	.06117	.02437	.26509
	EVNA			2.483	300.389	.014	.14473	.05828	.03004	.25942
J	EVA	4.299	.039	1.697	310	.091	.11545	.06804	-.01843	.24933
	EVNA			1.753	290.281	.081	.11545	.06586	-.01418	.24507

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics
EVA: Equal variances assumed; EVNA: Equal variances not assumed

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.4 Variance by rank

As indicated earlier, respondents were categorised by rank as below lieutenant and lieutenant or above. Tables 5.12 and 5.13 show that the responses of those who ranked below lieutenant were more affirmative and had significantly higher mean values on the following four factors:

F. Self-valence $M=3.39$, $t(99.551)=3.960$, $p=.000$.

H. Employee characteristics: $M=3.22$, $t(92.512)=4.315$, $p=.000$.

I. Change characteristics: $M=3.56$, $t(91.288)=3.061$, $p=.003$.

J. Context characteristics: $M=3.39$, $t(310)=3.013$, $p=.003$.

Table 5.12: Group statistics – Variance of themes by rank

Themes	Below Lieutenant				Lieutenant or above			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
A	261	4.0115	.54565	.03377	51	4.1438	.55480	.07769
B	261	4.0358	.49484	.03063	51	4.1242	.46169	.06465
C	261	3.8072	.51209	.03170	51	3.6863	.49626	.06949
D	261	4.0651	.66250	.04101	51	4.0915	.56991	.07980
E	261	4.0447	.76469	.04733	51	4.0850	.77701	.10880
F	261	3.3946	.69650	.04311	51	3.0850	.46592	.06524
G	261	3.7406	.51743	.03203	51	3.6059	.52968	.07417
H	261	3.2235	.67595	.04184	51	2.8791	.48543	.06797
I	261	3.5568	.54954	.03402	51	3.3562	.40003	.05602
J	261	3.3863	.59293	.03670	51	3.1176	.52419	.07340

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.13: Independent samples *t*-test of rank

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
A	EVA	.570	.451	-1.579	310	.115	-.13230	.08377	-.29712	.03252
	EVNA			-1.562	70.205	.123	-.13230	.08471	-.30124	.03665
B	EVA	.009	.926	-1.180	310	.239	-.08842	.07496	-.23593	.05908
	EVNA			-1.236	74.247	.220	-.08842	.07154	-.23096	.05411
C	EVA	.150	.698	1.549	310	.122	.12088	.07801	-.03263	.27438
	EVNA			1.583	72.369	.118	.12088	.07638	-.03137	.27312
D	EVA	3.782	.053	-.266	310	.791	-.02637	.09928	-.22171	.16898
	EVNA			-.294	78.835	.770	-.02637	.08972	-.20496	.15222
E	EVA	.710	.400	-.343	310	.732	-.04027	.11738	-.27123	.19069
	EVNA			-.339	70.232	.735	-.04027	.11865	-.27690	.19637
F	EVA	11.331	.001	3.043	310	.003	.30967	.10177	.10942	.50992
	EVNA			3.960	99.551	.000	.30967	.07820	.15451	.46482
G	EVA	.000	.985	1.694	310	.091	.13473	.07952	-.02174	.29120
	EVNA			1.668	69.917	.100	.13473	.08079	-.02640	.29586
H	EVA	8.713	.003	3.466	310	.001	.34441	.09936	.14890	.53993
	EVNA			4.315	92.512	.000	.34441	.07982	.18590	.50293
I	EVA	4.254	.040	2.480	310	.014	.20062	.08088	.04148	.35977
	EVNA			3.061	91.288	.003	.20062	.06553	.07045	.33079
J	EVA	1.506	.221	3.013	310	.003	.26869	.08916	.09325	.44413
	EVNA			3.274	77.198	.002	.26869	.08206	.10528	.43209
A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics EVA: Equal variances assumed; EVNA: Equal variances not assumed.										

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.5 Variance by qualification

The independent samples *t*-test was also applied to the main factors to examine differences in scores between respondents according to their qualifications. The results in Tables 5.14 and 5.15 reveal a significant difference between those holding secondary school certificates or diplomas and holders of university degrees, in that the former had significantly higher mean scores on the following four factors:

F. Self-valence $M=3.39$, $t(90.590)=3.160$, $p=.002$.

H. Employee characteristics: $M=3.22$, $t(96.236)=4.093$, $p=.000$.

I. Change characteristics: $M=3.57$, $t(310)=3.208$, $p=.001$.

J. Context characteristics: $M=3.39$, $t(310)=3.171$, $p=.002$.

Table 5.14: Group statistics – Variance of themes by qualification

Themes	High School or Diploma				University Degree			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
A	260	4.0128	.54706	.03393	52	4.1346	.54935	.07618
B	260	4.0372	.50129	.03109	52	4.1154	.42720	.05924
C	260	3.8090	.51390	.03187	52	3.6795	.48490	.06724
D	260	4.0910	.66396	.04118	52	3.9615	.55091	.07640
E	260	4.0526	.77900	.04831	52	4.0449	.70178	.09732
F	260	3.3885	.69189	.04291	52	3.1218	.52406	.07267
G	260	3.7400	.52638	.03265	52	3.6115	.48372	.06708
H	260	3.2212	.67840	.04207	52	2.8974	.48299	.06698
I	260	3.5667	.54312	.03368	52	3.3109	.42012	.05826
J	260	3.3891	.59581	.03695	52	3.1090	.50259	.06970

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics; EVA: Equal variances assumed; EVNA: Equal variances not assumed.

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.15: Independent samples *t*-test of qualification

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
A	EVA	.431	.512	-1.465	310	.144	-.12179	.08316	-.28543	.04184
	EVNA			-1.460	72.674	.148	-.12179	.08339	-.28801	.04442
B	EVA	.450	.503	-1.051	310	.294	-.07821	.07442	-.22463	.06822
	EVNA			-1.169	81.736	.246	-.07821	.06690	-.21131	.05490
C	EVA	.052	.820	1.674	310	.095	.12949	.07736	-.02273	.28170
	EVNA			1.740	75.735	.086	.12949	.07441	-.01873	.27770
D	EVA	4.531	.034	1.318	310	.188	.12949	.09824	-.06382	.32280
	EVNA			1.492	83.547	.139	.12949	.08679	-.04311	.30209
E	EVA	.624	.430	.066	310	.947	.00769	.11649	-.22152	.23690
	EVNA			.071	78.297	.944	.00769	.10865	-.20860	.22399
F	EVA	6.367	.012	2.631	310	.009	.26667	.10135	.06724	.46609
	EVNA			3.160	90.590	.002	.26667	.08440	.09901	.43432
G	EVA	1.759	.186	1.627	310	.105	.12846	.07893	-.02685	.28378
	EVNA			1.722	77.166	.089	.12846	.07460	-.02008	.27701
H	EVA	8.733	.003	3.277	310	.001	.32372	.09879	.12934	.51810
	EVNA			4.093	96.236	.000	.32372	.07910	.16672	.48072
I	EVA	3.182	.075	3.208	310	.001	.25577	.07973	.09888	.41266
	EVNA			3.801	88.837	.000	.25577	.06730	.12205	.38949
J	EVA	3.536	.061	3.171	310	.002	.28013	.08834	.10631	.45394
	EVNA			3.551	82.416	.001	.28013	.07889	.12321	.43705

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics

EVA: Equal variances assumed; EVNA: Equal variances not assumed

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.6 Variance by department

The reader will recall that the survey was distributed within two departments of the ADP. Given that department X was acknowledged to be a weak example of institutionalizing the QMS, whereas department Y was recognized to be a strong case, the researcher anticipated that comparing two departments would yield substantial results as to what distinct factors might lead two departments of a single institution (the ADP), operating under the same national and corporate culture, succeed or fail. This subsection therefore reports the differences in mean scores for the items and main themes of this study, taking each of the three main sections of the survey in turn.

5.5.6.1 Variance of participants' perceptions of the QMS

The results in Tables 5.16 and 5.17 reveal statistically significant differences between the means of respondents in departments X and Y with respect to S2, the latter believing more strongly ($M=4.40$, $SE=.047$) than the former ($M=4.20$) that management had made the right decision to adopt the QMS; this difference was significant at $t(310)=-2.66$, $p=.008$.

Table 5.16: Group statistics – variance of participants' perceptions of the QMS

Statements	Department X				Department Y			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
1. QMS objectives are clear	138	4.46	.663	.056	174	4.45	.693	.053
2. Right decision to adopt	138	4.20	.743	.063	174	4.40	.626	.047
3. QMS increases workload	138	3.39	1.315	.112	174	3.29	1.313	.100

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.17: Independent samples *t*-test of participants' perceptions of the QMS

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
S1	EVA	1.210	.272	.106	310	.915	.008	.077	-.144	.161
	EVNA			.107	299.267	.915	.008	.077	-.143	.160
S2	EVA	.219	.640	-2.664	310	.008	-.207	.078	-.359	-.054
	EVNA			-2.612	267.490	.010	-.207	.079	-.362	-.051
S3	EVA	.002	.962	.656	310	.512	.098	.150	-.196	.393
	EVNA			.656	293.795	.513	.098	.150	-.197	.393

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.6.2 Variance of participants' commitment to the QMS

Tables 5.18 and 5.19 report the variances between the two departments with respect to the five components of the change message.

Table 5.18: Group statistics – Variance of change message by department

Statements	Department X				Department Y			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
Change Discrepancy								
4. QMS imposed on staff	138	3.58	1.113	.095	174	3.30	1.209	.092
5. QMS was necessary	138	4.40	.679	.058	174	4.38	.631	.048
6. QMS improves efficiency	138	4.31	.772	.066	174	4.36	.705	.053
Change Appropriateness	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
7. Suitable to achieve goals	138	4.45	.705	.060	174	4.31	.780	.059
8. Unconvinced of its usefulness	138	2.67	1.167	.099	174	2.75	1.184	.090
9. QMS complements priorities	138	4.22	.673	.057	174	4.32	.670	.051
Change Efficacy	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
10. Commitment is achievable	138	4.22	.694	.059	174	4.13	.734	.056
11. Staff able to sustain QMS	138	4.25	.726	.062	174	4.21	.855	.065
12. Trainings were relevant	138	3.64	.951	.081	174	3.95	.920	.070
Principal Support	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
13. Managers were supportive	138	3.97	.871	.074	174	4.12	.820	.062
14. Role models – commitment	138	3.67	1.035	.088	174	4.26	.871	.066
15. Still motivate staff	138	3.83	1.001	.085	174	4.32	.766	.058
Self-Valence	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
16. QMS makes the job easier	138	4.17	.704	.060	174	4.09	.892	.068
17. Staff still rewarded	138	3.01	1.238	.105	174	3.29	1.152	.087
18. Staff may lose if QMS stays	138	2.68	1.178	.100	174	2.79	1.190	.090

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

- **Change discrepancy:** There was no significant difference between the means of the two departments under the change discrepancy theme, except for S4, where department X respondents felt more obliged to adopt the change ($M=3.58$) than group Y ($M=3.30$); $t(310)=2.07, p=.040$.
- **Change appropriateness:** There was no significant difference between the means of the two groups under this theme.
- **Change efficacy:** Participants from department Y had significantly higher mean values ($M=3.95$) than those from department X ($M=3.64$) in terms of their levels of agreement on the relevance of training provided to the skills required by the QMS (S12): $t(310)=-2.92, p=.004$.
- **Principal support:** Two significant differences were noted. First, department Y respondents showed more confidence that their managers were good role models and

committed to the QMS, since their mean score ($M=4.26$) was significantly higher than that of department X respondents ($M=3.67$) in relation to S14: $t(267.46)=2.44, p>.05$. The second difference was related to S15, where department Y had a significantly higher mean: $M=4.32, t(251.098)=-4.68, p=.000$.

- **Self-valence:** A significantly higher mean was found for department Y than department X with regard to S17: $t(283.805)=-1.994, p>.05$.

Table 5.19: Independent samples *t*-test of change message by department

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
S4	EVA	2.341	.127	2.067	310	.040	.275	.133	.013	.537
	EVNA			2.087	303.172	.038	.275	.132	.016	.534
S5	EVA	2.187	.140	.259	310	.796	.019	.074	-.127	.166
	EVNA			.256	283.782	.798	.019	.075	-.128	.167
S6	EVA	1.576	.210	-.534	310	.594	-.045	.084	-.210	.120
	EVNA			-.528	280.836	.598	-.045	.085	-.211	.122
S7	EVA	.864	.353	1.630	310	.104	.139	.085	-.029	.307
	EVNA			1.649	304.670	.100	.139	.084	-.027	.305
S8	EVA	.012	.912	-.643	310	.521	-.086	.134	-.350	.178
	EVNA			-.644	295.783	.520	-.086	.134	-.350	.177
S9	EVA	.008	.929	-1.195	310	.233	-.091	.077	-.242	.059
	EVNA			-1.195	293.422	.233	-.091	.077	-.242	.059
S10	EVA	1.427	.233	1.202	310	.230	.098	.082	-.063	.259
	EVNA			1.210	300.537	.227	.098	.081	-.062	.258
S11	EVA	.848	.358	.512	310	.609	.047	.091	-.133	.226
	EVNA			.522	308.571	.602	.047	.090	-.129	.223
S12	EVA	2.579	.109	-2.917	310	.004	-.311	.106	-.520	-.101
	EVNA			-2.906	289.596	.004	-.311	.107	-.521	-.100
S13	EVA	2.959	.086	-1.557	310	.120	-.150	.096	-.339	.039
	EVNA			-1.547	285.687	.123	-.150	.097	-.340	.041
S14	EVA	8.503	.004	-5.484	310	.000	-.592	.108	-.804	-.380
	EVNA			-5.377	267.461	.000	-.592	.110	-.809	-.375
S15	EVA	15.213	.000	-4.826	310	.000	-.483	.100	-.680	-.286
	EVNA			-4.682	251.098	.000	-.483	.103	-.686	-.280
S16	EVA	3.291	.071	.945	310	.345	.088	.093	-.095	.270
	EVNA			.971	309.993	.332	.088	.090	-.090	.265
S17	EVA	.030	.863	-2.010	310	.045	-.273	.136	-.540	-.006
	EVNA			-1.994	283.805	.047	-.273	.137	-.542	-.003
S18	EVA	.105	.746	-.786	310	.432	-.106	.135	-.372	.160
	EVNA			-.787	295.397	.432	-.106	.135	-.372	.159

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.5.6.3 Variance of factors influencing institutionalization

Tables 5.20 and 5.21 report the variances between the two departments with respect to the four main factors of this study.

Table 5.20: Group statistics – Variance of factors by department

Statements	Department X				Department Y			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
Management Characteristics								
19. Focus on long-term planning	138	3.80	1.012	.086	174	3.98	.843	.064
20. Involve staff in planning	138	3.46	1.285	.109	174	3.84	.984	.075
21. Caring for staff	138	3.52	1.048	.089	174	3.83	.847	.064
22. Helpful in times of need	138	4.01	.936	.080	174	4.34	.658	.050
23. Encourage staff	138	3.60	1.205	.103	174	4.24	.760	.058
24. Value relationships	138	3.35	1.277	.109	174	3.05	1.251	.095
25. Keep staff updated	138	3.35	1.131	.096	174	4.00	.906	.069
26. Happy to hear feedback	138	3.50	1.034	.088	174	4.12	.784	.059
27. Evaluate QMS regularly	138	3.75	.886	.075	174	4.12	.848	.064
28. Support for personal agendas	138	3.20	1.209	.103	174	2.96	1.374	.104
Employee Characteristics	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
29. Staff fear the change	138	2.39	1.187	.101	174	2.51	1.177	.089
30. Staff prefer status quo	138	2.33	1.221	.104	174	2.45	1.332	.101
31. Given space to participate	138	3.54	1.153	.098	174	3.89	.863	.065
32. Reward expectations met	138	3.04	1.066	.091	174	3.29	1.107	.084
33. Communication was effective	138	3.64	1.059	.090	174	3.96	.793	.060
34. Staff were empowered	138	3.21	.978	.083	174	3.57	1.066	.081
Change Characteristics	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
35. QMS progress is publicized	138	3.33	1.068	.091	174	3.91	.899	.068
36. Institutionalization-new stage	138	3.00	1.114	.095	174	3.40	1.142	.087
37. There was clear timetable	138	3.63	1.040	.089	174	3.89	.801	.061
38. Devote sufficient resources	138	3.79	1.149	.098	174	3.90	.874	.066
39. There still some obstacles	138	3.35	1.072	.091	174	3.29	1.118	.085
40. Exist means to rate success	138	3.46	1.256	.107	174	3.22	1.231	.093
Context Characteristics	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
41. <i>Wasta</i> had positive impact	138	2.79	1.511	.129	174	2.97	1.195	.091
42. Teamwork not encouraged	138	3.17	1.271	.108	174	2.70	1.155	.088
43. Structure hinders collaboration	138	3.07	1.265	.108	174	2.77	1.061	.080
44. Decisions are centralized	138	3.80	.983	.084	174	3.30	1.033	.078
45. Learning from mistakes	138	3.68	.846	.072	174	3.84	.766	.058
46. Past events_ positive impact	138	3.96	.970	.083	174	4.15	.706	.053

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.21: Independent samples *t*-test of factors influencing institutionalization

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
S19	EVA	15.717	.000	-1.767	310	.078	-.186	.105	-.392	.021
	EVNA			-1.731	265.582	.085	-.186	.107	-.397	.026
S20	EVA	15.066	.000	-2.978	310	.003	-.383	.128	-.635	-.130
	EVNA			-2.889	251.043	.004	-.383	.132	-.643	-.122
S21	EVA	16.689	.000	-2.904	310	.004	-.312	.107	-.523	-.100
	EVNA			-2.835	260.433	.005	-.312	.110	-.528	-.095
S22	EVA	3.875	.050	-3.591	310	.000	-.325	.090	-.502	-.147
	EVNA			-3.453	236.788	.001	-.325	.094	-.510	-.139
S23	EVA	40.775	.000	-5.717	310	.000	-.640	.112	-.860	-.420
	EVNA			-5.438	219.656	.000	-.640	.118	-.872	-.408
S24	EVA	2.478	.116	2.058	310	.040	.296	.144	.013	.579
	EVNA			2.053	291.264	.041	.296	.144	.012	.580
S25	EVA	26.529	.000	-5.655	310	.000	-.652	.115	-.879	-.425
	EVNA			-5.514	258.809	.000	-.652	.118	-.885	-.419
S26	EVA	15.885	.000	-6.028	310	.000	-.621	.103	-.823	-.418
	EVNA			-5.843	249.450	.000	-.621	.106	-.830	-.411
S27	EVA	2.883	.091	-3.722	310	.000	-.367	.099	-.561	-.173
	EVNA			-3.703	287.981	.000	-.367	.099	-.562	-.172
S28	EVA	4.014	.046	1.636	310	.103	.243	.149	-.049	.536
	EVNA			1.660	306.632	.098	.243	.146	-.045	.531
S29	EVA	.094	.759	-.893	310	.373	-.120	.135	-.385	.145
	EVNA			-.892	292.922	.373	-.120	.135	-.385	.145
S30	EVA	1.573	.211	-.835	310	.405	-.122	.146	-.410	.166
	EVNA			-.843	303.526	.400	-.122	.145	-.407	.163
S31	EVA	30.081	.000	-3.041	310	.003	-.347	.114	-.572	-.123
	EVNA			-2.944	247.152	.004	-.347	.118	-.580	-.115
S32	EVA	4.141	.043	-2.011	310	.045	-.250	.124	-.494	-.005
	EVNA			-2.019	298.585	.044	-.250	.124	-.493	-.006
S33	EVA	31.644	.000	-3.003	310	.003	-.315	.105	-.521	-.109
	EVNA			-2.906	247.193	.004	-.315	.108	-.528	-.101
S34	EVA	4.255	.040	-3.062	310	.002	-.359	.117	-.589	-.128
	EVNA			-3.093	303.518	.002	-.359	.116	-.587	-.131
S35	EVA	20.181	.000	-5.276	310	.000	-.588	.111	-.807	-.369
	EVNA			-5.173	267.274	.000	-.588	.114	-.811	-.364
S36	EVA	3.965	.047	-3.079	310	.002	-.397	.129	-.650	-.143
	EVNA			-3.088	297.111	.002	-.397	.128	-.649	-.144
S37	EVA	15.837	.000	-2.499	310	.013	-.260	.104	-.465	-.055
	EVNA			-2.426	252.012	.016	-.260	.107	-.472	-.049
S38	EVA	12.997	.000	-.931	310	.352	-.107	.115	-.332	.119
	EVNA			-.903	249.885	.367	-.107	.118	-.339	.126
S39	EVA	.265	.607	.437	310	.662	.055	.125	-.191	.301
	EVNA			.440	299.069	.661	.055	.124	-.190	.300
S40	EVA	.106	.745	1.641	310	.102	.232	.142	-.046	.511
	EVNA			1.637	291.338	.103	.232	.142	-.047	.512
S41	EVA	23.830	.000	-1.184	310	.237	-.181	.153	-.483	.120
	EVNA			-1.153	256.525	.250	-.181	.157	-.491	.128
S42	EVA	.931	.335	3.424	310	.001	.471	.138	.200	.742
	EVNA			3.386	280.158	.001	.471	.139	.197	.745
S43	EVA	4.898	.028	2.295	310	.022	.302	.132	.043	.562
	EVNA			2.249	266.767	.025	.302	.134	.038	.567
S44	EVA	1.677	.196	4.324	310	.000	.498	.115	.272	.725
	EVNA			4.349	299.878	.000	.498	.115	.273	.724
S45	EVA	4.495	.035	-1.727	310	.085	-.158	.091	-.338	.022
	EVNA			-1.708	279.555	.089	-.158	.092	-.340	.024
S46	EVA	8.483	.004	-1.956	310	.051	-.186	.095	-.372	.001
	EVNA			-1.888	242.359	.060	-.186	.098	-.379	.008

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

- **Management characteristics:** Items under this theme varied most in terms of their mean values; for all except S19 and S28, department Y had significantly higher scores. For instance, its respondents perceived their managers to be more helpful (S22: $M=4.34$, $t(236.788)=-3.453$, $p=.000$) and supportive (S23: $M=4.24$, $t(219.656)=-5.438$, $p=.000$), whereas department X respondents scored a higher mean value in rating only one item (S24), indicating that department X managers were seen to value relationships and trust certain people with whom they had relationships: $t(310)=2.058$, $p=.040$.
- **Employee characteristics:** There were statistically significant differences between the two departments in relation to four of the six statements under this theme: the mean values scored by department Y respondents on S31, S32, S33 and S34 were higher than for department X.
- **Change characteristics:** This theme is concerned with the way the QMS had been implemented in the two departments. The results revealed statistically significant differences whereby scores were higher for department Y with respect to three statements: S35 ($t(267.274)=-5.173$, $p=.000$), S36 ($t(297.111)=-3.088$, $p=.002$) and S37 ($t(252.012)=-2.426$, $p=.016$).
- **Context characteristics:** Some significant differences were found between the departments; for example, department X respondents had statistically significantly higher mean values than department Y with reference to three statements: S42 ($t(310)=3.424$, $p=.001$), S43 ($t(266.767)=2.249$, $p=.025$) and S44 ($t(310)=4.324$, $p=.000$). No significant difference was found in relation to the practice of *wasta* (S41), nor was there any significant difference in relation to the impact of past change events (S46).

5.5.6.4 Variance of main themes

This subsection reports the variances between the two departments with regard to the ten main themes of this study. Tables 5.22 and 5.23 show that department Y had significantly higher mean scores than department X on the following factors:

- E. Principal support: $M=4.23$, $t(267.959)=-4.750$, $p=.000$.
- G. Management characteristics: $M=3.84$, $t(253.600)=-5.014$, $p=.000$.
- H. Employee characteristics: $M=3.28$, $t(310)=-3.406$, $p=.001$.
- I. Change Characteristics: $M=.60$, $t(310)=-2.957$, $p=.003$.

Table 5.22: Group statistics – Variance of main themes by department

Themes	Department X				Department Y			
	n	M	StD	SE(M)	n	M	StD	SE(M)
A	138	4.0145	.54165	.04611	174	4.0479	.55489	.04207
B	138	4.0966	.47347	.04030	174	4.0134	.50094	.03798
C	138	3.7802	.56885	.04842	174	3.7931	.46105	.03495
D	138	4.0386	.60823	.05178	174	4.0939	.67775	.05138
E	138	3.8237	.80670	.06867	174	4.2318	.68137	.05165
F	138	3.2899	.65911	.05611	174	3.3870	.68355	.05182
G	138	3.5543	.56738	.04830	174	3.8489	.44093	.03343
H	138	3.0266	.63560	.05411	174	3.2787	.66017	.05005
I	138	3.4251	.49616	.04224	174	3.6025	.54872	.04160
J	138	3.4118	.61318	.05220	174	3.2874	.56651	.04295

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 5.23: Independent samples *t*-test of main factors

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
									Lower	Upper
A	EVA	1.175	.279	-.534	310	.594	-.03340	.06259	-.15655	.08975
	EVNA			-.535	297.022	.593	-.03340	.06241	-.15623	.08943
B	EVA	.025	.874	1.493	310	.137	.08321	.05574	-.02647	.19288
	EVNA			1.503	300.609	.134	.08321	.05538	-.02577	.19218
C	EVA	9.748	.002	-.221	310	.825	-.01291	.05831	-.12763	.10181
	EVNA			-.216	260.863	.829	-.01291	.05972	-.13051	.10469
D	EVA	.362	.548	-.748	310	.455	-.05522	.07386	-.20055	.09011
	EVNA			-.757	305.257	.450	-.05522	.07294	-.19876	.08831
E	EVA	11.601	.001	-4.842	310	.000	-.40813	.08428	-.57396	-.24229
	EVNA			-4.750	267.959	.000	-.40813	.08593	-.57731	-.23895
F	EVA	.002	.963	-1.266	310	.206	-.09712	.07670	-.24803	.05380
	EVNA			-1.272	298.443	.205	-.09712	.07638	-.24742	.05319
G	EVA	16.468	.000	-5.159	310	.000	-.29450	.05708	-.40682	-.18219
	EVNA			-5.014	253.600	.000	-.29450	.05874	-.41018	-.17883
H	EVA	1.488	.223	-3.406	310	.001	-.25217	.07403	-.39783	-.10651
	EVNA			-3.421	298.614	.001	-.25217	.07370	-.39721	-.10712
I	EVA	1.781	.183	-2.957	310	.003	-.17737	.05997	-.29538	-.05936
	EVNA			-2.992	304.672	.003	-.17737	.05928	-.29402	-.06072
J	EVA	1.445	.230	1.858	310	.064	.12448	.06698	-.00731	.25627
	EVNA			1.842	282.682	.067	.12448	.06759	-.00857	.25753

A: Participants' Perceptions of the QMS, B: Change Discrepancy, C: Change Appropriateness, D: Change Efficacy, E: Principal Support, F: Self-Valence, G: Management Characteristics, H: Employee Characteristics, I: Change Characteristics, J: Context Characteristics

EVA: Equal variances assumed; EVNA: Equal variances not assumed

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented and analyzed the empirical data collected from the 312 employees who completed the quantitative survey as part of this study. Their views and perceptions were measured using a 5-point Likert scale so as to answer three research questions, in relation to participants' perceptions of the QMS, to their overall level of commitment (i.e. five components of the change message) and to the critical factors influencing institutionalization. Table 5.24 summarizes the questionnaire findings on the main themes. These findings will be further analyzed and discussed in chapter 7 in relation to the literature review, as well as the qualitative findings obtained from interviewing senior managers of the ADP. Meanwhile, chapter 6 presents and analyses the results of these interviews, so as to obtain a more holistic picture and fuller explanations.

Table 5.24: Summary of questionnaire findings on main themes

Research Questions	Main Themes	Descriptive Analysis (Mean + Standard Deviation)	Correlation (Pearson Coefficient)	Group Comparisons (Independent <i>t</i> -test)				
				Gender	Experience	Rank	Qualification	Department
How has the QMS been perceived by ADP personnel?	A. Participants' perceptions of the QMS	Overall, respondents were positive, but neutral regarding S3: QMS increased workload.	Significantly correlated with B, C, H, I, & J.	Males had significantly higher mean values than females in six factors: A, C, D, E, H and I.	Respondents with 15 years' work experience or less had significantly higher mean values on three factors: F, H & I.	Respondents who ranked below lieutenant had significantly higher mean values on four factors: F, H, I, & I.	Holders of secondary school certificates and diplomas had significantly higher mean values on four factors: F, H, J, & I.	Department Y had significantly higher mean values on four factors: E, G, H, & I.
To what extent have the institutionalization's strategies addressed the five components of the change message?	B. Change Discrepancy	Overall, respondents needed QMS & recognised its benefits, although some said that QMS was imposed on them.	Significantly correlated with A, C, D, I, & J.					
	C. Change Appropriateness	Overall, respondents believed that QMS was a suitable intervention to achieve goals.	Significantly correlated with all themes					
	D. Change Efficacy	Respondents strongly emphasised their ability to conduct change; training was also relevant.	Significantly correlated with all themes, except A & J					
	E. Principal Support	Overall, respondents consistently acknowledged their managers' support.	Significantly correlated with all themes, except A & B.					
	F. Self-Valence	Moderate views were expressed; neutral regarding S17: staff still rewarded.	Significantly correlated with all themes, except A & B					
What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?	G. Management Characteristics	Respondents averagely hold positive views of their managers, but some managerial traits were more acknowledged (S22) than others.	Significantly correlated with C, D, E, F, H, & I.	Males had significantly higher mean values than females in six factors: A, C, D, E, H and I.	Respondents with 15 years' work experience or less had significantly higher mean values on three factors: F, H & I.	Respondents who ranked below lieutenant had significantly higher mean values on four factors: F, H, I, & I.	Holders of secondary school certificates and diplomas had significantly higher mean values on four factors: F, H, J, & I.	Department Y had significantly higher mean values on four factors: E, G, H, & I.
	H. Employee Characteristics	Respondents had moderate views about introducing the change (S29 & S30). They were also neutral on S32 & S34, but slightly more positive on S31 & S33.	Significantly correlated with all themes, except B.					
	I. Change Characteristics	QMS achievements were visible for the majority of respondents. Overall, they felt that there were still obstacles to the QMS despite the clear timetables (S37) & sufficient resources (S38). Moreover, divergent opinions were recorded in rating S36 & S40.	Significantly correlated with all themes.					
	J. Context Characteristics	Respondents had moderate views about <i>wasta</i> (S41), teamwork (S42) & structural drawbacks (S43), while they were averagely in agreement with S44, S45 & S46.	Significantly correlated with all themes, except D & G.					

Data source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

CHAPTER 6

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study has taken a mixed-methods approach, employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The preceding chapter presented and analysed quantitative data gathered from 312 participants in departments X and Y of the ADP, while this chapter does the same for qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews with 17 police officers holding key managerial positions in these two departments. This qualitative data is essential for the present research, as it complements the quantitative analysis and helps to explain some of the survey findings by probing the interviewees' views more deeply. To preserve their anonymity, interviewees from department Y are identified by codes M1 to M10 and those from department X by codes M11 to M17.

This chapter is structured as follows: section 6.2 outlines the general characteristics of the interviewees, then section 6.3 examines their general perceptions and opinions of the QMS, section 6.4 their views of the existing strategies for institutionalizing the QMS and section 6.5 the roles and characteristics of the four main clusters (i.e. management, employee, change and context characteristics). The chapter concludes with a summary of the key interview findings.

6.2 GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERVIEWEES

This section presents the demographic profiles of the interviewees, summarised in Table 6.1. The researcher interviewed 17 managers across the two departments, all of whom had played a critical role in supervising and managing the implementation and the institutionalization of the QMS. They were selected from various functions at the top, middle and lower levels of management, in order to ensure a variety of responses. It was anticipated that the relatively senior employees were more likely to provide critical insights and detailed information about the phenomena under investigation. They were also expected to have the relevant knowledge and experience of the decisions that had been

made and the strategies that had been implemented, along with the surrounding circumstances, all of which were of particular interest to the researcher.

Table 6.1: Demographic profiles of the interviewees

Main Characteristics	Sub-characteristics	Department X (n=7)	Department Y (n=10)	Total Frequency (n=17)	Percentage
Gender	Male	6	9	15	88.2
	Female	1	1	2	11.8
Age (years)	Under 25	0	0	0	0
	25-35	4	4	8	47
	36-45	2	4	6	35.3
	Over 45	1	2	3	17.7
Experience (years)	Less than 5	0	0	0	0
	5 to 10	0	1	1	5.9
	11 to 15	3	5	8	47
	16 to 20	3	2	5	29.4
	More than 20	1	2	3	17.7
Job Category	Police force	7	10	17	100
	Civilian	0	0	0	0
Managerial Position	Top	2	1	3	17.7
	Middle	4	8	12	70.6
	Lower	1	1	2	11.7
Academic Qualification	Secondary school	0	1	1	5.9
	Diploma	2	1	3	17.7
	Bachelor's Degree	2	6	8	47
	Master's Degree	1	2	3	17.7
	PhD	2	0	2	11.7

Source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

Table 6.1 shows first that all but two interviewees were male. This is not surprising, as in Arab countries men represent the majority of the workforce (Gallant & Pounder, 2008). Metcalfe (2006) identifies some cultural and social challenges to women's employment, including family commitments and childcare responsibilities, limited female role models, stereotyped perceptions of women managers, business culture and the limited support of organizations. She further declares that "Arab nations strongly supported gender equality in education but not equality in employment" (ibid: 97).

Almost half of the interviewees were aged between 25 and 35 years; the rest were 36-45 years old (6 interviewees) or older than 45 (3). As to experience, all but two had served in the ADP for more than 10 years, enough time to accumulate work experience that would

ensure their understanding of the ADP's context and its culture in relation to the change. All interviewees were members of the police force rather than civilian employees and were officers with the military rank of lieutenant or above.

The table also shows that the sample included three managers at the executive level, 12 at the middle level and two at the lower level. Their academic qualifications were fairly varied: one manager had a high school certificate, three held diplomas, eight had bachelor's degrees, three held master's degrees and two had completed PhDs.

The following sections are structured according to the relevant research questions.

6.3 INTERVIEWEES' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QMS

This section examines interviewees' general perceptions and opinions of the QMS and how it was implemented and institutionalized, in order to answer the first research question: *How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel?* Three sub-questions were asked to facilitate this analysis: What are the main reasons for adopting the QMS? What are the outcomes of the QMS? What are the challenges that could hinder the institutionalization of the QMS?

6.3.1 Reasons for adopting the QMS

The QMS seems to have been initiated when the ADP decided to compete for the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award, as well as in response to the call by the Abu Dhabi Executive Council (ADEC) for all local government organizations to adopt change and seek excellence (ADAEP, 2007). However, this subsection explores interviewees' views of the reasons for implementing the QMS at the micro-level of their departments.

Interviewees appeared to differ in their understanding of the reasons for implementing the QMS and of the need to institutionalize it. For example, interviewees from department X were particularly concerned with being up to date with cutting-edge practices; thus they saw the ISO as a qualification they needed to become proactive, as elucidated here:

The ADP was aiming to adopt the best practice for enhancing the quality of the service provided, achieving excellence and the highest standards of performance... Our department chose to follow this path and contribute to the overall success of the ADP [M15].

We cannot just watch most other departments pursue certification to ISO while we do nothing. We cannot be left behind. We have to keep up with other departments and provide the best service possible [M12].

Interviewees from department Y tended to put more emphasis on the efforts of their top leaders to deliver the change and their own duty to repay them by satisfying them. In addition, three of the ten made reference to the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award, as well as the micro-level competition among ADP departments, which they regarded as basic motives for institutionalization:

The director of our department fought to obtain this ISO certificate... It was not an easy job for him to do what he did... He struggled to allocate resources and provide training in order to make this change happen. The least we can do is to carry on this change and contribute to improving our department [M3].

As you know, the ADP won the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award and since then it has held many micro-level interdepartmental competitions; therefore, it is our responsibility and ambition to work hard and maintain our successful implementation of the QMS [M7].

Despite these miscellaneous perspectives on the reasons behind the change, all interviewees in both departments agreed that the QMS had been imposed on them by the ADP leadership and that they had to obtain the ISO certificate. The following extracts exemplify this viewpoint:

I admit that the QMS was enforced on us, but if this had not happened, I would have done anything possible to habituate my department to apply for the ISO qualification [M9].

We all know that failing to obtain the ISO certificate would mean that a new director would be assigned to replace ours, and nobody wants this [M16].

The above responses tend to confirm that managers in both departments held positive views of the QMS and realized its importance in improving organizational performance. Both sets of interviewees perceived the QMS as having been imposed on them at the strategic level, by the top decision makers in the ADP, yet at the departmental level, department X managers felt obliged to keep up with other departments, while those from department Y were keen to satisfy their head of department and to win competitions.

6.3.2 Outcomes of the QMS

Responses were varied as to the outcomes of the QMS, but with a broad consensus that the QMS had benefited the ADP in general and interviewees' departments in particular, as the following quotes indicate:

The QMS has enabled us to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of operations... to achieve satisfaction among employees, customers and all partners... to enhance the image of the institution [and] to reduce the waste of cost and time [M4].

The QMS creates consistency and instils discipline in people so that doing things right first time and every time becomes possible... It ensures that work performance has predictable outcomes, which is important for customers [M1].

The QMS standardizes our work. Work can be optimized because people know what to do and how to accomplish their different tasks and activities [M13].

It was a quantum leap when the ADP started to apply the principles of the QMS... We've done a great job in doing so ... [M17].

The above remarks show both groups of interviewees to be remarkably positive about the outcomes of the QMS; its impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of their departments was visible to all of them. Other interviewees made a specific reference to ISO 9001:

ISO 9001 helped us to standardize our procedures and methods across all sections and branches, which therefore minimized conflict and promoted the transferability of learning [M10].

Before the ISO, every section and branch had different work procedures and processes, depending on who held the position or made the decision, which increased conflict and hindered communication between our units. After gaining the ISO certificate, I assure you that things have changed and are getting better [M2].

It is manifest that managers in both departments appreciated the advantages that the QMS had brought to their departments, particularly with regard to the standardization of work procedures, which seemed to be the most noticeable and valuable outcome, since all interviewees mentioned it, some more than once.

6.3.3 Challenges to institutionalization of the QMS

Despite the aforementioned advantages of the QMS, interviewees were asked about the obstacles they had faced or might face in sustaining it. This subsection discusses interviewees' opinions regarding the main factors that could hinder its institutionalization.

It is a common belief amongst our staff and managers that the QMS is a responsibility of the Quality Team or management... We need to understand that it is everybody's responsibility... Perhaps the reason behind this is the way that quality has been approached and dealt with in the ADP, as it was always connected with technical aspects such as systems, policies and performance indicators and measurements [M15].

This contribution suggests that employees may have regarded the QMS as not their concern, perceiving accountability to rest with the Quality Team, which may have had a negative impact on their attitudes to change. Some interviewees mentioned other factors that may have contributed to weak commitment, such as the lack of participation by lower-level employees, who were made to believe that they had lost ownership of QMS implementation, while chains of change sometimes stopped or failed without warning:

After the completion of the QMS, some lower-level employees had some problems and comments on some aspects of the agreed procedures, which could have been avoided by opening doors for participation. This lack of involvement made our staff believe that they were only the implementers and it was not their business to interfere in the change plan [M6].

There were many times when we heard about a new change, project, or system that was going to take place in our department, but after many planning meetings and negotiations, a call comes out of the blue from the ADP headquarters to cancel everything [M15].

Other interviewees explained that the QMS had been perceived by some to have brought additional tasks and thus needed extra effort from them. In this regard, interviewees from both departments identified documentation as still the most challenging issue:

The introduction of the QMS has brought many requirements for documentation which didn't exist before, so the QMS has been perceived to have brought extra work and obstacles and slowed down the process of achievement. I believe this is due to a misunderstanding of the QMS [M11].

Documentation is not a target, as most of our employees think. Instead, the core idea of the QMS is to regularly review those procedures and standardize them, and documentation enables us to do this [M3].

If there is one thing that the staff still complain about, I am 100% sure that it is the documentation [M8].

The remaining responses related to challenges which could be categorized as cultural. Interviewees in both departments confessed that not all employees shared the same values and the culture of change, since some were still reluctant to fully adopt the change; thus quality errors were bound to happen:

Even though employees have implemented the QMS successfully and earned the ISO certificate, the culture of change is still not fully shared amongst all. Unless we push our employees and watch them, there is always a certain group of people who would fall back into the comfort of their old habits as soon as the pressure for change is removed [M4].

The main challenge we face is the cultural change from the traditional way of doing daily work to certain standards of procedures and continuous improvement. I believe this takes time and patience on our part, therefore there has been some resistance to fully adopting the QMS [M14].

One interviewee commented on the culture of change at the societal level:

We need a macro-level intervention to increase public awareness and develop a national vision of the principle of the QMS, so as to spread the culture of quality and change [M8].

The preceding subsection revealed interviewees' positive views regarding the usefulness of the QMS, notwithstanding their acknowledgement of some existing issues hindering the institutionalization of the QMS. There was an overall broad similarity between the responses from the two departments, suggesting their personnel had perceived the QMS in the same way. The only notable contrast related to the motives for change: department X appeared to have adopted the QMS to keep up with the coming wave of change, whereas department Y recognized its director's efforts and worked hard to meet his expectations, as well as rising to the challenge of winning competitions.

6.4 STRATEGIES FOR INSTITUTIONALIZING THE QMS

This section addresses qualitatively the second research question: *What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative?* This open question was the first posed to interviewees to stimulate this area of discussion. Divergent answers were documented, revealing disparate views among interviewees, even among managers in the same department, indicating the lack of a clear plan or strategy for institutionalizing the QMS. Therefore, the researcher had to initiate discussion by putting forward each theme and strategy in the conceptual framework for this study (Figure 3.3), so as to elicit informative data.

6.4.1 Reward and punishment

Reward and punishment appeared to feature prominently in the minds of managers in both departments, since eleven interviewees directly or indirectly mentioned the use of this strategy early in their responses, as if it was a common way to ensure the persistence of change. The majority appeared convinced that they had finished their job of implementing the QMS and obtaining ISO 9001:2008, while the rest relied on employees' obedience and commitment to continue doing what they had learned. The following statements support this analysis:

We have done our job in training and developing our employees' skills; now everybody must take responsibility for his or her actions [M17].

I believe that punishment is more effective than reward in implementing any change initiative, especially in an organization ruled by the military system. From my experience, if we reward some of our employees, others would not necessarily be motivated, whereas ... if somebody gets punished, everybody tries to avoid being in the same situation [M6].

Some interviewees linked this practice to the nature of the police work and its militaristic background, as well as to deep Islamic values:

Shall I remind you of your training during your time at Police College? Haven't you learned that everyone should take responsibility for his or her actions? [M2].

In the Holy Quran, Allah promises to reward Muslims, while threatening infidels and polytheists with his torment. Therefore, we haven't introduced anything new [M13].

On the other hand, interviewees saw reward as obviously linked to the achievements of the ADP in general, and to their departments in particular.

Our achievements are enough to make us all proud of our department in particular and the organization in general. For example, the ADP has won the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award for good performance and development [M9].

It became clear that immediate rewards at the personal level applied only to the official implementing team charged with the preparation and supervision of the QMS. Apparently, this Quality Team consisted of five middle managers from the Strategic Department and the department that applied for the ISO. Membership was limited to the supervisory level, excluding operational employees, prompting these comments by lower-level managers:

Members of the Quality Team have always been considered lucky people, because they get many privileges and rewards, such as bonuses and medals for outstanding job performance [M5].

The successful application for the QMS and obtaining the ISO was always referred to and perceived as the success of the Head of Department and the Quality Team [M14].

One interviewee had a different view, suggesting that instead of extra rewards being offered, a link or alignment should be established between the rewards and privileges currently existing in the ADP and the desired behaviour, referring to the performance appraisal:

Members of the ADP enjoy multiple privileges such as job security, relatively high salaries and attractive incentives, potential promotion opportunities, special social prestige, good public perceptions and reputation, and many learning chances. Hence, the rewards are already there, but we need to link them to the desired performance, one that can be related to well-defined criteria that can be assessed [M16].

To sum up, managers in the two departments reported similar views on using reward and punishment in institutionalizing the QMS; both groups of interviewees linked rewards to

the achievement of organizational goals or winning competitions, while punishments were applied to any individual who failed to obey orders or instructions.

6.4.2 Active participation

Our earlier discussion of the theme of participation concluded that engaging employees in the change process would have a substantial positive impact on their attitudes and values vis-à-vis change. Interviewees from both departments generally stressed the importance of active participation with lower level employees:

Engaging employees will enhance our relationship with our organizational members in a way that promotes learning and eliminates uncertainty [M2].

Lack of employee involvement would eventually lead to resistance to change; therefore, it is essential to engage those at a front-line and operational level [M13].

Nonetheless, several interviewees identified factors that hindered senior managers in both departments from inviting employees to participate in the change process. For example:

The ADP has a hierarchical structure and seniority of ranks, which in my opinion could have negative effects on communication between managers and lower levels and thus their involvement [M14].

The ADP is a military organization, based on hierarchy and rank, so employees are not entitled to contact a senior manager without permission from their immediate boss. There would be chaos otherwise [M10].

It is not an easy task to bring our people from their fields and ask them their opinions of the QMS, which they have probably never heard of... Some of our personnel might not even be interested in getting involved in the change process. I'm thinking of the older and less literate workforce, some of them working on the night shift [M16].

The following interviewees explained some efforts to create an environment supportive of participation:

We need to create a supportive environment to ensure active participation in the QMS. Many initiatives have been taken ... workshops,

training courses, brochures, SMSs and others. These actions facilitated employees' involvement and updated them with information [M7].

We should consider the option of developing effective middle managers, which I believe is the only reasonable solution, as in strengthening the link between executive and functional levels, employees would be encouraged to participate willingly and would come to know more about the change process [M12].

These statements provide strong evidence that the two groups of interviewees acknowledged and shared similar feelings about the vital role of participation in institutionalizing the QMS. Nevertheless, despite the considerable endeavours to consult employees and encourage their involvement, there were some obstacles and organizational barriers which still needed to be addressed, such as those related to culture, the military structure of the ADP and its bureaucracy.

6.4.3 Persuasive communication

The literature review accentuated the significance of persuasive communication and the effectiveness of the means used to transmit relevant information in shaping employees' perceptions of the change. Most responses under this theme indicated that both departments had taken initiatives to improve communication channels between managers and their subordinates, exemplified by the new systematic communication scheme and the open-door policy:

We have developed a new systematic communication scheme that enables us to communicate effectively and regularly, both between units and with our staff, vertically and horizontally. For example, two official regular meetings were conducted every month between the departmental director and the heads of sections, to review progress and make suggestions. Then, each head of section should communicate the plan and deliver the feedback to his or her subordinates [M1].

Our doors are always open for suggestions or complaints. Employees are free to contact us at any time at all [M17].

Other interviewees referred to continuous improvements to the ADP structure:

It was an important step that the ADP made in 2004, when reconfiguring its organizational structure, which in my opinion produced various benefits such as improving decision-making and capacity, increasing

delegation and then empowerment, eliminating conflict and enhancing communication [M5].

The use of technology was also mentioned as beneficial, especially in the case of department Y; for example, one interviewee explained how his department had utilized technology to enhance communication:

Technology was also utilized to ensure effective communication. SMS, email, intranet, e-club, newsletters and official reports were all used to encourage employees' involvement in the change process as well as to update them [M10].

A number of interviewees alluded to obstacles that might slow communication in both departments, thus potentially hindering participation:

Sometimes it takes weeks to authenticate an official paper or transaction, just because the senior manager is on holiday... The current hierarchical structure increases the gap between levels within the ADP [M7].

The seniority of ranks in the ADP and its protocols make it difficult to communicate effectively within and between departments [M3].

Our department is a large geographically spread organization, which forces us to rely on written correspondence for communication. This has made it difficult for us to discuss issues, negotiate possible solutions and seek feedback [M15].

Other comments were about the conversations between managers and their subordinates:

I would regretfully say that some managers barely speak to their subordinates except to issue instructions or orders. Employees in turn must address any manager as 'Sir' and sometimes 'Yes Sir' if the manager gives an order, no matter what. How can we claim that we persuaded them without hearing them? [M13].

Only a few managers can deliver the message effectively and persuasively when communicating with their staff. This doesn't only depend on the speaker's personal approach and experience, but also on his or her networking and how powerful it is in leading the argument [M6].

In my opinion, communication between managers and staff could be optimized by conducting as many informal meetings as possible, to break

the ice between them by encouraging employees to express their opinions openly. We have a duty to convince them with valid evidence and persuasive argument [M3].

Persuasive communication and the culture of dialogue are still missing from our management [M14].

From these various comments, it can be concluded that both departments had developed systematic communication schemes to enhance communication, with special reference to the superiority of department Y in utilising the appropriate technology. Nevertheless, both still faced challenges, related to the ADP's structure, the geographical spread of both departments and the effects of the military system with its typically bureaucratic culture. The above interviewees also highlighted the need for managers to communicate more with their staff, in an informal and persuasive manner.

6.4.4 Management of internal/external information

Managing information from internal/external sources has been argued to be a powerful strategy for reinforcing the change message and thus institutionalizing the change initiative (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999), yet interviewees from both departments were hesitant and seemed to lack confidence when discussing this theme. Some even asked the researcher what this theme had to do with the QMS. The researcher then gave some examples of what such information could be and how it could be used to deliver a change message. Interviewees from department Y then mentioned a number of methods that had been used to collect data from customers and employees. They also admitted that this information had not been publicized or distributed to employees, because they believed that it concerned the executive level management only. The following are some relevant quotations:

Two surveys were distributed to customers and employees, along with the reports that came from the middle managers' observations. Both indicated that our customers became more satisfied and so did our employees [M1].

Every month, the director of the department and the heads of sections discuss and analyse this information in order to design appropriate amendments or interventions [M8].

In contrast, department X relied on inspection reports by the Quality Team; reports were written monthly during implementation, then annually after the ISO was awarded. These

reports were treated confidentially, several interviewees reporting that only senior managers had access to them:

The Quality Team was watching our progress and thus a report had to be submitted every month to the departmental director. This report was about our current state, what had been done and what remained, the obstacles we were facing and how we could overcome them. The same is true of the annual report issued by the same team after the inspection [M15].

Reports of the Quality Team were confidential and only opened for discussion during the official monthly meetings [M15].

The data indicates that managers in both departments had limited sources of information related to the QMS, particularly in the case of department X, where information was drawn mainly from an external source (the Quality Team), while department Y had taken the further step of conducting two surveys. It was also found that although both departments had reviewed the information obtained to make appropriate amendments, it was rarely shared with lower-level employees.

6.4.5 HRM practices

The literature review suggests that for change to be sustained, it must be aligned with and complemented by other organizational features and functions (Asif *et al.*, 2009; Breja *et al.*, 2011). Hence, it can be argued that a QMS must be embedded in HRM practices and not remain a set of stand-alone activities.

This theme was discussed in relation two main HRM practices: performance appraisal and training and development. Other practices such as selection, the reward system and compensation were outside interviewees' control, since they were under the specialisations of the General Directorate for Human Resources. In this regard, interviewees in both departments acknowledged the link between the institutionalization of the QMS and the annual performance appraisals. For example, two interviewees stated frankly:

Employees were assessed according not only to their general performance during the year, but also to their commitment to the principles of the QMS [M6].

Having an ISO certificate enabled us to explore errors and track them to their origins. We drew clear lines that nobody should cross ... At the end of the day, everyone must get the score that he or she deserves [M11].

Despite these statements, the appraisal forms of both departments lacked any mention of commitment to the QMS or to any other change initiative. When asked about this, interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with the appraisal criteria:

The present performance appraisal form doesn't reflect ... the current status of the ADP and its functions. The criteria seem to be outdated and we as managers have to make judgements according to our own observations [M17].

The Directorate for Human Resources requires managers to assess their employees to reach the goal of 10% excellent, 80% merit and 10% poor performance. I am totally against this, because we might have more than 10% of our employees who deserve excellent, or less than 10% who deserve poor performance. It is unfair! [M4].

Every year, we've had complaints from some employees who were dissatisfied with their appraisal outcomes. There seems to be a misunderstanding of some criteria in the assessment form, especially with regard to the behavioural dimension. Managers usually rate this dimension according to how their members respond to the change, whereas employees who got a low mark in this dimension believed that their behaviours were morally inappropriate [M9].

Thus, interviewees did recognise this problem, but saw it as outside their control, since the appraisal form was imposed by the Directorate for Human Resources. However, they felt that they were likely to be blamed for any misunderstandings amongst their employees related to some of the criteria included in the appraisal form, which reflected their lack of autonomy and the authoritarian nature of the decisions.

By contrast, interviewees from both departments agreed on the theme of training, consistently reporting that they were aware of the promising outcomes of training and that all staff including managers and employees were given sufficient training and workshops:

The management has devoted its attention and allocated a considerable portion of its budget to coaching the staff and providing them with a wide range of training courses, workshops and programmes [M14].

The concept of quality was new to us, so it was necessary to provide intensive training alongside the implementation, to ensure employees' understanding, which in turn minimized their resistance and increased their efficiency at the participation level [M2].

It was imperative to expand our staff's knowledge and develop their skills, to ensure their ability to implement the change and carry out their jobs successfully [M10].

Interviewees also acknowledged the support of ADP headquarters in allocating budgets for training and hiring foreign and consulting organizations to import knowledge, as two interviewees stated:

Credit should be given to the ADP, because it was so generous in terms of providing resources in a timely manner, especially for training. The budget was open to support any initiative with respect to employee learning and development [M8].

A number of external expatriates and foreign consultancy companies were hired to import the best cutting-edge knowledge, practices and even technology related to the QMS [M16].

Despite these advantages, interviewees in both departments identified some training-related issues, such the distances between regional sections and the ADP General Headquarters:

Employees in the outlying sections and branches found it difficult to attend courses in the General Headquarters. In some cases employees had a journey of more than an hour and a half from Al-Garbiah to Abu Dhabi [M3].

I would say that the amount of training was not equal for all employees, especially to those working outside the city of Abu Dhabi [M13].

These comments indicate that both departments provided sufficient training for employees, on the basis of significant support and the open budget of the ADP General Headquarters. However, there were issues regarding the amount of training and travel time for employees in the regional sections and branches of both departments.

6.4.6 Diffusion practices

The literature review established that spreading the change message and encouraging discussion of its benefits can enhance the institutionalization of change interventions (Weick & Quinn, 1999; Ford & Ford, 2008). Interviewees from both departments were consistent in their responses, since both groups relied on orders and official letters attached to notice boards, as indicated in the following extracts:

The notice board is still in use. I believe it is an effective means of diffusion. There is no excuse for anyone to claim ignorance of the most recent news, because the board is on the wall by the front door and all employees are required to look at it every day as they come in [M1].

Last year, a text message service was activated to communicate with our staff and update them with the latest orders and instructions, but they asked management to go back to the notice board... Employees on the night shift preferred this way of circulating messages [M15].

Another diffusion strategy was the periodical publications of the ADP General Headquarters:

It is essential not only to keep our staff aware of what is going on in our department, but also to update other departments and stakeholders. Therefore, we subscribe to a monthly newsletter that is issued by the ADP General Headquarters, as well as a quarterly magazine called 'The Quality'. These cover the latest news about the achievements and interventions of the various departments [M5].

Thus, it was manifest that both departments were dependent on printed copy for the two main means of diffusion: official letters attached manually to notice boards at the micro-level and periodical publications distributed to departments at the macro level. However, the use by department Y of technology for communication and diffusion (section 6.4.3) should not be forgotten.

6.4.7 Rites and ceremonies

Rites and ceremonies offer appropriate opportunities for personnel to celebrate their achievements and exchange experiences of change (Armenakis & Harris, 2009). Such events may not only stimulate them to talk about the times before and during the change, but also remind them that the department is turning over a new leaf and that a new

beginning is required; the change becomes part of their job and they need to adapt to it (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999).

Interviewees from both departments commented on this theme in more or less the same manner. Both departments had officially announced their receipt of the ISO certificates in the news media, while the directors of both departments were symbolically rewarded in public for their departments' achievements:

After we had accomplished our mission and upon receiving the ISO certificate, a letter of thanks was officially distributed to all personnel in recognition of their efforts, while our director was rewarded for receiving the ISO certificate [M17].

We were proud to make our achievement public.... our department was featured in all newspapers so as to send the message to all customers that we were working for them to improve our services [M8].

Thus both departments announced their achievements in the news and gave recognition to their personnel, but there was no official ceremony or event at which they could celebrate the change.

6.4.8 Formalization activities

The chance of institutionalizing a QMS increases when it is concomitant and aligned with other formal activities or organizational processes (Breja *et al.*, 2011). Consistent views were recorded on this theme, all interviewees agreeing on the importance of integration and supportive activities to enhance institutionalization:

When other activities are associated with the implementation of the QMS, or when the organizational system wholeheartedly supports the QMS, employees will have no choice but to adopt it [M6].

I believe that it is very important to integrate the QMS with other practices such as the reward system and performance appraisal [M12].

Having said this, the practice appeared to be different, particularly in department X, whose managers clearly stated that the practices required by the QMS were remote from the department's core business:

The QMS was introduced and implemented in a way that suggested that it was a new and separate system with no connection with others. This is why some of our employees still consider it an extra burden of work laid on them [M15].

The challenge in my view is how to convince our personnel that the QMS is not new or more tasks, but it is ultimately about what they had already been doing but in a systematic way [M11].

I must admit that there was a lack of supervision and assessment from the management side regarding the implementation of the QMS. Employees knew that only the Quality Team would eventually observe their performance during the inspection, which may have created a belief among our staff that their performance related to the QMS was only required once a year, especially in the absence of alignment [M12].

For their part, managers of department Y were more positive about the formalization of the QMS, stating that when investigators opened files for criminal cases, the QMS was required at every step, to the extent that any quality error could require the whole process to be restarted:

Each person in this department knows by now that he or she has to follow the procedures specified by the QMS, otherwise the whole process might have to be started again, which would require someone to be held responsible [M1].

Employees must apply the QMS to all aspects of their daily functions and activities [M4].

Thus, there was a noticeable difference between the departments in aligning the QMS with other formal activities, with department X interviewees seeing implementation as being autonomous, whereas department Y interviewees saw it as integrated with existing practices such as opening files on criminals.

6.4.9 Network management

The earlier discussion of the process of institutionalization revealed that such processes are highly dependent on human interactions in organizations, so communicating the change message is essential to generate a consensus on meanings embedded in a social system (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). At first, interviewees from both departments were confused about how network management could contribute to institutionalizing the QMS, but the

researcher explained the relevance and usefulness of guiding these interactions and providing opportunities to negotiate the change message amongst employees. Interviewees in both groups then admitted that they had never thought about it and that network management was a new practice to them:

To be honest, the management has put great effort into empowering and involving its employees, but beside this, we have not interfered in what I can call employee relations or what they are talking about [M13].

I believe that most conversations amongst our personnel are about their personal lives and other external topics; we have no control over this or any idea of how to change these topics [M7].

However, some interviewees welcomed the idea of network management and considered it a new strategy that might be worth considering or even implementing:

I can see now the benefits of sending our employees, like yourself, outside the country to carry on their postgraduate studies; they can bring new ideas and management practices that could be advantageous to the ADP, such as network management [M6].

As with diffusion strategies, interviewees in both departments declared that network management was not implemented there; nonetheless, they showed interest and willingness to adopt such a strategy.

This section has analysed interviewees' opinions on the nine themes of the present research, in relation to the strategies applied in their departments to institutionalize the QMS. The analysis indicates that not all of the above strategies were followed by the ADP, despite the efforts made by both departments, which should not be underestimated. The above statements provide strong evidence of the interviewees' awareness of the usefulness and limitations of the strategies applied, along with issues surrounding them. As to the extent of similarities and differences between the departments, although their management practices were broadly alike, department Y can be seen as positively distinctive in having implemented certain strategies such as managing information and aligning the QMS with formal activities.

6.5 CRITICAL FACTORS AFFECTING INSTITUTIONALIZATION

This section presents qualitative data related to the fourth research question: *What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?* The four subsections discuss each factor separately for clarity and to avoid overlap. The discussions are based on the interviewees' perceptions and understandings of the current situation and practice in their own department.

6.5.1 Management characteristics

While the previous section shed light on strategies for institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP and thus covered some aspects of management characteristics (e.g. supervision, communication and leadership styles), the present subsection investigates in more detail and analyses comparatively the role and characteristics of management in the two departments under study. When asked what they considered to be their role and characteristics in institutionalizing the QMS, interviewees from both departments replied that managers had a substantial impact on the successful institutionalization of the QMS:

Managers play an effective role in maintaining the success and continuity of the QMS. By this I mean that managers must be skilful in doing their job as well as knowledgeable enough to supervise their subordinates and give them feedback [M4].

Not only the QMS, but all change initiatives require management to be effective and committed to the change, which I believe is the key to successful organizational change [M8].

Unfortunately, not all managers have the same knowledge or skills with regard to the QMS, nor have they the same level of commitment, particularly those at the middle level. It tends to depend on their personal preferences and agendas [M11].

For management to be effective, I should say that it is totally dependent on senior managers and the head of department, and how they use their power and political skills to implement change [M16].

The above quotations reveal that skills and knowledge relevant to the change as well as the commitment of management were not enough to institutionalize the QMS; interviewees believed that managers in both departments should also be able to use politics. One interviewee said this:

Like any organization in any part of the world, successful organizational change is highly conditional on some managers who hold positions of power and have good relationships with the Director General of the ADP. Without those managers, change could not be achieved in any department [M15].

In this regard, department Y interviewees made several references to the great efforts and positive role of the power and political influence wielded by their head of department:

We cannot neglect the part played by our Director, who had powerful relations with the ADP General Headquarters, which enabled us to gain all the support we needed, especially in financial matters [M2].

In the Arab context, sometimes you don't have to persuade your personnel to obtain their buy-in, but if managers have good relationships with their employees, the latter will do whatever you want; this seems to be the case with our Director [M9].

Some department X interviewees expressed a more pessimistic view of power and politics, stating that it affected their management practices negatively. It was noteworthy that only department X managers referred specifically to *wasta*, while those from department Y used the more neutral term 'relationship' in describing the phenomenon, as recorded in the following statements:

Each manager felt that he should play politics in his own way, which created inconsistency in practices between managers within the same department. In the current situation, there is no common way to do things, even between sections and branches, due to the managers' lack of a systematic way to achieve change [M14].

*It is acceptable and even preferable if managers use their good relationships with employees to get the best out of them and influence their attitudes positively, as long as these relationships don't lead to inequity, but regrettably, the practice of *wasta* happens every day as managers prefer their relatives or friends to take advantage of the change, even if they don't deserve such preference [M17].*

Other interviewees in both departments claimed that having a good relationship with management would make a person more trustworthy and loyal; these characteristics seemed to be highly valuable in the eyes of senior managers:

Perhaps most managers would agree with me if I said that managers don't only favour their relatives or friends for the sake of their relations, but the fact is, such relationships would make managers trust their subordinates and guarantee their loyalty, and vice versa [M13].

Trust and loyalty are very important factors for successful implementation and institutionalization of the QMS. Employees may adopt and maintain the change if it is delivered by managers whom the staff trust and to whom they are loyal [M8].

Those who enjoyed good relationships with management were privileged above others in that they got involved in the change process, they always had the information about the change, and were the first people who benefited from it... Their ideas were perceived as more credible and their efforts were more valued by the management [M5].

In such a context, where power and politics are highly prevalent and influential, it could be anticipated that there was a lack of persistency and consistency in practices with regard to the QMS, since each manager played his own political role according to his personal agenda. This view was supported by interviewees from both departments:

Generally speaking, the leadership style that dominates the ADP is management by reaction. Sadly, managers in my department are lacking in clear vision and plans for how to do things or to make decisions systematically. They spend most of the time dealing with emergent problems, not in planning, but I should admit that it works for them [M14].

Every time a new manager arrives or one is replaced, it means that a new wave of change is coming, as everything will soon change with regard to daily work and activities. Employees often complain about the lack of consistency between managers in practice, which increases their level of uncertainty [M5].

The above discussion reveals that managers in both departments played a critical role in institutionalizing the QMS. Having said that, interviewees in both departments emphasised that managers must have sufficient knowledge and skills to undertake their roles. They also highlighted the significance of management commitment to maintaining the change, claiming that they were committed to it and supportive of it. Despite these acknowledgements, there was strong evidence that power and politics were influential in both departments and that this created inconsistency in practices and caused employees to

feel uncertain about the change process, which requires the development of a proactive and systematic approach, rather than reactive remediation. Department Y interviewees were more positive than those from department X in their views of such practices. It can be concluded that management by relationships is neither good nor bad; its value depends on how managers use it and what for, but most importantly who benefits from it. Answers to these questions appeared to be the main differences between the two departments.

6.5.2 Employee characteristics

The main objective of this subsection is to explore interviewees' perceptions of their employees' attitudes to the QMS. They were asked about the extent to which the staff were capable of applying the QMS and the challenges they might face in doing so. Both groups showed confidence in responding to this question, agreeing that employees were qualified and competent to sustain the QMS on the basis of sufficient training being provided:

We had no doubt about our employees' abilities. The amount of training they received was enough to enable them to apply the change [M11].

Nevertheless, some interviewees from both departments indicated that not all staff had the same level of commitment, explaining that some were either not convinced of the advantages and the positive outcomes of the QMS, or were distracted by the workload and numerous change initiatives:

Some employees just didn't get it yet, especially those who work outside offices or on night shifts... They fail to see, or we fail to make them see, the benefits of the QMS... Some staff viewed the QMS as an additional change initiative that brought extra paperwork [M15].

In the last few years, many change initiatives have been introduced by the ADP, which might be why some employees perceive the change as temporary or a matter of time before management decides on a new change initiative, to which all attention will be turned [M1].

Other participants linked employees' lack of commitment to the existing reward scheme, suggesting that some employees' expectations might not be met:

I am certain that some employees are dissatisfied with the current reward scheme... They know that even if they work harder than others, eventually they will all get the same... They always compare themselves

with those in the Quality Team or others who took advantage of change and thus their reward expectations may not be fulfilled [M2].

Unless employees perceive change as carrying a high potential for their own success and growth, or accompanied with benefits and rewards, they will hardly be enthusiastic to apply it. In the current situation, it is difficult to reward everybody, but we've tried to motivate our staff by recognizing their good performance and appreciating it [M16].

Beside these comments, considerable numbers of interviewees from both departments underlined some cultural issues that had a significant influence on employees' beliefs and behaviours related to change:

Culture plays a critical role in shaping employees' reactions to change. I would say that most of our staff prefer the traditional way to do their jobs because they regard any change initiative as a risk of losing their status and privileges [M3].

Although we modified and inaugurated a new value system, our employees used to have some bad habits that might affect their performance. These values would encourage negative behaviours... It is a challenge for us to employ the right values for our staff, and I believe this cannot be attained overnight, but we should be patient and persistent in order to reach our ultimate aim [M6].

Employees differ in their feelings towards change. Anxiety, threat, stress and fear of taking risks are common negative emotions amongst our employees, which slow down the change [M17].

In my opinion, our staff can be divided into three main groups. The first group are supportive of the change, keen to learn new things and welcome innovation. The second group is exactly the opposite. They resist change because they are afraid of losing out. The third group is neutral, neither convinced of change, nor resisting it. They just go with the flow [M11].

The above statements highlight some aspects of the culture that might impede the QMS, such as the existing norms and routines, values and emotions, all of which raised the point that leaders should pay attention to human factors including the emotional arousal of employees, otherwise resistance to change would be the only anticipated outcome. One interviewee emphasized this point:

Managers need to pay more attention to the employees' emotions, which are vital in influencing individuals' perceptions and attitudes. Unfortunately, managers tend to deal with their subordinates in an autocratic way based on the military system that reflects the top-down approach to communication, as if they were passive recipients who had no active role or choice. They tell employees what to do, supervise and advise them, and assess their performance to apply rewards or punishment, without any intention of understanding their feelings or motives in supporting or resisting change [M7].

This subsection has discussed some characteristics of ADP employees related to change in that context, revealing no noticeable differences between the two departments. It was found that while they were capable of maintaining change, excessive changes might weaken the commitment of some employees. In addition, managers in both departments admitted their failure to visualise the positive outcomes of the QMS and to meet all employees' expectations. Certain cultural issues were also indentified as potentially hindering the institutionalization of the QMS, such as defence of individual interests, avoidance of risk and attachment to existing routines and bad habits. Lastly, one interviewee stressed the necessity for ADP managers to take an employee-centric approach to change, seeing them not just as recipients but as active agents whose emotions and motives have an influence on the institutionalization process.

6.5.3 Change characteristics

This subsection considers the nature of change and how it was applied, as well as the nature of the work of the two departments and the extent to which the QMS fitted this. Three main factors are discussed: the substance of change, its pace and timing, and its component processes. On the first factor, interviewees from both departments opined that adopting the QMS had improved efficiency and effectiveness, as indicated in section 6.3.2. Nonetheless, department X interviewees argued that the QMS concentrated on administrative work and thus did not closely fit the technical and practical nature of their department's work:

The QMS does not meet our needs ... We deal with emergencies and accidents... We aim to reduce the response time to reach the scene... Most of our staff are paramedics and life-savers, trained to give first aid... We have ambulances with medical equipment that needs to be checked regularly, but the QMS does not say much about this [M14].

We have benefited from ISO 9001:2008 in standardizing our administration work, but apart from this, I would say nothing... We need other quality standards or change initiatives that solve practical matters [M12].

Department Y interviewees, by contrast, explained that most of their work relied on files and criminal cases that needed to be opened, closed or transferred to the court:

The QMS has enabled us to review our procedures and standardize them, as well as minimising errors and removed the non-value-adding processes ... Criminal cases are now opened in a consistent manner in all our sections and branches [M8].

Regarding the temporal factor, department X interviewees asserted that the pace of change was relatively rapid and that insufficient time was given for change:

ADP Headquarters gave all departments the same amount of time to obtain the ISO, which I strongly believe was unfair. Department X needed more time because of the nature of its work [M11].

Department Y interviewees had no such concerns:

The time allocated for change was perfectly adequate, especially after we set up a timetable that enabled us to make the most of the time available [M9].

The third factor was related to the processes by which the change was delivered and the implementation methods used. This chapter has already discussed some aspects of this, such as participation and involvement, decision-making, communication styles, and power and politics. It should be stated that the processes for implementing the QMS and obtaining the ISO were similar in the two departments. In general, interviewees from both were impressed by the approach being taken by the ADP leadership in delivering the change:

The ADP has done a great job in delivering the change, since it took the approach of creating an excellence and quality culture through training, workshops and other communication systems... It hired foreign companies and expatriates to import valuable knowledge and skills... It held competitions between departments that encouraged managers ... to adopt change [M10].

The assignment of a Quality Team was a nice touch that helped us to implement the QMS more effectively. It played an essential role in guiding and supervising the change... offering advice on how to identify obstacles to change and overcome them [M16].

Conversely, interviewees from both departments identified some issues that needed to be addressed and offered some recommendations for doing so:

Sometimes we noticed inconsistencies in practices between the members of the Quality Team, which confused our staff. This could be avoided if the Quality Team developed a formal guideline that was distributed to all departments [M2].

The current value system seems to be outdated or inadequate for the new direction that the ADP is taking. Therefore, I suggest we should revise those values and modify them in a way that ensures the sustainability of the QMS [M13].

The existing job descriptions are not completely clear. They need to be well defined to match the new administrative system [M7].

This subsection has shown that the substance of the QMS was valuable for both departments, particularly with regard to the standardization of administrative work. However, some department X interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with ISO 9001:2008 in terms of addressing technical and practical issues. The discussion also revealed that change had occurred more rapidly in department X than department Y, due to the differing nature of their work. Finally, interviewees in both departments gave credit to the approach being taken by the ADP General Headquarters in bringing change, which would have been more effective if standard procedures had been adopted by the Quality Team, if the value system had been modified and if job descriptions had been refined.

6.5.4 Context characteristics

This final subsection investigates issues and attributes related to the Middle Eastern context which influenced employees' perceptions and attitudes to change. This chapter has so far covered a number of cultural difficulties encountered by employees when the QMS was introduced, such as the bureaucratic culture, the military-based dictatorial leadership style, the top-down approach to change, the tentative reception of change due to fear of losing position or privileges, power and politics, *wasta* and the absence of a change

culture. It is clear that these cultural issues concerned most of the interviewees in both departments, as they referred to them directly or indirectly in many of their responses.

Among the above issues, the authoritarian approach of management was the one most often raised by interviewees and seemed to be the cause of other issues, as the following comment indicates:

Perhaps the authoritarian style of managers in the ADP is the root cause of all problems, you know, when managers like to be in control at all times and give orders to their employees who have no choice but to obey, or else they might get punished or blamed. All of this creates an environment in which employees stick with the status quo, fearing any accountability related to their involvement, and not having the courage to participate in the change process [M8].

When managers look for errors, to blame or punish someone who makes a mistake, employees are frightened to take any initiative or hold any responsibility. This is why many managers prefer to centralise decision-making and do not delegate authority, in order to avoid blame [M16].

There was also a general concern among interviewees' regarding the absence of evaluation in the ADP in general and in their departments in particular:

I understand that in Arab culture, measurement means spotting the weaknesses of a person.... therefore, more efforts will be needed to change these aspects of the ADP's culture [M2].

Employees don't look at the positive aspects of evaluation, such as the feedback or the improvements that the assessment could offer. This is why employees deal with the quality inspectors and their internal audits in a very cautious way. In some cases, they defend their jobs even if they are convinced otherwise [M12].

People in my department take things for granted, without real assessment. For example, there have been many times when managers buy a programme or a project that costs a lot of money, but they fail to conduct an in-depth evaluation of it [M4].

To sum up, interviewees in both departments highlighted a number of aspects of Arab culture which they believed should be considered in order to institutionalize the QMS. The first was the authoritarian approach of managers who preferred to centralise decision-making and not to delegate authority, which created a blame culture that prevented

employees from taking initiatives or participating in the change process. It was also felt that both managers and employees had failed to take evaluation seriously, regarding it as a form of criticism or an attempt to find errors and issue punishments.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has analyzed the results of interviews with 17 ADP managers in order to compare departments X and Y, addressing three of the four research questions. The key findings are summarized in Table 6.2. In general, there was little difference between the departments, especially as to the characteristics of the critical factors. However, department Y appears to have implemented some strategies more effectively, such as when integrating the QMS with other activities and administering two surveys to gather QMS-related information.

Table 6.2: Key findings of interviews

Research Questions	Main themes	Key Findings	
		Department X	Department Y
How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel?	Reasons for adoption	The ADP, in response to ADEC's call for excellence, ordered both departments to adopt the QMS. X interviewees felt obliged to keep up with best practices to look proactive. Y interviewees aimed to satisfy senior managers and win competitions.	
	Outcomes of the QMS	Both departments appreciated the benefits of the QMS, as it improved the efficiency and effectiveness of operations, and created consistency by standardizing work procedures.	
	Challenges to institutionalizing the QMS	Some challenges were recorded in both departments: lack of responsibility due to reliance on the Quality Team, lack of participation at lower levels, loss of ownership and thus of commitment, regarding the QMS as an extra workload, focusing on documentation and absence of change culture.	
What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS?	Reward & punishment	This strategy was highly valued and practised in both departments, embedded by the military background and deep Islamic values. Actual reward was exclusive to the Quality Team, while others celebrated the achievements. Punishment was applied individually.	
	Active participation	Interviewees acknowledged the vital role of participation, but also identified obstacles: hierarchical structure, rank and seniority, the nature of the work and illiteracy.	
	Persuasive communication	Many steps had been taken to improve communication: developing systematic communication scheme, regular meetings, open-door policy and continuous improvements to the ADP structure. Department Y also exploited technology. Challenges: bureaucratic culture and work protocol, ADP structure, geographical divisions between units, and lack of informal conversation and persuasive arguments.	
	Management of information	Limited information, obtained only from Quality Team reports, discussed in official department X monthly meetings. No evidence of sharing information with staff.	Beside Quality Team reports, department Y distributed surveys to customers & employees, plus middle managers' observations. All reviewed confidentially.
	HRM practices	Although interviewees recognised the link between change and performance appraisal, the assessment form seemed outdated and ambiguous. Training was satisfactory, but employees in remote locations needed to be considered.	
	Diffusion practices	Managers should pay more attention to diffusion, not rely on orders and official letters attached to notice boards, along with publications that publicised their achievements.	
	Rites & ceremonies	Both departments announced receptiveness of the ISO in the news and gave recognition to their employees, but there was no ceremony or event for staff to celebrate the change.	
	Formalising activities	Lack of integration in department X , as QMS was detached from other practices.	Integration made, as department Y required the QMS in all activities and functions.
	Network management	This strategy was not considered in the implementation of the QMS, but interviewees showed interest and willingness to adopt it.	
What are the roles and characteristics of critical factors in institutionalization?	Management characteristics	Interviewees realised the significance of their roles and prerequisites (e.g. knowledge, skills & commitment), underpinned by the common practice of power & politics. While X interviewees viewed such practices as creating inconsistency & injustice, Y interviewees saw it as a means to achieve the goal (e.g. negotiate resources; instigate loyalty & trust to persuade staff).	
	Employee characteristics	Employees were able to effect the change, but there were some obstacles: lack of commitment due to lack of conviction, continuous change adding to workload, unlinked reward schemes & cultural-based emotions (e.g. risk of losing advantage, stress, anxiety).	
	Change characteristics	Substance of the QMS was well recognised in both departments, but department X , due to the nature of its work, found change relatively rapid and that ISO 9001:2008 didn't fully fit. Both departments gave credit to the ADP for delivering change, but identified some areas for improvement (e.g. need to update value system & refine job descriptions).	
	Context characteristics	Organizational culture in both departments can be described as a blame culture, since managers were authoritarian, looking for mistakes to blame employees. Evaluation was neglected and regarded as criticism.	

Source: Authors' fieldwork (2012-2013)

The final chapter discusses the findings of both quantitative and qualitative analyses in order to draw a richer picture of the phenomenon under investigation and to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the thesis by recapitulating and summarising the research aim and objectives, the research questions, the literature review and the methodology. It then summarises the qualitative and quantitative outcomes and offers a discussion of the key findings, before considering its implications on the research objectives. The final sections address the theoretical and practical contributions of the research, its implications and limitations, then offer suggestions for future research and some personal reflections.

7.2 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

This study was motivated by three basic factors, the first being the relative paucity of attention being paid to change institutionalization in the literature (Jacobs, 2002; Buchanan *et al.*, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2009). The second macro-level rationale was the high failure rates of change initiatives (McKinsey & Company, 2008; Lyons *et al.*, 2009; Werkman, 2009; Jaros, 2010), which is significant even long after successful change; achieving a high degree of institutionalization is difficult because employees often fall back into the comfort of their old habits as soon as the pressure for change has been removed (Lewin, 1951; Goodman & Dean, 1982; Senge *et al.*, 1999; Jacobs, 2002; Wilson & Kurz, 2008; Anderson, 2012). The third motive was related to the micro-level lack of Middle Eastern change management literature (Khassawneh, 2005; Aycan *et al.*, 2007; Rees & Althakhri, 2008).

This study has therefore attempted to respond to the call for more research in change management in this context, addressing a gap in the literature on institutionalization. Its main aim was to explore how best to institutionalize organizational change in the Middle Eastern context. Figure 7.1 illustrates the research objectives, research gaps and research questions (RQs).

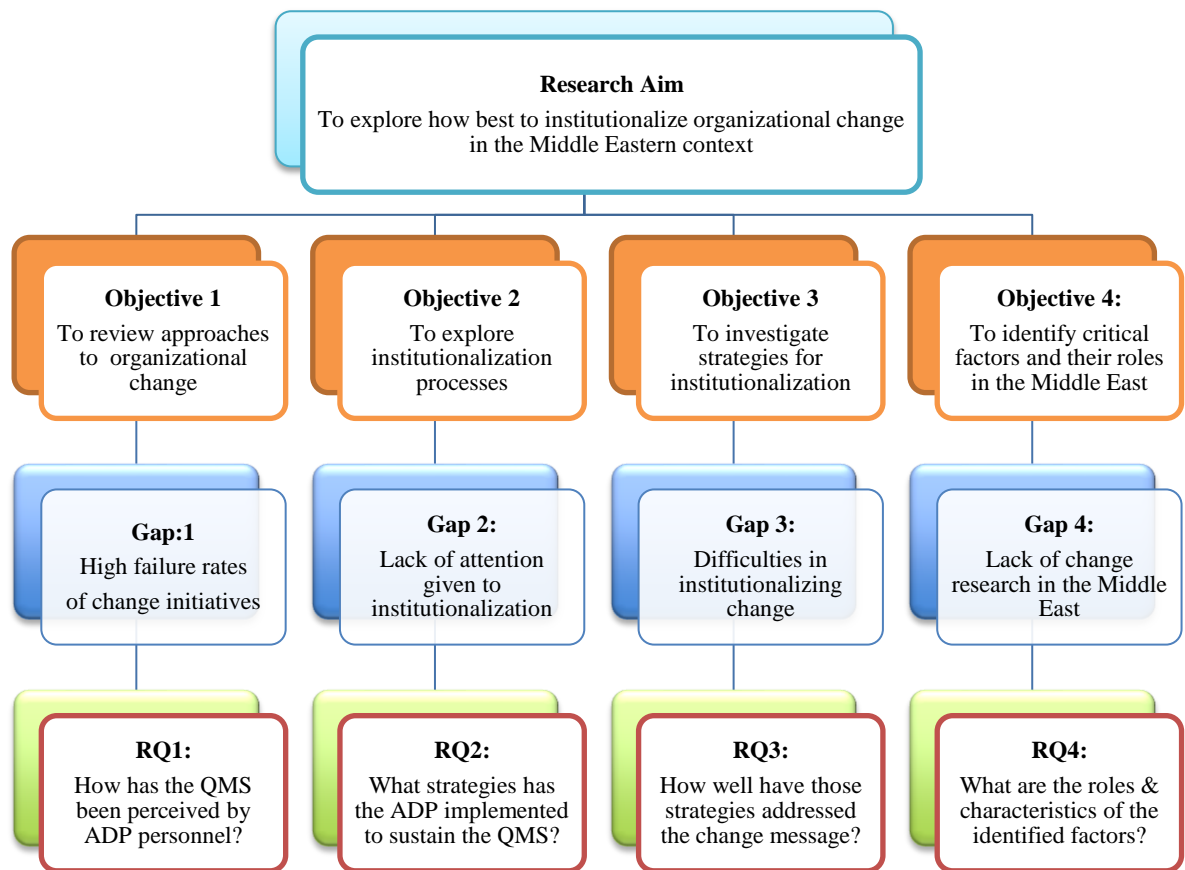


Figure 7.1: Overview of the research objectives, gaps and questions

The following section demonstrates how the literature review in chapters 2 and 3 attempted to achieve its objectives, address its gaps, identify themes and develop a theoretical framework to answer the research questions, incorporating three basic conceptual elements: 1) institutionalization processes; 2) critical factors influencing institutionalization processes; and 3) strategies for institutionalizing change (Figure 3.3).

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The theoretical part of this study was reviewed in two chapters: chapter 2 discussed the theoretical foundations of organizations and organizational change, its approaches and the context of the Middle East. Chapter 3 then offered a detailed analysis of the literature specifically concerned with the institutionalization of change; it discussed the concept of institutionalization and the issues related to its validity, exploring the institutionalization

process, the factors influencing it and strategies for institutionalizing change initiatives. Tables 7.1 and 7.2 summarise the key contents of chapters 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 7.1: Summary of Chapter 2

Main Themes	Main Arguments	Main Theorists	Concluding Remarks
Open systems vs. socially constructed organizations	Organizations are open: externally with the environment & internally through the interconnectedness of their units (rational, purposeful, adaptive & non-political). A socially constructed organization is a concept developed constantly out of our own actions & language (interactions among staff).	Katz & Kahn (1966); Burke (2011a); Weick (1995)	OD practitioners are advised to keep both models in mind if they are to make better interpretations of the change process and intervene more effectively.
Planned vs. emergent approach to change	Planned change conceives change as a set of linear process, controlled by managers (top-down), whereas emergent change assumes that all organizations operate in dynamic environments to which they have to adapt (i.e. change is complex).	Lewin's 3-step model; Cummings & Worley (2009); Kickert (2010)	The chapter concluded by highlighting the significant role of context in determining which approach to implement in a given situation.
Western vs. Middle Eastern contexts	Convergence theory argues for the adoption of best practices, to traverse national culture & standardize HR practices & policies, promoting flexibility & innovation. Divergence theory, by contrast, views management practices as culturally bounded & contextually sensitive, so that they cannot be applied universally.	Miroshnik (2002); Hofstede (2005); Rees & Althakhri (2008)	The chapter highlighted issues related to the Middle Eastern context and to apparent contrasts with Western culture, making it rational to support the divergent view of change management. Change cannot be studied without considering the unique features of a context, including its historical, economic, social & political characteristics.

Source: The author

Table 7.2: Summary of Chapter 3

Main Themes	Main Arguments	Main Theorists	Concluding Remarks
The concept of institutionalization	The concept has its roots in a number of disciplines, but change management literature defines it as a relative endurance of change efforts, or a stage at which change becomes embedded in the organizational system & its corporate culture, until people no longer see it as new but as the norm.	Goodman & Dean (1982); Schein (1987); Kotter (1995)	The chapter exposed the social perspective of the concept, highlighting how social constructions become transmitted across generations via collective awareness and reinforcement, leading to normative consensus and shared values.
Is institutionalization a valid concept?	Although stability fosters efficiency & profitability, it can also bring about rigidity & resistance; it may also block further potential developments. Hence, organizations should balance concurrently the forces of change & continuity, to achieve success.	Buchanan (2005); Fleck (2007); Nasim & Sushil (2011)	The chapter accepted the claim that the institutionalization of change should continue for a specified period of time appropriate to the given context.
Institutionalization processes	Institutionalization has multiple levels that are dependent on the levels of interaction among individuals in a social network. Until meanings, perceptions & interpretations of change are widely shared and deeply embedded in a social system, the change is subject to decay.	Berger & Luckmann (1966); Tolbert & Zucker (1994)	The chapter attempted to fill the gap in the literature as to how change becomes institutionalized, by drawing insights from institutional theory, as it adopts a process-based approach to—and focuses on varying levels of—institutionalization.
Factors influencing institutionalization	Most researchers have identified factors influencing the implementation process, without paying attention to the subsequent institutionalization. Hence, a model of factors affecting sustainability was reviewed, which encompassed seven perspectives.	Buchanan <i>et al.</i> (2005; 2007)	The chapter concluded with four categories of factors: employee, context, change, & management characteristics. The success or failure of institutionalization depends on the presence or absence of such factors and its conditions.
Strategies for institutionalization	A number of strategies were identified, all enabling managers to shape and reinforce the change message, which is vital in influencing individuals' perceptions and attitudes. The extent to which employees make sense of the five components of the change message determines the nature of their ultimate commitment to the change.	Armenakis <i>et al.</i> (1999); Weick & Quinn (1999); Ford <i>et al.</i> (2008)	The chapter recommended the language-based approach as an additional conversational instrument to enable managers to generate, shift and articulate conversations, bringing into existence a new reality that will then be interpreted, assimilated and shared through social interactions.

Source: The author

Thus, chapter 2 provided a macro-level introduction to change management of relevance to this study, so as to familiarise the reader with the organizational change literature and its various approaches and models, before moving to the subtopic of institutionalization in chapter 3. The literature review chapters also attempted to identify some gaps to be filled by this study; for example, they jointly emphasised the need for an alternative approach, offering different theoretical explanations of institutionalization in order to improve the

success rate of organizational change. Hence, the social construction approach to change was recommended; the review also highlighted issues related to the Middle Eastern context and to apparent contrasts with Western culture. Chapter 3 also responded to the scarcity of attention given to institutionalization and the difficulties in sustaining change by exploring the process of institutionalization and the factors influencing it, in an attempt to enrich understanding and offer a useful roadmap of how to institutionalize change. The review concluded by proposing a framework of three basic conceptual elements that should be considered as a whole during any attempt to institutionalize change: institutionalization processes, strategies for institutionalization and critical factors influencing it.

7.4 SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY

This research adopted the pragmatist paradigm because it has the advantages of both positivism and constructivism, as well advocating the use of mixed methods, providing the researcher with more flexibility in addressing the research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The case study methodology was chosen to collect primary data from two departments of the ADP because of its suitability to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence (Stake, 1995; Robson, 2002; Yin, 2003; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Runeson & Höst, 2009).

The use of triangulation was justified as establishing a firm foundation of knowledge and allowing the researcher to develop more complex and potentially novel explanations of a phenomenon, while mitigating the limitations of each method (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Cameron & Price, 2009; Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Two methods were used: semi-structured interviews with 17 managers and a questionnaire survey completed by 312 participants. The interview data was analysed using Creswell's (2003) model, while the questionnaire responses were analysed via SPSS, deploying a number of tests such as correlations and the independent samples *t*-test. Finally, the two sets of results were integrated to yield a better understanding of the phenomenon and provide a comprehensive picture, as reported next.

7.5 DISCUSSION

This section discusses findings reported in chapters 5 and 6, in order to answer the research questions. It begins by providing a summary of key findings (Table 7.3), then answers each research question by integrating the qualitative and quantitative findings.

Table 7.3: Summary of key findings

Research Questions	Questionnaire findings	Interview findings
How has the QMS been perceived by ADP personnel?	In general, ADP employees had positive feelings and attitudes regarding the QMS (M=4.03, StD=.548), but were also neutral regarding increased workloads (S3).	Overall, managers appreciated the benefits of QMS, but reasons for adoption differed: some were concerned about being left behind, while others aimed to satisfy their managers and win competitions. Some challenges were identified: lack of participation at lower levels, loss of ownership, thus weak commitment, regarding QMS as extra work, focusing on documentation, absence of change culture.
What strategies has the ADP implemented to sustain the QMS?	Interviewees were inconsistent, suggesting a lack of clear plan or strategy for institutionalization, but the ADP was found to have implemented some of the strategies identified in the literature: (1) reward and punishment for supporters and resisters (2) attempts to amplify the scope of participation, (3) attempts to improve communication, (4) providing sufficient training. Managers should pay more attention to: (a) managing information and sharing it with staff, (b) guiding coalitions and considering technology in diffusion practices, (c) revising the assessment form, (d) integrating QMS with other activities.	
How do those strategies address the change message?	ADP strategies seemed to have worked well in this regard, since employees generally displayed strong agreement on change message dimensions, but were more consistent in the following three elements: change discrepancy, change efficacy and principal support (M>4.00). However, there was less agreement on rating change appropriateness (M=3.7874) and self-valence (M=3.3440); divergent views were recorded with respect to reward expectations (S17).	
What are the roles and characteristics of management, employee, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?	Respondents had overall positive views of their management (M=3.7186), but some managerial traits (e.g. helpful) were acknowledged more than others (e.g. participative & plan oriented). Employee characteristics had the lowest mean values (M=3.1672); there were moderate views about introducing change (i.e. fear and preference for status quo) and neutral ones on reward expectations & empowerment. Change achievements were visible for the majority of respondents (S35: M=3.65). Overall, staff recognised obstacles still hindering the QMS, despite clear timetables (S37: M=3.78) & sufficient resources (S38: M=3.85). Divergent opinions were recorded on the means of measuring success. The context and its culture were deemed influential. Respondents were inconsistent on <i>wasta</i> , teamwork & structural drawbacks, while generally agreeing that decisions were centralised, mistakes seen as opportunities to learn & past events encouraging (i.e. had positive impacts).	Management generally perceived to have substantial impact, but some managers less qualified & lacked commitment. Playing politics deemed an important quality to achieve goals and instigate trust and loyalty, but some perceived it as causing inconsistency & injustice. Employees were seen as competent, but some lacked conviction, were unhappy with the reward scheme and considered change as extra work, besides cultural-based emotions (e.g. fear, threat, stress & anxiety). The substance of change was well recognised in the ADP, but, due to the nature of work of some departments, the pace of change was seen as relatively rapid and ISO 9001:2008 did not fully fit. ADP was credited for delivering change, but needed to update its current value system & refine job descriptions. Context was seen as influential in shaping perceptions & attitudes. Some aspects of culture were inhibitive (bureaucratic, military-based dictatorial leadership style and blame culture). Evaluation neglected and regarded as criticism.

Source: The author.



Quantitative findings



Qualitative findings

7.5.1 RQ1: *How has the QMS been perceived by ADP personnel?*

Perceptions of the QMS among ADP personnel were generally positive, according to the quantitative analysis: over 90% of respondents agreed on the clarity of the aim and objectives (S1: M=4.45, StD=.679) and that management was right to adopt the QMS (S2: M=4.31, StD=.687), while almost as many agreed that the QMS had improved operational efficiency in their departments (S6: M=4.34), the overall mean value of this factor being among the top four (M=4.03). The interviews supported this statistical analysis, as all interviewees emphasised the positive outcomes of the QMS for their departments, such as increasing efficiency and effectiveness, improving customer service and satisfaction, and enhancing the image of the ADP for society and stakeholders (M4). Such benefits were expected from the literature (Zaramdini, 2007; Jakka, 2004; Salem & Jarrar, 2009; Nazemi, 2010).

Notwithstanding the interviewees' agreed acknowledgement of the fruitfulness of the QMS, there was some inconsistency as to the reasons for adopting and institutionalizing the change, and they identified some factors that might hinder institutionalization.

7.5.1.1 Reasons for adopting the QMS

Recent developments and rapid growth in the UAE led the government to institute a number of macro-level quality initiatives for both private and public sector organizations in order to continually improve quality and customer service, as well as increasing the efficiency, effectiveness and overall competitiveness of the country (Zaramdini, 2007; Nazemi, 2010). These initiatives included the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award in 2001, the Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence in Government Performance in 2008, the Emirates Government Excellence Award in 2009 and the Emirates Excellence Council in 2013 (Thawani, 2014). Thus, the UAE Prime Minister stated, "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" (Al-Maktoum, 2010).

It can be deduced that the UAE government was the key driver of change in both public and private sectors; in other words, the quality movement in the UAE was a response by the government to the various demands and expectations of society and stakeholders, not only to achieve quality excellence, but to maintain it. This view is supported by authors

such as Jakka (2004), Salem and Jarrar (2009) and Thawani (2014). The same seems to apply to the ADP, since the interviewees made several references to how the ADEC had made participation in its excellence programmes obligatory for all government agencies. Likewise, they explained how top decision makers in the ADP had mandated their departments to apply for ISO 9001:2000 (AlNuaimi, 2010). This appears to be why the interviewees perceived the QMS to have been imposed on them.

Having recognised this government pressure to adopt change at the macro level, it is apparent from the qualitative analysis that interviewees, at the micro-departmental level, had different views and understandings of the reasons for adopting and institutionalizing the QMS, according to the specific situation of each department. Interviewees could be divided into two groups: the first was more concerned about being fashionably proactive and worried about being left behind, whereas the second group was more interested in winning competitions and gaining certificates for the sake of satisfying their senior managers. It is interesting that neither group referred directly or explicitly to the benefits of the QMS as an objective or a motive to adopt the change, which suggests that employees enacted the change not for its own sake, but for the above-mentioned reasons, indicating a lack of commitment to the QMS. This finding is in line with observation in the literature review (section 3.2.1) that organizations often fail to institutionalize change if it was adopted for show, or to give the impression of a proactive management (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, the literature warns that people often return to their old habits if they no longer see the need for change, or if the pressure for change has been removed (Anderson, 2012).

7.5.1.2 Challenges to QMS institutionalization

The interviews explored a number of obstacles that were believed to obstruct the institutionalization of the QMS. These could be regarded as existing in the minds of employees, since some seemed to have misunderstandings and wrong assumptions about the QMS. The first misleading idea, that the QMS was the responsibility of the Quality Team only, seemed to weaken ownership and thus commitment. However, interviewees suggested that if front-line employees had been able to participate in the planning process, they would have been more engaged and considered themselves active participants rather than passive recipients. The literature asserts that involving employees in change accords them a sense of ownership which increases their commitment to it (Lines, 2004).

The second wrong assumption among employees was that the QMS represented extra work. The questionnaire results show that half of respondents felt that the QMS increased their workload (S3: M=3.34, StD=1.312). Interviewees attributed this belief to management's over-emphasis on documentation, which employees mistakenly assumed to be the objective of the QMS rather than a means to regularly review work procedures and achieve standardization.

A third related issue was the absence of a quality culture; interview responses indicated that the culture of quality had not been fully shared by all employees, while some interviewees emphasised the need to promote a change culture at the societal level, in order spread the culture of quality and change. The Ministry of the Interior anticipated that resistance to change was inevitable in the ADP and realised that developing a culture of change would be the only way to ensure sustainability. Hence, an excellence branch was founded within each ADP directorate, to stimulate and monitor the development of organizational culture, while workshops and training courses were held, not only to provide education but to establish such a culture and conviction amongst the staff (AlNuaimi, 2010). Furthermore, the ADP developed a policy to address resistance to change that includes "working to ensure all staff are convinced of the need to change, creating a strategic team to lead the change process and follow its implementation, setting precise and substantive goals, maintaining job security, and applying change in a gradual manner" (ibid: 71).

7.5.2 RQ2: *What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative?*

The second research question was answered qualitatively by asking the interviewees about the strategies they had deployed to institutionalize the QMS. The first relevant observation was of the lack of a clear methodology or deliberate plan for answering the question of how to institutionalize the QMS or even what had been done to institutionalize it; this was evident from the fact that interviewees' responses were heterogeneous and inconsistent. Rees and Althakhri (2008) and Abdulla *et al.* (2011) found poor planning to be a strong source of potential employee resistance to change; they argue that a detailed plan might be suitable and even preferable in the Arab context, i.e. one dominated by high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, n.d.), so as to avoid ambiguous situations.

However, planning itself may not have been the problem in this situation; an alternative explanation is that senior ADP managers tended to focus on the implementation process, rather than on institutionalization, since most of their answers were related to the phase of moving and directing the change, such as articulating a clear vision for change, providing resources and training, and motivating staff, which they believed would sustain the QMS. This finding corroborates the assertion in the literature review (section 3.2.1) that managers often mistakenly assume that proper planning and the initial success of change will guarantee institutionalization (Armenakis and *et al.*, 1999), while Buchanan *et al.* (2005) attribute difficulty in institutionalizing change to the failure of managers to see the change through to this stage, their negligence arising from the common perception of institutionalization as adding little value for managers.

Another possible explanation of managers' unconcern for institutionalization is that they may have been too busy with other change initiatives which they deemed more important. The qualitative analysis uncovered interviewees' dissatisfaction with the abrupt and continuous adoption of change without planning or proper assessment. The literature review (section 3.2.2) warns that rapid and continuous change could lead to chaos and overlapping; accelerating the pace of change could turn the organization upside down, whereas people need routines to be productive, since the status quo provides meaning and security to organizational members and eliminates uncertainty (By, 2005; Burchell & Kolb, 2006; Nasim & Sushil, 2011).

7.5.2.1 Reward and punishment

Nonetheless, the ADP was found to have deployed some of the strategies identified in the literature review, the first being the use of reward and punishment. Relating this to institutionalization, the earlier discussion of reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1969) showed that individuals' behaviours tend to be repeated over time if associated with positive stimuli, i.e. rewards. The use of reward and punishment was also found to be strongly associated with the nature of police work and the military structure of the ADP, as well as with Islam. This provides evidence of the influence of Islam and culture in shaping individuals' attitudes and their management practices, effects which are well established in the literature (Tayeb, 1997; Darwish, 2001; Mellahi, 2003; Hofstede, 2005; Rees & Althakhri, 2008; Ali, 2010; Abdulla *et al.*, 2011).

Reward and punishment were commonly used to put pressure on employees to achieve compliance and ensure the persistence of change. Such practices were perceived to be useful and effective; AlNuaimi (2010) acknowledges the positive impact of the new reward and punishment system in encouraging staff to maintain values and behaviours in general and increasing the efficiency of their participation, while reducing the number resisting change. This implies that the approach taken by the ADP was similar to the power-coercive strategy, where managers hold power, exercise authority and command, using reward and punishment (Chin & Benne, 1985). Choi and Ruona (2011) argue that normative-re-educative strategies could be a more powerful and effective alternative, by engaging employees in change, giving them the opportunity to communicate with change agents in a way that promotes learning and eliminates uncertainty, as well as helping the latter to observe, examine and reshape employees' present attitudes and values.

Despite these very positive statements in relation to reward schemes, several references were made suggesting that rewards were not cascaded down to junior employees; some interviewees complained that actual and immediate rewards were exclusively applied to the Quality Team and some other senior managers, excluding those producing excellent work and performance in regional locations or at operational level. The literature warns that lack of an effective reward system may have an adverse impact and become a serious hindrance to the acceptance of change (Lawler, 1981; Allen & Kilmann, 2001), while individuals who perceive the system as fair are likely to have positive emotions regarding the change (Murphy & Tyler, 2008). It therefore seems sensible to suggest that the ADP should develop a tiered system whereby appropriate levels of reward and recognition are applied to employees of different ranks and positions.

7.5.2.2 Participation

The second strategy found to have been applied by the ADP was to attempt to widen the scope of participation, evinced by many initiatives such as conducting workshops, providing training courses, distributing brochures and developing channels for complaints, suggestions and feedback, all of which were hoped to increase employees' awareness of the change and encourage them to take part in it. Studies show that participation has a negative relationship with resistance to change, correlating positively with goal achievement and organizational commitment (Lines, 2004). Further, the literature indicates that involving staff in change will enhance relationships between employees and managers,

promote learning and eliminate uncertainty via communication, giving staff a sense of ownership of the change (ibid; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Jaros, 2010; Choi & Ruona, 2011).

Although interviewees were consistent on the need for participation and its value in institutionalizing the QMS, they admitted that despite their efforts to consult employees and attract their participation, there was still poor involvement of front-line employees due to obstacles related to the organization's culture and military structure. This finding appears to be incongruent with a study by Ali *et al.* (1997), who claim that Arab leaders prefer consultative and participative decision styles, whereas it is consistent with other published research indicating that Arab culture favours a directive and coercive style of decision-making (Sabri, 2007; Yasin & Saba, 2008).

7.5.2.3 Communication

The third strategy found to have been implemented by ADP managers was the enhancement of communication. The qualitative analysis revealed a strong recognition among interviewees of the significant value of effective communication during institutionalization. The literature strikingly underlines the role of communication in avoiding uncertainty, clarifying irrational ideas and determining employees' perceptions of change (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Alas, 2007), as well as its influence on shaping their relationships with leaders (Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006) and empowering employees to contribute to change (Varkey & Antonio, 2010). Similarly, another empirical study by Gilley *et al.* (2009) found that providing effective communication and motivating staff were well correlated with the successful implementation of organizational change.

Thus, interviewees reported a number of initiatives to improve communication channels at the different organizational levels, including the development of a new communication scheme, regular meetings between the executive and middle managers, an open-door policy and ongoing improvements to the ADP's structure. Interviewees valued the current organizational structure and perceived it to be more compatible with the new direction of the ADP and to collaboratively fit its environment. Technologies such as SMS, intranet, E-club and newsletter were also utilized to some extent by some departments. In spite of these endeavours, interviewees identified some remaining obstacles to communication, more or less corresponding to those impeding participation, but the main issues seemed to be the culture, hierarchical structure and work protocols of the ADP. This supports the above analysis that the ADP is characterized by a bureaucratic culture. It was also

observed that communication in the ADP tended to be uniquely from the top down, as even the above-mentioned channels were directed from the top. For example, while the SMS service and E-club were used to pass messages to staff and update them on the latest news or orders, there was very little evidence of them commenting or replying to such messages.

Another observation was that the ADP paid more attention to reinforcing the methods and tools of communication than to the quality or content of the communication itself. Thus, interviewees made several references to managers' poor conversational skills, while they were proud of the new communication schemes and structures, as well as the use of technology; for example, M14 declared that "persuasive communication and the culture of dialogue are still missing in our management". The literature review (section 3.6.1) highlights the significant role of communication and emphasises that leaders should be armed with the weapon of persuasive communication in creating shared meanings, perceptions and interpretations so as to develop a consensus of meaning embedded in a social system, providing substantial support to the institutionalization of change (Ford & Ford, 1995; Ford, 1999; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Weick *et al.*, 2005; Ford *et al.*, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2008; Anderson, 2012).

7.5.2.4 Training

The fourth strategy was related to training. Appropriate continued training appears to have been provided to both managers and employees; interviewees consistently stated that it was imperative to train staff in order to expand their knowledge and develop their skills, thus potentially improving their ability to implement and institutionalize the QMS. This analysis is consistent with the findings of the literature review. Jacobs (2002) argues that cascade training can be an effective strategy for institutionalizing change interventions, because it provides the necessary competence for employees to ensure institutionalization; furthermore, fulfilling employees' training needs is one way to improve their understanding and awareness of the change, their involvement in it, their commitment to it and their motivation to see it succeed (Burnes, 2009; Anderson, 2012).

However, there were some issues with respect to the allocation and diffusion of training, since interviewees admitted that provision was not sufficient for the needs of all, especially those working in regional sections and branches. Other interviewees attributed this to the inequality of distribution; those employed in administration or at ADP headquarters were more likely to be assigned to workshops and training sessions than those in regional

departments. Hence, it is suggested that the ADP should conduct a comprehensive analysis of the training needs of all employees, to ensure universal access to adequate provision.

7.5.2.5 Secondary strategies

The four strategies discussed above appear to be the primary methods and common practices implemented by the ADP to institutionalize change in general and the QMS in particular. In addition, certain other secondary strategies were applied by some departments, but these were not directed specifically at the QMS and were found to need improvements, such as in the case of the management of internal and external information. From the findings, it was obvious that the ADP had limited sources of information regarding the implementation and progress of the QMS, since some interviewees confessed that the monthly reports written by the Quality Team (i.e. an external source) were the only such evidence on which they relied to make decisions. Other methods of gathering information identified by some interviewees included the distribution of surveys to both customers and employees.

The literature asserts that managing information can be a powerful tool for institutionalizing change; qualitative and quantitative data should be available to all at all times, in order to support managers' decisions as well as to show people how the change has helped improve performance and to assist them in identifying the right connections (Kotter, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). However, interviewees stated that they dealt with information in a confidential manner, believing it to concern management at the strategic level only. Conversely, the discussion of institutionalization in chapter 3 (section 3.6) shows it to be highly dependent on the extent to which meanings, perceptions and interpretations are shared amongst employees (Ford & Ford, 2008), whereas any lack of transparency may cause individuals to misinterpret information or understand messages differently, with negative consequences for institutionalization (Harris, 1994; Sonenshein, 2009; Bartunek *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, Bordia *et al.* (2004) warn that employees' lack of information correlates positively with negative emotions such as anxiety, fear and threat.

Another secondary strategy was that of celebrating the achievement, as interviewees indicated that they had used the media to announce publicly their receipt of the ISO certificate and that letters of thanks were sent to all employees in recognition of their efforts. The literature review (section 3.5.2) found that celebrating change was considered to send a clear message that the change process had ended and that the period of trial and

error was over, so that employees should now focus on the new era in order to preserve its life-fulfilling values (Ford & Ford, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Thus, it may be that senior managers in the ADP would have done better to have held a ceremony or event of some kind to serve as an opportunity for managers to summarise the process of change and its outcomes, to express thanks—or even regrets—and to offer acknowledgements and recognition, while employees could exchange their opinions and experiences of the change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Kotter (1995) states that “real transformation takes time, and a renewal effort risks losing momentum if there are no short-term goals to meet or celebrate”, but he also warns that declaring victory too soon will destroy momentum. In this sense, it is rational to assume that the real achievement and victory will follow the successful institutionalization of organizational change, a process that can take five to ten years; until then, it is imperative to create short-term wins and celebrations so as to convince employees of the benefits of change and maintain their commitment.

One more secondary strategy identified was the diffusion of instructions. Two main methods were found to have been employed by the ADP, the first being the use of a notice board for managers to display their orders, as well as the latest news about the department, while the second was the circulation of periodicals such as *The Quality* magazine, published quarterly by the ADP General Headquarters. The literature reviewed in chapter 3 (section 3.5.2) recommends this strategy for spreading the word of change and stimulating talk about its benefits, which will foster institutionalization (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Interviewees perceived the notice board as an effective means of diffusion, since it suited those who worked at night and were less interested in technologies such as the internet or SMS, or who did not know how to use them. This study assumes that the ADP could do better than relying on paper documents being displayed and distributed; there is a need to use other more technological means. Enlightening managers about the critical role of diffusion practices seems a promising avenue.

7.5.2.6 Recommended strategies

It is noteworthy that in addition to the above primary and secondary strategies followed by the ADP, some areas of intervention were identified as requiring further development and improvement in order to institutionalize the QMS successfully, examples being the alignment of the QMS with other organizational activities and processes. The literature asserts that the state of institutionalization is accomplished only when the change becomes

integrated into the organizational system and its culture (Goodman & Dean, 1982; Schein, 1987; Kanter *et al.*, 1992; Kotter, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Jacobs, 2002; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Interviewees broadly agreed that the QMS could not stand alone, but must be integrated into other aspects of the organization. However, some asserted that there was an absence of alignment in certain departments and sections of the ADP; the implementation of the QMS was seen to be separated from other organizational practices, which seemed to result in employees believing that the QMS represented an addition to their workload. An example of this analysis was the lack of alignment of the QMS with annual performance appraisals; interviewees reported that the current assessment criteria were outdated and somewhat ambiguous. More importantly, managers and employees were unsatisfied with it. Therefore, a revision of the present performance appraisal system is recommended to update its criteria, to make it more relevant and to align it with the current status and future direction of the ADP. The literature suggests that including change criteria in the assessment sheet could yield useful feedback to organizational members regarding their performance (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999).

Network management was also identified as an area for improvement in the ADP. Although it was considered a totally new practice which interviewees had not thought of in relation to institutionalization, some welcomed the idea and appeared convinced of its promise. The social construction perspective discussed in section 2.2 sees organizations as constantly constructed and evolving through the interactions of their employees with others; hence, the literature considers network management a powerful strategy, because it enables managers to guide, modify and reframe the existing network of interactions by providing opportunities, allocating resources and selecting actors (Kickert, 2010).

7.5.2.7 Section summary

This subsection has offered a detailed discussion of the study findings relevant to the second research question, concerning the strategies implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS. Three types were identified: primary strategies were those applied consistently and commonly in the ADP, for the purpose of institutionalizing the QMS, including reward and punishment, participation, communication and training provision. Secondary strategies were those implemented only by some departments and not necessarily for the sake of institutionalizing the QMS, including the management and

sharing of information, celebrating the change and diffusing instructions. Recommended strategies were those identified in the literature review, but either not implemented at all or in need of development and improvement, including network management and the alignment of the QMS with other aspects of the ADP's work. To conclude, although ADP managers were recognised to be well informed about the best practices in institutionalizing change and skilful enough to adopt them, they need to focus more on the human side, using persuasive communication instead of electronic means, holding friendly, informal meetings rather than rigid formal ones, sharing and exchanging information rather than writing reports and reviews, celebrating the change internally instead of featuring it in the news externally. Finally, managers could be advised to conduct regular reviews and assessments of their practices in order identify opportunities for improvement.

7.5.3 RQ3: How have those strategies addressed the five components of the change message?

The previous subsection having discussed the strategies deployed in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS, the aim now is to explore quantitatively the extent to which they address the five components of the change message. The literature review (section 3.5.1) found that management practices and strategies convey a change message to organizational members that is fundamental in shaping their attitudes; thus, assessing employees' sentiments regarding each of the five elements of the change message would determine the strength of their commitment to change (Armenakis & Harris, 2009).

According to the quantitative analysis, respondents generally displayed a moderate level of institutionalization, evinced by their overall scores on change message dimensions: the mean values were between 3.34 and 4.07. The following subsections investigate each element in turn.

7.5.3.1 Change discrepancy

The literature identifies two prerequisite conditions for keeping track of change: creating a sense of urgency and recognising the need for change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1993; Kotter, 1995; Holt *et al.*, 2007; Cumming & Worley, 2009; Choi & Ruona, 2011). There was a fairly strong belief among survey participants that the QMS was needed, since the overall mean value for all items in this theme was above 4. However, more than half of respondents believed that the QMS had been imposed on them, while a fifth were neutral

(S4: M=3.43). This analysis was supported by the qualitative findings, with one interviewee (M9) declaring “*I must admit that the QMS was forced on us, but if this had not happened, I would have done anything possible to persuade my department to apply for the ISO qualification*”. This response shows that despite the imposition of the QMS, there was a sense of urgency and necessity among most of the ADP staff. This conclusion is supported by the fact that almost 90% of respondents agreed that the QMS had improved the operational efficiency of their departments (S6: M=4.34, StD=.734).

7.5.3.2 Change appropriateness

The questionnaire results indicate that respondents generally perceived the QMS to be a suitable intervention for their departments, since the overall mean value of this theme was 3.79; over 90% of respondents agreed that the QMS was one of the best ways to accomplish their objectives (S7: M=4.37, StD=.750), while nearly 90% saw it as complementing the priorities of their departments (S9: M=4.28, StD=.672). However, it should be noted that this theme was amongst those on which respondents showed relatively low levels of agreement; this may be explained by the assertion of some interviewees that the QMS was more concerned with administrative work and therefore did not fit the nature of their department’s work, which concerned technical and practical issues.

7.5.3.3 Change efficacy

The ADP seems to have done well in addressing this theme, which relates to the employees’ capabilities and confidence in applying the QMS. This was evident from the fact that change efficacy was the theme on which respondents agreed most strongly, the average mean value being 4.07. In detail, almost 85% of respondents were convinced that establishing long-term commitment to the QMS was achievable (S10: M=4.17, StD=.717), while 86.9% were confident of their skills (S11: M=4.23, StD=.800). This corroborates the qualitative findings discussed earlier and supports managers’ claims that sufficient training was provided for ADP employees. However, less agreement was recorded in rating S12, which implies that not all staff perceived the training provided to be relevant to the skills required by the QMS (M=3.81, StD=.945).

7.5.3.4 Principal support

Principal support refers to the extent to which senior managers’ commitment to the QMS was apparent to all employees. Employees saw their managers as supportive of the QMS, manifested by the overall mean value of 4.05. This finding is consistent with those of

section 7.5.2, which qualitatively demonstrated the strategies that senior managers had adopted and their efforts to apply them, thus erasing any doubt as to their commitment to change. The remaining items under the principal support theme were also supportive of this claim.

7.5.3.5 Self-valence

This dimension reflects the degree to which ADP employees believed that the QMS was beneficial and had positive implications for them. A positive relationship was found between employee self-valence and the successful institutionalization of organizational change, as the literature suggests (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). It is noteworthy that respondents showed the lowest level of agreement on this theme (M=3.34). While they were consistent in agreeing that the QMS made their job easier (S16: M=4.13; StD=.814), they were somewhat inconsistent with respect to their reward expectations, as they tended to be neutral (32.4%), with a relatively low mean value of 3.17 and high standard deviation of 1.197.

7.5.4 RQ4: *What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?*

This section offers a discussion of both qualitative and quantitative findings regarding the critical factors influencing the institutionalization of the QMS, divided into the four categories identified by the literature review: management, employees, change and context.

7.5.4.1 Management characteristics

The qualitative findings indicate a consensus that management was perceived to have played a key role in the successful institutionalization of the QMS. At the outset it should be declared that ADP senior managers showed strong commitment to the QMS and support for it, manifested by their many initiatives and efforts. This analysis was validated statistically by the positive perceptions recorded with respect to the principal support factor (M=4.05). The literature asserts the significance of management commitment to the institutionalization of change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Dale *et al.*, 1999; Reisner, 2002; Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Lyons *et al.*, 2009). Further, Self and Schraeder (2009) note that employees often wait to see whether the management is serious about change and committed to it, so as to act accordingly.

However, recent literature indicates that Arab managers are apt to resist change because of their fear of losing power or status (Rees *et al.*, 2011). This seems not to be definitively true in the case of the ADP, since commitment to change appeared to vary from manager to manager: some were strongly supportive to the QMS and committed to its success, whereas others participated only to benefit from the rewards or for other personal reasons. Support for this analysis comes from the qualitative data, with some interviewees stating that managers varied as to their levels of knowledge and commitment, while some behaved according to their personal preferences and agendas. The questionnaire findings also support this conclusion, as divergent responses were recorded to the assertion that managers supported the QMS for the sake of defending their personal power and interests (S28: M=3.07), suggesting non-uniform levels of commitment. The literature anticipates that the personal agendas and preferences of managers would reflect an organization's internal politics and networking associations (Ali, 2009).

Besides management commitment, the qualitative findings tended to concentrate on two other requisites deemed necessary for managers to play their roles effectively: relevant knowledge and skills, as well as the ability to use power and politics. Managerial skills were perceived by interviewees to be fairly good, but they also claimed that managers had differing standards of knowledge and skills. The questionnaire results show that participants held positive or neutral positions on most management characteristics, but were more consistently positive in agreeing that managers were supportive and helpful in times of need (S22: M=4.20, StD=.808). Thus, it can be said that ADP managers were seen to be well informed and skilful enough to offer useful guidance and assistance.

The use of power and politics, however, appeared to be controversial. Although interviewees admitted that such practices were commonly exercised in the ADP, divergent views were recorded with regard to their effects; some considered them necessary to achieve the change objectives, but others saw them as counterproductive. The qualitative analysis found that the practice of politics could refer to two fundamental concepts that perceived differently: relationships or *wasta*. Whenever interviewees referred to the former, they were optimistic and positive, because they believed that good relationships would enable managers to gain credit and financial support from the Director General of the ADP, as well as trust and loyalty from its members, whereas the term *wasta* was associated with inequity and nepotism, as well as inconsistency in practice. Both terms

were used in the questionnaire, in two different sections, but respondents were inconsistent on the political side of management, the mean values being neutral (S24: M=3.18; S41: M=2.89).

Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that power and politics could play both positive and negative roles within the ADP, while the dividing line is the perception of fairness among employees. Put simply, it is acceptable to favour a relative or a friend in recruitment and even in promotion or reward, as long as it is not at the expense of others. The literature warns that if senior managers fail to address issues of justice, employees may feel confusion, anger, frustration and cynicism, weakening their commitment to change, while the opposite would make them see managers as more competent, legitimate and trustworthy (Tyler & De Cremer, 2005; Shah, 2011). Arasli *et al.* (2006) further indicate that nepotism may cause employees to feel subject to injustice, with significant negative effects on job satisfaction and quitting intention.

Other managerial characteristics were explained by the survey in more detail. For example, respondents observed their managers to have done well to some extent in focusing on long-term planning to achieve their vision (S19: M=3.90, StD=.925). This result seems to be incompatible with the literature, since it has long been understood that Arab Muslims have problems with planning the future because they constantly avoid the implication of interfering with God's actions, so that using the phrase *in sha'a Allah* (if God wills) can be perceived as a way to avoid saying 'yes' without explicitly saying 'no' (Alon & Brett, 2007: 67). However, Rees and Althakhri (2008) dispute this claim and attribute it to a misunderstanding of Islamic teachings; they argue that seeing the future as in God's hands does not necessarily conflict with planning one's own part in it.

Respondents also recognised the need to open a space for the participation and involvement of lower-level employees in the change process; the mean score on S20 was 3.67 (StD=1.141). This could be justified by the many attempts of ADP managers to amplify the scope of participation, as a strategy to institutionalize the QMS. Nonetheless, interviewees saw the current state as unsatisfactory and identified the hierarchical structure and top-down approach as barriers to involvement. In theory, this is unsurprising, because a top-down approach to change is not uncommon in the Middle East, which has long been associated with large power distance cultures, where individuals tend to admire their bosses and accept the unequal distribution of power within the organization (Hofstede,

2005). Moreover, the ADP has a militaristic culture distinguished by features such as command, control and holding power without valid reasons (Jermier & Berkes, 1979).

There was broad agreement among respondents that managers had paid sufficient attention to the potential personal consequences of the QMS for their staff (S21: M=3.70, StD=.952). Bernerth *et al.* (2007) contend that leaders should pay attention to human factors including the emotional arousal of employees, as resistance to change mostly results from other people's negative perceptions. As to the other management characteristics, there was broad agreement that managers encouraged staff to do new things (S23: M=3.96, StD=1.031), kept staff up to date with important information about the QMS (S25: M=3.71, StD=1.061), were happy to receive feedback (S26: M=3.85, StD=.953) and regularly reviewed and evaluated the implementation of the QMS (S27: M=3.96, StD=.883). This last finding seems to be inconsistent with the interview analysis, which showed that evaluation was neglected in the ADP and regarded as criticism.

Two further observations emerged with respect to the roles and practices of ADP managers. The first was that senior managers tended to combine the transactional and transformational leadership styles, with a tendency towards the latter. This could be justified, as ADP managers were credited to some extent with the transformational traits of creating a vision, setting certain objectives, anchoring values, offering training and considering individuals' emotions, while also linking reward with effort (e.g. the award of ISO 9001), managing by exception (looking for errors), establishing clear lines of accountability and allocating responsibilities (e.g. assigning the Quality Team), which are elements of transactional leadership (Bass, 1990). It is notable that the transformational style, associated with leaders who have charisma, enabling them to influence others and create vision and inspiration through communication and motivation (*ibid*), has been preferred and proved to be strongly related to employees' commitment to change (Herold *et al.*, 2008), while Burnes (2009: 513) argues that managers in an ideal world need to "adjust the balance of transactional and transformational skills they deploy to match the organization's requirements at any one time".

The correlation analysis showed that management characteristics had positive correlations of statistically low and medium significance with almost all the factors. These relationships confirm that management or leadership plays a critical role and should be considered a crucial element in the successful institutionalization of organizational change.

7.5.4.2 Employee characteristics

The literature underlines the role of individuals and argues that they should be considered in the change process, not as recipients but as active agents whose emotions and cognitive interpretations have long been associated with the successful institutionalization of change (Weick, 1995; Bartunek *et al.*, 2011). Thus, the role and characteristics of employees (e.g. emotions, competences and expectations) were identified and examined by means of both qualitative and quantitative analysis. First of all, it should be noted that the overall mean value of factors under this theme was lower than for any other theme ($M=3.17$). Nonetheless, ADP employees were perceived to be competent and capable of sustaining the QMS, which may have been a result of the extensive training provided by the management, as discussed earlier. Other questionnaire results validate this finding, as the mean value of the change efficacy factor was relatively high ($M=4.07$) and there was a low positive correlation between employee characteristics and change efficacy ($r=.229$) at a significance level of $p<.01$.

The issues with employees appeared not to be with their ability to operate the QMS, but more with their willingness to adopt change in general and a tendency to prefer the status quo. The quantitative outcomes confirm this analysis, as respondents expressed moderate views regarding their fear of change (S29: $M=2.46$, $StD=1.181$) and aptness to favour the status quo (S30: $M=2.39$, $StD=1.284$). This result is consistent with the finding of Rees and Althakhri (2008) that individuals in the Middle East often have low tolerance for new ideas or change, as a result of a strong uncertainty avoidance culture. The interview results also identified some cultural barriers, such as the fear of losing benefits and taking risks, as well as the existing norms and routines. The literature indicates that resistance may occur if change clashes with employees' prevailing rules, meanings or unconsciously accepted routines (Guerreiro *et al.*, 2006; Ribeiro & Scapens, 2006).

In addition, some interviewees attributed employees' low commitment to a lack of conviction in the first place, especially among those who worked in regional locations, while others noted that some employees, especially those working outside the offices or on night shifts, were still not convinced of the benefits of the QMS. The literature indicates that emotional and cognitive dimensions could be potential sources of resistance to change. For instance, individuals often resist change if they experience or expect to experience any kind of anxiety, fear or stress (i.e. negative feelings) or if they believe that the

disadvantages of change outweigh the advantages, that harms exceed benefits (O'Connor, 1993; Piderit, 2000; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Lines, 2004; Oreg, 2006). Hence, it is reasonable to argue that leaders must pay sufficient attention to employees' emotional responses and cognitive interpretations of change.

Other characteristics measured by the questionnaire included employee participation, communication and empowerment. Respondents perceived employees' involvement in the change process to be acceptable (S31: M=3.74; StD=1.015), while communication among them was fairly effective (S33: M=3.82; StD=.932). These findings confirm managers' earlier claims about implementing strategies for amplifying the scope of participation and improving communication among staff. Nevertheless, respondents were inconsistent and tended to be neutral (S34: N=31.7%) in relation to the authority given to them to perform important tasks (S34: M=3.41, StD=1.042). This finding is compatible with the earlier discussion of a high power distance culture and the bureaucratic and military structure of the police force.

Existing reward schemes also appeared to concern the ADP staff, as both qualitative and quantitative analyses found consistently that employees were unhappy because their reward expectations had not been met (S32: M=3.18, StD=1.095). This dissatisfaction could be considered to indicate deficiencies in the existing reward schemes, an interpretation supported by the qualitative analysis, which showed that substantive rewards were given exclusively to members of the external Quality Team, whereas ADP staff appeared to have been rewarded only by the recognition expressed in a letter of thanks, without even a ceremony in which they could participate. Another possible explanation is related to the alignment practices: it is possible that the lack of alignment between the institutionalization of the QMS and performance appraisal or reward made it difficult for respondents to see the link between them, leaving them unhappy with their rewards. The qualitative findings support this explanation, as one interviewee emphasised the need for the alignment of existing rewards and incentives with the desired performance. The literature asserts that linking the performance measurement system with change will ensure that it is embedded in the organization's activities (Asif *et al.*, 2009; Breja *et al.*, 2011).

Having said that, rewards should be aligned not only with the award of an ISO certificate or winning a competition, but also with the continuity of organizational change (Jacobs, 2002). In other words, employees must be rewarded for institutionalizing the QMS, in

order to spread the message amongst them that true success is achieved only when the change is institutionalized, not by initiation or adoption, however successful in the short term. Thus, those who actively participated in the QMS simply to benefit from the rewards arising from the award of the ISO certificate would participate lastingly if rewards were contingent on such behaviour.

7.5.4.3 Change characteristics

The characteristics of change itself have been considered in the literature to be critical, particularly at the stage of institutionalization (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005). Three significant issues are covered in this subsection related to receptiveness to change: the substance of the QMS, the pace of change and the process of implementation. The substance of change generally refers to employees' perceptions of the centrality of change, its scale and whether or not it fits with an organization (ibid; Pettigrew, 1987; Dawson, 1994). Employees' perceptions of the QMS have been discussed in section 5.5.1, which showed that the majority of respondents were positive in relation to the QMS and that its achievements were visible. The questionnaire findings support this analysis, as respondents agreed that the QMS had brought about major improvements in the efficiency and effectiveness of their departments (S6: M=4.34, StD=.734). Moreover, a significant positive correlation was detected between perceptions of the QMS and change characteristics ($r = .228, p > .01$).

Having acknowledged the benefits of the QMS, respondents were less consistent in agreeing that progress towards change had been regularly publicised (S35: M=3.65; StD=1.019). This confirms the previous finding of a lack of transparency and poor sharing of information between the executive and operational levels, as managers were apt to deal with such reports or data in a confidential manner. The literature attributes employees' negative emotions such as anxiety, fear and threat to a failure to exchange information between organizational levels.

On the subject of the suitability of the QMS, some interviewees complained that it did not perfectly match their organizational needs; for example, some asserted that it addressed only administrative matters, without taking into account the technical and practical aspects of their work. Interviewees from another department had opposing views, but they also agreed that the QMS enabled them to standardize the administrative procedures on which their department depended heavily. It can be concluded that the fitness of the QMS depends on the specific department and its nature of work. This would explain the slight

disagreements among respondents with respect to the change appropriateness theme, which showed a significantly low positive correlation with change characteristics ($r=.258, p>.01$). Given that the various directorates and departments of the ADP differ in their responsibilities and tasks, it is reasonable to assume that quality assurance standards should differ accordingly. Asif *et al.* (2009) argue that a QMS must fit with the organization's processes and activities in order to institutionalize its adoption.

The second issue was that of time. Participants from certain departments felt that the time given was insufficient; thus the pace of change was perceived to be too rapid. Again, the interviews results identified the nature of work as a critical factor in determining the suitability of the change and the time required to implement it. The literature suggests that a high degree of institutionalization can be reached only after a long period of time (Schein, 1992; Rimmer *et al.*, 1996; Anderson, 2012), once people have had enough time to socialize the meanings of the change (Tolbert & Zucker, 1994; Ford, 1999) and when the change becomes part of the culture (Kotter, 1995). In this regard, Buchanan *et al.* (2005: 202) argue that “change which is delayed may not deliver benefits. Change which is rushed may not allow time to adapt, and create initiative fatigue, encouraging decay”.

The third issue concerns the change process (i.e. how the QMS was delivered) and the implementation methodology. This chapter has already covered some relevant matters, such as participation and involvement, decision-making processes and communication styles. Here, it should be noted that the overall approach of ADP managers and their efforts to deliver and implement the QMS were satisfactory according to most of the interviewees, who generally praised the ADP for creating an excellence culture through training, by hiring foreign companies and skilful expatriates to import valuable knowledge and skills, and by holding competitions between departments to encourage managers to adopt change.

The quantitative analysis supports this finding, as survey respondents reported that there was a clear timetable for the implementation of the QMS (S37: $M=3.78, StD=.922$) and that sufficient resources were allocated to support it (S38: $M=3.85, StD=1.005$). However, they had divergent opinions about whether or not the process of institutionalization had been treated as a new stage that needed further education and development, after the completion of implementation (S36: $M=3.22, StD=1.145$). The earlier discussion on institutionalization strategies revealed that the ADP did not hold a ceremony to celebrate the accomplishments and achievements of change, which might well have given employees

a sense that the change process was complete, so they should forget the past and focus on the new state and its challenges (Ford & Ford, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). Another controversial point was related to evaluation, since almost a quarter of respondents were neutral as to whether there was a means of measuring success (S40: M=3.33, StD=1.246). This is consistent with the qualitative finding that the success of the QMS in the ADP was perceived and measured only by the award of a certificate (e.g. ISO 9001) or winning a competition, with hardly any concern about sustained behaviours or a stabilized environment.

Some challenges to institutionalization were also identified (S39: M=3.32, StD=1.096). The first obstacle was the existing value system, which interviewees appeared to perceive as outdated, asserting that it should be refined and modified to fit the current state of the ADP and its future direction. Secondly, interviewees regarded the existing job descriptions as unclear and imprecise, advising the ADP to revise and redefine the current job descriptions to match the new administrative system. In this regard, Asif *et al.* (2009) propose that institutionalizing a QMS will eventually result in a better fit with the organization's activities and thus reduce the duplication and overlapping of daily tasks.

While perceiving the role played by the Quality Team to be substantial, some interviewees noted inconsistencies among its members in their practices. The literature indicates that change practitioners engage in a sensemaking process with change recipients, so if they lack persistence or consistency, employees may become confused, frustrated or angry, which will lead to a loss of trust and evoke resistance to change (Ford *et al.*, 2008). Hence, it is recommended that the Quality Team develop and adopt standard procedures and practical guidance, which should be well documented and distributed to all employees in order to ensure consistency.

7.5.4.4 Contextual characteristics

The final theme is that of the characteristics and attributes of the Middle East in general and of the ADP in particular which have been found to affect the institutionalization process. This chapter has already addressed the influence on employees' perceptions and attitudes of a number of cultural and organizational factors, such as the ADP's bureaucratic culture, its military structure, its dictatorial leadership style, the top-down approach to change, the exercise of power and politics, the practice of *wasta*, the absence of a change culture and employees' fear of losing position or privileges.

The first recurrent perception which all interviewees appeared to share was the authoritarian approach of the ADP management, which was believed to be the root cause of all the above-mentioned issues and which seemed to create a culture of blame-avoidance where employees were afraid to accept responsibility or make a mistake. The qualitative analysis concluded that ADP employees feared change not because of the change itself, but due to new accountabilities and responsibilities which might result in them being punished or blamed for any mistake.

This finding is compatible with the research of Shahin and Wright (2004), who found Arab leadership styles to be influenced by bureaucratic power and a culture of blame, whereby blame and punishment are imposed on those who make a mistake or fail to follow rules. Like other public sector organizations, the ADP can be described as typically bureaucratic, hierarchically structured, governed by a culture of conformity, centralized in decision-making without delegating authority, and preferring a top-down approach to communication (Ryan *et al.*, 2008; Greasley *et al.*, 2009). The questionnaire results support the above finding, since respondents generally agreed that decision-making processes were hierarchical and centralized at ADP headquarters (S44: M=3.52, StD=1.039). Incongruously, survey participants also tended to agree that mistakes in implementing the QMS were seen as opportunities to learn (S45: M=3.77, StD=.805).

On another contextual characteristic, that of *wasta*, responses varied as to whether it had a positive or negative impact on the QMS (S41: M=2.89, StD=1.345). This diversity of opinion may be explained by the interview finding that the employees' perceptions of *wasta* depended on the basis of their perception of fairness. The practice was found to be strongly associated with reward, since relationships appeared to determine how rewards were used and distributed; thus, those having good connections with senior managers were seen as more likely to be rewarded than others. This is not uncommon in the Arab context, since it has been claimed that in a collectively oriented culture, there will be less concentration on personal skills and qualities than on traits such as loyalty, trustworthiness and harmoniousness (Jeanquart-Barone & Peluchette, 1999). As a result, knowledge and other merits may be neglected in favour of a preference for relatives.

Furthermore, there was general concern amongst the interviewees regarding the absence of evaluation in the ADP. This issue has already been examined, but it is worth mentioning here the cultural dimension, as when one interviewee stated: "I understand that in Arab

culture, assessment means spotting the weaknesses of a person” (M2). Thus, it could be said that assessment was neglected and had not been taken seriously by managers, because they simply did not see the positive aspects of evaluation and in some cases regarded it as implying criticism. A final remark is related to past change events, which according to the survey results appear to have given employees a positive impulse to adopt change ($S46=M=4.07$, $StD=.836$). The literature recognises the impact of past history and warns that employees’ perceptions of a poor organizational change history reduces trust, job satisfaction and openness to change, while increasing cynicism and turnover intention (Bordia *et al.*, 2011).

7.5.5 Differences between departments X and Y

The reader will recall that the research samples were drawn from two ADP departments for the purpose of comparison: department Y was chosen as a stronger case of institutionalization than department X, according to the total number and magnitude of quality errors reported during the last quality inspection in 2012. Although they operate in the same region, under the command of the same general headquarters, and their staff broadly share cultural values and attitudes, the researcher anticipated that interesting differences would emerge from this comparison; this subsection seeks to test this assumption and to identify any factors which can be shown to underlie differences in performance between the two departments with regard to the success or failure of the institutionalization of the QMS.

Table 7.4 summarises the main differences in both qualitative and quantitative findings between the two departments as related to each research question. It should be declared at the outset that there was little difference between them in respect of most of the findings, except those outlined in the table, which are strongly believed to be the key factors explaining why department Y had institutionalized the QMS more successfully than department X.

Table 7.4: Differences between departments X and Y

Research questions	Department X	Department Y
1. How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel?	Felt obliged to keep up with best practice to look proactive.	Aimed to satisfy its senior managers by winning competitions.
	The independent <i>t</i> -test showed that department Y participants believed more strongly that management had made the right decision to adopt the QMS.	
2. What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative?	Many steps taken to improve communication, such as a new communication scheme.	Besides these steps, technology was used to improve communication.
	Information on the QMS was available only from the Quality Team's reports.	Two surveys were distributed to customers & staff, plus middle managers' observations.
	There was a lack of integration.	Integration made.
3. To what extent have those strategies addressed the five components of the change message?	The mean values of department X responses were slightly lower than those of department Y for almost all items.	
	<p>The independent samples <i>t</i>-test revealed some significant differences in favour of department Y for the following items:</p> <p>Change discrepancy: no significant difference was recorded</p> <p>Change appropriateness: no significant difference was recorded</p> <p>Change efficacy: (S12) relevant training was provided</p> <p>Principal support: (S14) good role models; (S15) staff still motivated</p> <p>Self-valence: (S17) staff still rewarded for their commitment.</p>	
	The <i>t</i> -test was carried out between themes, showing that department Y had significantly higher mean values on one factor: Principal support.	
4. What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?	Perceived <i>wasta</i> as creating inconsistency & injustice.	Perceived <i>wasta</i> as a means to achieve organizational objectives.
	The pace of change was relatively rapid and the ISO did not fully fit, due to the nature of the work.	No problem was observed with regard to the nature of the work.
	The independent samples <i>t</i> -test demonstrated that department Y had significantly higher mean values than department X on Management characteristics, Employee characteristics and Change characteristics.	

Source: Author's fieldwork (2012-2013)

The first point to note is that management was a key factor that contributed significantly to successful institutionalization of the QMS. This is apparent from the quantitative analysis, where the independent samples *t*-test showed a significant difference in favour of department Y with respect to Principal support ($t(267.959)=-4.750$, $p=.000$) and Management characteristics ($t(253.600)=-5.014$, $p=.000$), while department Y respondents ($M=4.26$) showed more confidence in their managers as good role models committed to the QMS than the X group ($M=3.67$) and acknowledged that their managers were still motivating them to meet their commitments. The qualitative analysis also supports the

superiority of the department Y management, since managers were said to have decided to use politics rather than trying to overcome it. The practice of *wasta* could be seen as an example of this, as department Y managers invested in their relationships with General Headquarters to negotiate resources and budget, while their relationships with staff were used to convince employees and gain their trust.

Another important dimension was the loyalty of staff to their managers, which appeared to be an impetus for change and a force for institutionalization. Evidence for this is that interviewees from department X appeared more concerned about being fashionably proactive, while the department's level of institutionalization of the QMS was relatively low compared to that of department Y, whose managers seemed more interested in winning competitions and gaining certificates for the sake of satisfying their senior managers. The important difference between the two groups could be assumed to be that department X interviewees had little sense of urgency and saw little need for the QMS, because they considered their mission to have been accomplished with the award of the ISO certificate, whereas department Y interviewees still had a reason to maintain the QMS and an ambition to please their senior managers.

The implementation strategies also played a role, since there were slight differences here between the two departments. Interview responses indicate that department Y had done better in relation to three main practices. The first was the use of technology to improve communication and the second was the gathering of information from multiple sources, where department Y distributed surveys to customers and employees, whereas department X relied solely on reports issued by the Quality Team. The final strategy was the integration of the QMS with other organizational activities and functions, which only department Y appears to have implemented. These strategies are well recognised in the literature (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999) and neglecting them may well have had negative effects on institutionalization.

The final remark is related to the nature of the work, which seems to have been a critical factor, playing a substantial part in the successful institutionalization of change, because it appeared to determine not only how appropriate the proposed change was, but also how it should be implemented, including the pace of change and its timescale. This was evident from the fact that department X interviewees perceived the pace of the QMS to be rapid and felt that it did not closely fit the purpose of their department. They justified this by

claiming that the QMS concentrated on administrative work at the expense of technical and practical issues. Further evidence comes from the correlation coefficient test, showing that the change appropriateness factor had significant medium and low positive correlations with all of the themes.

7.6 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section seeks to summarise the key findings and to relate them to the aim and objectives which were set out in full in chapter 4 and in abbreviated form in Figure 7.1. Although this thesis was written for purely academic purposes and thus cannot be regarded as a consultancy report, the reader will recall that the basic aim of the research was to explore how best to institutionalize change interventions in the Middle East; thus the theoretical and practical implications of the findings are at the heart of the study, especially as it attempts to fill the gap in the literature regarding high failure rates of change initiatives in general and difficulties in institutionalizing change in particular. Table 7.5 therefore offers a summary of key findings by juxtaposing theoretical insights and practical comments against each of the research objectives.

Table 7.5: Summary of key findings against research objectives

Research Objectives	Theoretical Insights	Practical Comments
To review perspectives on and approaches to organizational change and their relative merits	<p>The social construction perspective was found to provide a better understanding of change processes and of human reactions to change, particularly at the institutionalization stage. It complements and promotes the systematic integration of interventions, by enlightening managers about the way social reality is formulated from the voices of their employees, as well as the role of language.</p> <p>Rather than viewing the planned and emergent approaches as opposing systems of ideas, it is better to see them as complementary approaches, each fitting with particular situational contingencies.</p>	<p>A systematic approach to change seems to be well appreciated and practiced in the Middle East and by the ADP; however, there is a need to consider the elements of the social construction perspective. Thus, managers should be advised to pay attention not only to the strategies they implement but also to what the change means to people and how they perceive such interventions.</p> <p>It was found that the planned approach to change is more common and preferred in public sector organizations in the Middle East, due to the high uncertainty avoidance culture.</p>
To analyse various models used to explore institutionalization processes	<p>It was established that institutionalization has multiple stages and levels; thus exploring the institutionalization process can explain why some changes fail to be institutionalized; the degree to which human behaviours can be institutionalized depends on the depth to which they are embedded in a social system.</p>	<p>The stage of institutionalization seemed to be neglected in the context of the ADP. Managers mistakenly assumed that successful planning and implementation of change would guarantee its subsequent institutionalization. Therefore, more attention should be paid to ways of ensuring successful institutionalization.</p>
To investigate strategies for institutionalizing change	<p>The study identifies a set of strategies exclusively related to institutionalization. Additionally, the role of the change message is highlighted and should be addressed in any attempt to institutionalize change interventions.</p>	<p>Institutionalization should be treated as a new state that has its own strategies and specific leadership style. It is strongly recommended that information-sharing and persuasive mutual communication be facilitated.</p>
To identify critical factors and their characteristics influencing institutionalization in the Middle East	<p>The study identifies four categories of factors that are critical in the successful institutionalization of change in public sector organizations in the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular.</p>	<p>The implications of these critical factors should be addressed in any attempt to design or implement strategies for institutionalization.</p>

Source: The Author

7.7 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

The author believes that this piece of work has made the following original contributions and substantial additions to knowledge, at the conceptual, methodological and practical levels.

7.7.1 Conceptual and theoretical contributions

Firstly, this study has contributed to the body of literature on the institutionalization of change initiatives in public sector organizations in the Middle East. Thus, a number of gaps in the literature have been bridged, concerning the high failure rates of change initiatives in general (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Oakland & Tanner, 2007; Burnes, 2009; Self & Schraeder, 2009) and the difficulties of institutionalizing change in particular (Goodman & Dean, 1982; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Burke, 2011b), given the relative paucity of attention to institutionalization in the literature (Jacobs, 2002; Buchanan *et al.*, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2009). This study has gone some way to extending the existing theoretical understanding of the institutionalization of change, offering managers a conceptual road map which comprehensively incorporates the institutionalization strategies and factors critical to conveying a change message that shapes the enactment of institutionalization.

Secondly, this study has applied an existing theory from a different discipline, institutional theory, which focuses on varying degrees of institutionalization (Tolbert & Zucker, 1994; Baptista, 2009). As acknowledged, the concept of institutionalization has been treated as a discrete issue, or as one qualitative stage in an extended process of implementation (Schein, 1992; Kotter, 1995), whereas this study extends the theoretical understanding of change by adding a conceptualization of the process leading to institutionalization as a way of understanding how change becomes institutionalized or why it fails to do so.

Thirdly, the present research has employed a combination of existing theories, i.e. open systems theory and the social construction perspective, which has helped us to understand not only the systemic nature of change and the interconnectedness of an organization's subsystems (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Mullins, 2007; Hayes, 2010; Burke, 2011a), but also the complexities of social reality and how it is formulated from the voices of multiple actors whose emotions and cognitive interpretations influence the institutionalization process (Weick, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Bartunek *et al.*, 2011; Ford & Ford, 2008; Anderson, 2012).

The fourth theoretical contribution is related to the Middle Eastern context, which has been the subject of insufficient research (Khassawneh, 2005; Rees & Althakhri, 2008). Thus, this research extends the knowledge of change management practices in the Middle East and clarifies the understanding of how change is institutionalized in a public sector

organization in the UAE. In addition, it contributes contextually to the generalizability of Western theories and tests their validity in a non-Western context, in order to enhance the broad understanding of theories of change.

7.7.2 Methodological contribution

This study used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, which was useful in evaluating different data sources and capturing the collective perspective of the organization by investigating its various levels, across and throughout the organizational structure, including top decision makers, middle and lower-level managers, experts and those at the front line. Thus, the mixed-methods approach has helped to triangulate the findings from a range of viewpoints and generate a rich base for discussion.

7.7.3 Implications for practice

The first of the implications for practice of this research arises from its core aims, to explore how best to institutionalize change interventions in the Middle East and to develop a framework that incorporates institutionalization strategies and factors influencing institutionalization, as a result of which it offers managers practical insights and guidance for best management practice. For example, the study identifies a number of strategies that have an effective influence on institutionalization and explains how they should be implemented; it also highlights the elements of the change message and its significant impact on shaping employees' attitudes to change (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). The change message model offers useful insights and valid instruments by which managers can assess their adopted strategies in order to decide on appropriate modifications or interventions. In this regard, the ADP may wish to consider the adoption of strategies such as the management of information and diffusion practices. Transparency and sharing information with staff, even if some of the data is already known, can be a powerful catalyst for institutionalization, because it shows managers' willingness to share, to listen and to encourage mutual communication.

Secondly, the findings reveal the significant role of communication in creating shared meanings, perceptions and interpretations; thus the study recommends the language-based approach as an additional conversational instrument to enlighten managers and enrich their interventions. Such an approach would enable managers to generate, articulate or shift their conversations purposively according to the language of organizational members, in order

to intervene meaningfully and persuasively (Ford, 1999; Ford *et al.*, 2008). The study has also underlined four types of conversation and five categories of speech acts (Ford & Ford, 1995), all of which are instrumental for managers and facilitate their functioning.

Thirdly, on the basis of the results, it was found that the authoritarian or dictatorial leadership style was typical of management in the Middle East, particularly in public sector organizations and all the more so in police forces such as the ADP. However, this research established that effective leadership styles at the institutionalization stage might differ from those at the stages of initiating or implementing change. Thus, it is recommended that leaders support coalitions and network interactions, employee participation and engagement, and bottom-up transformation (Graetz & Smith, 2010; Benn & Kearins, 2012).

In the case of the ADP, senior managers should be more open and willing to involve employees in planning and implementing change. This could be accomplished by expanding the scope of participation to include those at the operational level. Small meetings between executives and employees would be useful to discuss and review progress on the QMS. Senior managers should also take into account the effects of their higher status; these events should be conducted in an informal way to encourage employees to express their opinions openly, then it would be senior managers' role to convince them by means of valid evidence and persuasive argument. Managers also need to have a better understanding of cultural influences and to be particularly careful when advising or evaluating staff, since some might regard this as criticism.

The fourth practical implication concerns the significant influence that the integration strategy was found to have on institutionalization, which is clearly delineated in the literature (Goodman & Dean, 1982; Schein, 1987; Kotter, 1995; Armenakis *et al.*, 1999; Jacobs, 2002; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Cummings & Worley, 2009). The ADP should pay more attention to this strategy and establish links between the QMS and other organizational activities, particularly with reference to performance appraisal and reward.

Finally, it was found that politics, or the practice of *wasta* to be exact, could be a double-edged sword, since some employees may associate it with inequality, negative emotions and inconsistency in practice, while others may find it advantageous in the sense that managers could obtain resources and gain employees' trust. Therefore, this study suggests

that politics, rather than being resisted, should be utilized to advantage; the experience of department Y may be considered exemplary in this regard.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The limitations of this study are predominantly methodological. Although the researcher collected data using mixed methods, he has relied on a single case study, thus limiting the generalizability of the outcomes. Authors such as Voss *et al.* (2002) warn that the odds of being biased and prejudiced are relatively high when analysing a single case study, because of the relatively high potential for descriptive or researcher bias towards verification. Nevertheless, Saunders *et al.* (2009) and Yin (2003) argue that the goal of a case study is to generalize its findings not to populations or other organizations, but to a set of theoretical propositions.

Additionally, interviews are recognized as liable to bias on the part of both researcher and interviewees (Yin, 2003); the present researcher tried to minimise this by conducting semi-structured interviews with a neutral introduction and clear guidance, along with careful analysis by cautiously comparing the results with those of the quantitative survey. Another issue concerns the recording of interviewees' voices, to which only five of the seventeen assented. Although the researcher did his best to make written notes of all relevant comments and explanations, it is likely that he missed some data from the interview proceedings during transcription.

With regard to the questionnaire, it was noted that some survey forms were returned incomplete and there were also some patterns of response sets due to respondents' reluctance to participate; the researcher excluded these forms in order to avoid the effect that their inclusion would have had on the research results. Another issue concerns the tendency for questionnaire responses to be positive, which on one hand may reflect the truth, but which on the other may be ascribed to the giving of socially desirable responses (Mortel, 2008). Given the status of the researcher as a senior police officer, employees would want to present a favourable image of themselves; to counter this risk, the researcher stressed anonymity and confidentiality for all participants.

The scope of this research should also be considered, since it focused exclusively on the institutionalization of change and the critical factors that affect its processes, whereas it is

imperative not to neglect the earlier stages of creating readiness and implementation, which may have a significant impact on institutionalization. Thus, interventions for institutionalization could be more effective if established at earlier stages, in order to generate positive change momentum. Finally, the study was limited to examining institutionalization at the micro-organizational level, paying little attention to elements of the external environment such as national politics and economics, which may well influence the institutionalization of change.

7.8 FUTURE RESEARCH

This final formal section of the study offers some suggestions for areas of future research. First, it is obvious from the analysis that effective leadership styles differ at the stage of institutionalization from those at the earlier stages of initiating and implementing change. For example, while charismatic leadership is critical to drive radical change and communicate a new vision, it may be less desirable during institutionalization (Graetz & Smith, 2010; Bennis & Kearns, 2012). Hence, research into the different roles and attitudes of leaders during and throughout change (i.e. leadership as process) would enhance the contribution to knowledge and the practice of change management in the Middle East. Further, policing and military-based organizations such as the ADP appear to be dominated by an authoritarian leadership style and bureaucratic culture, which were found to have a substantial impact on managing change in general and successful institutionalization in particular; thus, further research is needed to develop a model of leadership that would potentially instil new roles and skills, including openness and adaptability to new ideas, as well as flexibility and collaboration.

Secondly, the earlier discussion of the validity of the concept of institutionalization (section 3.2.2) revealed that while organizations strive for stability in order to foster efficiency and provide regularity, they also respond continuously to the changing demands of the environment (Burchell & Kolb, 2006; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008; Nasim & Sushil, 2011). Therefore, it seems reasonable to propose research that seeks to resolve this conflict between change and stability, providing a framework to balance the forces of each in order to achieve sustainability, particularly in public sector organizations where bureaucracy and a culture of conformity are common features, along with centralized decision making, allowing little room for innovation and change (Althakhri, 2011).

Thirdly, the roles of communication and dialogue in institutionalizing change have been well established and recognized (Ford & Ford, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Kickert, 2010), but future research should extend to the development of a tool or method to measure and examine the existing networks of conversations, as well as to shift, articulate or even generate new conversations so as to bring into existence a new reality and a consensus of meaning, shared and embedded in a social system. Policing organizations would be interesting cases, because communication is influenced by the hierarchy of rank and structure, and because conversations mostly consist of giving commands and obeying them.

Finally, further investigation is necessary to understand the distinctive features of power and politics in the Middle East, more specifically, the practice of *wasta* in the GCC countries. It was found that this practice is highly valued and profoundly instilled in the organizational culture and the attitudes of its members, with a significant influence on organizational change. Therefore, future studies should be directed to advancing the theoretical understanding of organizational culture in the Middle East with respect to *wasta*, as well as to developing a model of how to use such relationships beneficially.

7.9 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

At first, I was hesitant to enrol on a PhD programme because of my personal commitments and responsibilities at home in the UAE, including my professional work and family, but I am pleased to say that the last three years have been absolutely worth my while, as well as my family's sacrifice. It has been a journey of personal transformation of which I have enjoyed every moment, including the ups and downs of my research. I believe that a PhD degree is not something that one can undertake or study, but rather a cumulative experience of researching, reading, listening, debating, reflecting and writing. It has also given me a great opportunity to manage my own time flexibly, to dive deeply into my studies, as well as to do other activities. For example, I had the chance to attend a programme at the Harvard Kennedy School and to present two conference papers; this provided valuable opportunities to obtain constructive feedback and to network with people from all around the world.

During my PhD journey, I have learned things that I would never have learned otherwise, especially as someone from the Middle East, where educational systems are based on the

assumption that there is always one right answer, allowing little room for challenging thoughts, critical thinking, or debate. In the process, I have enjoyed the chance to stretch my intellectual capacities and to develop my personal skills, including time management, which was my weakest point. It has been a memorable experience that has brought tremendous changes to my life and to the way I think of the world; it has had a significant impact on my attitudes towards myself, my research and my professional life. Finally and most importantly, I have learned to be humble, because I have realized that whatever I learn or become, my knowledge will be only a very tiny thing, or even nothing in this universe of knowledge. I shall end by quoting the words of Allah in the Holy Quran: “We raise in degrees whom We will, but over every possessor of knowledge is one [more] knowing” (Chapter 13, Surat 12: Yusuf, verse 76).

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Appendix 1

The Survey

Dear Respected Colleague,

Since the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) announced its Strategic Plan in 2003, many change initiatives have been introduced and implemented in accordance with its aim: “enhancing the levels of safety in the community, maintaining order and security, reducing crime and eliminating feelings of insecurity, and contributing to the achievement of justice in a manner that promotes public confidence” (Abu Dhabi Police, 2008: 6). The implementation of a quality management system (QMS) was one of those initiatives, since many ADP departments have been certified using ISO 9001. This certification is accompanied by remarkable advantages: enhancing services provided by reducing errors, facilitating decision-making, achieving standardization and helping the ADP to become more customer-focused, thus increasing customer satisfaction.

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 explore how best to embed or institutionalize organizational change in the UAE. Therefore, the institutionalization of the QMS in your department has been chosen as a specific change initiative from which the researcher anticipates to learn from your particular experience in this regard. Please note that institutionalization involves the long-term persistence of organizational change.

The survey presents a set of statements; to complete this survey, please just indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements by placing a tick (✓) in the most suitable box. When you are responding to the statements, think of your department as a whole and the way things are usually done. I assure you that your responses will be used purely for academic purposes and that they will remain confidential. Results of the survey will be sent to you upon request only. If you have any enquiry or suggestion, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone on 00971505208484, or by email at omar_b911@hotmail.com.

Section 1: Demographic Information

Nº	Category	√	Groups
1	Gender		Male
			Female
2	Age		Less than or equal to 30 years old
			More than 30 years old
3	Experience		Less than or equal to 15 years
			More than 15 years
4	Rank		Below lieutenant
			Lieutenant or above
5	Qualification		School or Diploma
			University degrees (Bachelor, Master, or PhD)

Section 2: Your general feelings and perceptions about the QMS

A- Participants' perceptions of the QMS						
Nº	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The aim and objectives of the QMS are clear and understandable.					
2	I believe that management has made the right decision in adopting the QMS.					
3	QMS has increased my workload.					

Section 3

Your commitment to the QMS: evaluating the 5 elements of the change message

B- Change Discrepancy: The extent to which the QMS is needed		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4	I often feel that the QMS has been imposed on me.					
5	I fully understand why the QMS is necessary.					
6	QMS has improved the operational efficiency of my department.					
C- Change Appropriateness: The extent to which the QMS is appropriate		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7	I believe that the QMS is one of the best ways to accomplish our objectives.					
8	I am not convinced that the QMS will help us meeting our customers' & stakeholders' needs.					
9	The QMS complements the priorities of my department.					
D- Change Efficacy: The extent that the QMS can be achievable & sustained		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10	I am confident that establishing long-term commitment & maintaining the principles of the QMS are achievable.					
11	In relation to my work, I have the skills that are needed to make QMS sustainable.					
12	The training provided is relevant to the skills required by the QMS.					
E- Principal Support: The extent to which managers are committed to QMS		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
13	My organization's top decision makers have put all their support behind the QMS.					
14	Senior managers in my department are good role models for being committed to the QMS.					
15	Senior managers in my department still encourage & motivate me to sustain QMS.					
F- Personal Valence: The extent to which the QMS is advantageous		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16	The QMS makes my job easier.					
17	I am still rewarded for developing skills that support the implementation of the QMS.					
18	I am worried that I will lose some of my privileges if the QMS stays the course.					

Section 4: Your opinions and views about the factors influencing institutionalization

Nº	G- Management Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
19	My managers have focused on long-term planning to achieve their visions.					
20	My managers involve employees in the change planning processes of the department.					
21	My managers pay sufficient attention to the personal consequences that the changes could have for their staff members.					
22	If I experience any problems, I can always turn to my manager for help.					
23	My managers encourage me to do things that I have never done before.					
24	My managers only trust certain groups of people, whom they have relationships with.					
25	My managers keep staff members up to date with important information about the change.					
26	Management is happy to receive feedback from employees about change processes.					
27	My managers regularly review the implementation of the QMS for the purpose of evaluation.					
28	Managers support the QMS for the sake of defending their personal powers and interests.					
Nº	H- Employee Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
29	I often fear the change.					
30	I prefer to maintain the current situation, rather than introduce change.					
31	I have been given the opportunity to participate in the QMS process.					
32	My reward expectations are usually met.					
33	There is an effective communication between my colleagues and me about the QMS.					
34	I usually have the authority to perform important tasks related to the change.					

N	I- Change Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
35	Progress toward change objectives has been regularly publicized.					
36	The process of institutionalizing the QMS has been treated as a new stage after completion of the implementation process.					
37	A clear timetable was devised for the various phases of the implementation of the QMS.					
38	Sufficient resources have been allocated to support the change.					
39	There are still some obstacles that might affect the institutionalization of the QMS.					
40	There is a means of measuring the success of the QMS.					
N ^o	J- Context Characteristics	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
41	The practice of <i>wasta</i> has a positive impact on the QMS.					
42	I usually do my work individually, as teamwork is not encouraged in my department.					
43	Organizational structure hinders cross-functional collaboration.					
44	Decision-making processes are hierarchical and centralised at ADP headquarters.					
45	Mistakes in implementation of change are seen as opportunities to learn.					
46	Past change events have given me the courage to adopt new changes.					

Thank you for participating in this study.

Appendix 2: Interview Guide

Main Research Questions	Sub-Questions	Relevant topics for discussion
1. How has the QMS been perceived by the ADP personnel?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How have you explored the personnel's sentiments and reactions to the QMS? - What were the positive and negative sides of the QMS, from your subordinates' points of view? - How would you describe the communication channels between you and your subordinates, and among themselves? 	Employee resistance, Attitude & emotions, Fear & anxiety, Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award.
2. What strategies have been implemented in the ADP to institutionalize the QMS initiative?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What steps or roles have been produced to integrate the QMS in the organizational system and its culture, in order to ensure continuity? - To what extent do you think that employees have been given full opportunity to participate in the change process? - How have you celebrated the accomplishment of the QMS (i.e. announcement, reward, recognition)? - How do you evaluate or determine the extent to which the QMS is institutionalized? - How do you obtain information regarding the QMS? Do you share them with employees? 	Empowerment, Motivation, Reward & punishment, Training, Evaluation, Leadership style, Participation, Planning, Role of Quality Team, Implementation process.
3. To what extent have those strategies addressed the five components of the change message?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What were the organizational agendas for implementing the QMS? - What were the criteria for selecting certain strategies? - To what extent do organizational culture, networks and systems support the exchange of information between employees and facilitate their formal and informal communication? 	The five elements of Change Message, Organizational networks, Formal & informal communication methods, Ceremonies & events, Socialization process
4. What are the roles and characteristics of management, employees, change and context in institutionalizing the QMS in the ADP?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What do you think are the important factors affecting the institutionalization of the QMS that should be addressed by the ADP? - What are the supportive and destructive characteristics of the factors that influencing institutionalization? - In your opinion, which type of leadership style is most likely to work well in your department, particularly with regard to institutionalizing the QMS? - What are the barriers within the ADP that will make it difficult to implement change? - In your opinion, what things could have been done differently, making the institutionalization of the QMS even better? What areas of improvement are there? 	National & corporate culture, Power & politics, Supervision, Past events, Relationship & <i>wasta</i> , Long-term planning, Consistency & commitment, Time orientation, Personality & traits, Features of public sector & military-based system organization, Feedback, Successful measurement.