

Managing change: an investigation into readiness for change  
within the public sector in the UAE - the case of the Ministry of  
Interior (MOI)

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## Abstract

This study aims to make theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge by examining how change is managed and to what extent employees at the Ministry of Interior in the UAE are ready to lead and implement change initiatives. The UAE has nowadays become synonymous with change. The fast growing pace of change is transforming the UAE landscape and the MOI needs to be prepared to implement changes in order to be competitive and comply with the government's Excellence Vision for 2021. This research addresses aspects of change management and readiness for change within a context which is under-researched in the UAE. It examines how change is managed by assessing the level of readiness for change.

Although there is vast literature on change management and many studies have investigated change models and initiatives, this topic still generates plenty of interest and is under-researched in the Arab world and in particular in the UAE public sector. Change management is viewed as imperative and inevitable for the survival and success of an organisation. The extensive literature has revealed that there is no single approach to change management—what works or fits best depends on the organisational and cultural settings which have a direct impact on the success rate of the change project. In general, the change management theories and models appear to be rather abstract and too broad. Although they offer some guidance on how change can effectively be managed, they fall short on supporting their claims with concrete empirical evidence. In addition, there is little research on the drivers or leaders of organisational change and the expertise and know how required to lead the organisation to successful change. In addition, change models and theories tend to overlap and correlate highly with each other.

Based on the nature of the problem and research questions, a predominately positivist paradigm has been selected by this study. However, a mixed method approach is adopted to enhance the effectiveness of this study combining both qualitative and quantitative which help support each other and compensate for each other's weaknesses, thus providing fresh insights and an in-depth understanding of the topic under investigation.

The main findings of the study suggest employees are in general satisfied with the way change has been managed within the MOI. Interestingly, the results also reveal that most change initiatives have not generated a consensus or a united front of satisfaction but feelings of discontent and negative reactions were voiced from several individuals who perceived that the way aspects of change were handled lacked a sense of purpose and inadequate preparation. This minority of employees is not clear about the organisation's strategic vision of the change, showing signs of resistance. This uncertainty is considered as a critical barrier to the change efforts initiated by the MOI leadership to enhance its performance and deliver quality service.

The research contributes towards the change management debate by expanding the academic literature and the findings of this study have practical implications. They provide the MOI with the key mechanisms on how to prioritise and prepare for the different phases of change management activities to address the requirements of the development agenda. This study also helps to raise awareness of the decision makers about the flaws and shortcomings of the current change management practices within the MOI. Finally the findings of this study will enable the development of a change management programme and strategy tailored for the MOI and made by the MOI change management experts.

## Declaration

I declare that all of the work in this thesis is entirely my own, unless referenced and highlighted in the references section. I also declare that this thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Liverpool John Moores University for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. No part of this work has submitted in support of an application for another degree.

Signed:      Obaid Aldarmaki

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## List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	-	Analysis of variance
ADKAR	-	Awareness, Desire, Knowledge, Ability, Reinforcement model
ADNOC	-	Abu Dhabi National Oil Company
AED	-	United Arab Emirates Dirham
BNET	-	Business Management online magazine
CAPA	-	Centre for Aviation
DIAC	-	Dubai International Academy City
GCC	-	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
ITU	-	International Telecommunication Union
MOI	-	Ministry of Interior
NVIVO	-	Qualitative data analysis computer software package
OIC	-	Oil Industry Commission
ORC	-	Organisational Readiness for Change
MENASA	-	Middle East North Africa South Asia
ProSci	-	World leader in research and change management products
SCAD	-	Statistical Centre Abu Dhabi
TNS Mena	-	Custom market research organisation
UAE	-	United Arab Emirates

# Chapter One

## Introduction

In today's turbulent and fast changing political, social and economic landscape, particularly in the Arab world, change management is perceived as not only necessary for making progress but also a means of survival. This study examines the extent to which organisational change in the Ministry of Interior (MOI) is underway as instructed by the federal government, which stresses the need for the public sector to be leaner, more agile and better equipped to deal with public demands. The need to deliver better services has never been greater as the UAE is undergoing major social, demographic and economic changes. This study will assess the level of readiness for change and aims to establish the challenges and constraints that are hindering the implementation of change in line with the UAE federal government vision.

### 1.1 Purpose of the study

Much of the language of the literature about change focuses on the same rhetoric, that change is 'inevitable'. However, empirical research on the readiness for change, drivers and effects of change in the public sector particularly in the UAE is scarce. This study aims to examine the readiness and impact of organisational change within the public sector in the UAE, the case of the Ministry of Interior (MOI). Change is constant in the workplace and globally, and the UAE landscape is transforming at an unprecedented pace and scale. The MOI institutions are under increased

pressure to demonstrate efficiency, transparency and deliver services that are value for money.

This study investigates how the MOI leadership deals and adjusts to change as they need to be ready to implement positive change. The current political and social forces of change across the Arab world have placed more pressure on organisations and government institutions to change their systems, their approaches and their traditional ways of doing things to respond to the challenges that have emerged and meet public demands for quality services. Given that the change demanded by the public is imperative, it certainly needs to be change that involves more than just the formal organisational structure to engage other stakeholders. Much of the previous work on change management has concentrated on explaining employees' reactions to change. This study focuses on the importance of implementing strategic change in the public sector within the UAE Ministry of Interior. Readiness to change in the public sector has received little attention in extant literature, yet it plays a key role in implementing change within the organisation. As the world is in perpetual change, preparedness and change readiness enable decision-makers to respond more effectively to change. In other words, the better any institution can manage the transition to change, the more successful it will become.

## 1.2 Statement of the problem

Change within an organisation occurs either spontaneously or is initiated in response to a planned process of change. This study examines the challenges facing a complex organisation such as the MOI in the UAE which is undergoing



rapidly changing social, economic and political environments. The UAE is a key economic player amongst the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries and the world as a whole; it shares the world's aspirations in sustaining the current high living standards and the lavish lifestyle through development of effective change strategies. However, current leaders at the MOI have a tight grip on the way their departments are run because some fear losing control. Others fear nobody will be able to do a task as well as they can. Some resent the time it takes to train young Emiratis to take over and some insist they want to remain in touch. A few equate power with authority. They focus on power based on experience or organisational authority; they assume that the only way to lead is when you have formal authority over others. Drucker (1988:63) argues that "whole layers of management neither make decisions nor lead." This applies well in many departments in the MOI.

Leadership issues are often encountered which stem from lack of experience to support and implement the new vision or strategic change outlined by the UAE federal government. From anecdotal evidence it is suggested that many department managers encounter problems due to lack of experience in leading employees through change. Williams (1998) emphasises that good leadership will adapt and overcome challenges in the workplaces. He states that good leaders have the ability to identify any difficulties encountered by their employees and are able to propose ways to address the constraints that impact on the workplace. With inexperience in the management of departments and agencies, there has been an observation in some cases that the leadership style of the leader has led to failure to implement change.

Within traditional Arab societies, senior people command respect. When someone has been with an organisation for many years there is sometimes an assumption that they should be promoted first due to their age and status within society. Additionally there is social standing and 'face' within Arab society. When managers are promoted who have been with the MOI for a number of years they take for granted that they 'know it all'; consequently there appears to be a reluctance to accept additional training and fear of innovating either in the form of ideas or structure to support their new organisational change.

Another potential reason or cause of change failure within the MOI could be attributed to strong resistance to change by some employees. The MOI and its agencies, under the leadership of the Minister of Interior since 2002, have been implementing new strategies and new public management approaches within the public service agencies. It has been observed within the MOI that there is some discrepancy over the implementation of technology and modern working practices. Inspectorate reports indicate that within the same building there are departments which use technology and are meeting the new performance targets and indicators while other sections or departments are still manually processing administrative tasks and failing to meet the strategic targets.

In view of the issues listed above, it can be argued that current organisational readiness strategies for change have fallen short of achieving their purpose. Despite the huge efforts and investments, there are still many shortcomings related to

ineffective leadership incumbency and resistance to change which this study aims to address.

### 1.3 Background of the study

#### 1.3.1 An overview of key literature

Extensive research has been conducted on the topic of change management and readiness to change. The literature abounds in models and strategies for successful change (Kelman, 2009; Isett, et al. 2012; Piening, 2013; Karp and Helgø, 2008; McNulty and Ferlie, 2004). Earlier useful studies carried out include Beer and Nohira, 2000; Teicher, 1992; Lansbury and Davis, 1992; Lawler, 1999, and Allen et al 2007. Much of this change management literature is designed to provide managers with recommendations to deliver effective change for their organisations. The boom in change management studies has generated many strategies and concepts providing useful insights and benefitting both researchers and decision-makers. However, many of these models and strategies for implementing change are too abstract and overlook the political regime changes and organisational environments which are still holding to traditional Islamic values such as in the UAE.

In the world of business, change is a constant occurrence. Customers' habits and preferences are changing and so are their needs and demands, financial markets are changing their rules, and governments are changing their laws. So change is everywhere and organisations are constantly introducing regular changes in their governance, policies and delivery of public services (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004;

Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). Efforts to implement such organisational changes pose a considerable challenge for public sector organisations (Kelman, 2009; Isett, et al. 2012; Piening, 2013; Karp and Helgø, 2008; McNulty and Ferlie, 2004).

Despite the importance of organisational change for public management practice, organisational change is generally under-researched as a challenging implementation problem in public management research (Stewart and Kringas, 2003). While many studies have focused on change in the public sector, the public management literature has considerable limitations from the perspective of the implementation of organisational change.

Although the importance of managing change and readiness for change have been extensively recognised and intensely debated by scholars, the bulk of the research examines change management processes and employees' reactions to change within business organisations with little research on public sector services. The literature covers various debates on the role of leadership regarding the most effective approach to managing change, whether it is planned or emergent. Kanter et al. (1992) and Kotter (1996), despite the dated time frame of their works, seem to dominate the debate. Their guidelines and models for organisations on how to effectively implement change and manage the transition period, have been adapted and developed further by many researchers. In recent literature, change has become synonymous with standard business practice and organisations are forced to change in order to remain competitive. They either adapt to the fast growing changes in their environment or go under.

Change can be defined as the process of transitioning from one state to another (Newton, 2007). In contrast radical change is, according to Lee (2011), often referred to as transformation. Newton (2007) finds that the challenging aspect of change is that many people are involved and many people are impacted by it. He argues “successful change requires adapting the way people work and behave, their skills capabilities, and even their way of thinking and their attitudes.” (Newton 2007:5) Other research highlighted the extent to which leaders have the right attributes in implementing change. In recent years, researchers shifted their attention to the aspects of the leader’s behaviour and change management, and the impact of these on employee performance and organisational outcomes (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

In short, there are various divergent and even conflicting views on what constitutes change and change readiness. It has become almost a cliché of the change management literature to claim that a single definition of change is yet to be agreed. In addition, there are divergent and conflicting descriptions of the nature and drivers of change. Many academic studies fell short of producing empirical evidence of what they are studying, and the practitioners are not sure whether change should be spontaneous or planned or a combination of both.

This study examines the MOI readiness to change, the strategies deployed and what the rate of success is in preparing employees for change. Within the Arab context, the demand for change is persistently reiterated by people. It is well-documented that power does not change hands frequently in Arab countries.

Therefore any attempt at introducing change constitutes important challenges for organisations and for their leaders at all levels, in addition to the immense pressure being exerted from external and internal factors in the UAE such as social, economic and legislative changes to meet people's needs. This means the MOI leaders often have to change the way they routinely do their jobs in order to respond and deal with the new challenges (Herold and Fedor, 2008; Martins et al, 2005). Failure to manage change effectively may reduce organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing, and damage managers' careers (Business Week, 2005; Herold and Fedor, 2008).

The gap within the current literature stems from the fact that there is extensive research on change readiness strategies and change drivers in western countries, but change management as a research area within the Middle East, particularly within the UAE, remains a topic to be explored. Much research on change management takes a prescriptive stance, arguing for and against certain change drivers and constraints. This study, by contrast, takes a critical perspective and provides an opportunity for in-depth research in managing change within the Ministry of Interior in the UAE, providing different outlooks and perspectives into change management, therefore expanding the literature to benefit future academic research and decision-makers.

#### 1.4 Rationale of the study

This study examines the problems experienced and the challenges faced by the MOI in terms of change readiness and the role of leadership in implementing

strategic change. This study is worth undertaking owing to the leading position and often sensitive nature of the services provided by the MOI. In order to maintain continuity of stability, safety and prosperity for Emirati citizens, leadership commitment, competence and readiness are essential for implementing successful change. The rationale for undertaking this study is to enhance the importance and understanding of the change process. It will outline the skills required to initiate, achieve and embed change. In addition it outlines a concrete action plan to bring about effective change within the MOI.

This study reviews the established theories, models and strategies for effective change readiness to determine the factors contributing towards better transition to change. The limited research conducted in the UAE, into effective management of the change process for employees, provides further evidence for the need of this study. This research aims to bring fresh insights into managing such a change within the public sector, therefore enhancing the literature for future research as well as informing and raising awareness of decision-makers on change readiness and the role of leadership in order to benefit all the key stakeholders within the MOI.

The study will also determine the forces of resistance to change from leaders during change, how this influences their role during change and how their role could contribute to successful change. The findings of the research can be valuable input for management, change agents and others involved in change processes, as it may show how the leadership can play their part in conducting successful organisational change. The findings of this study will also shed light on our understanding of

organisational change processes and the role played within them by leadership resistance to change. Currently, the roles of leaders in change processes are mainly regarded as that of facilitators of change. This perspective tends to disregard the reality that leaders are also undergoing change themselves. It is this intersection of being both a facilitator of change and the subject of change that could potentially enhance our understanding of change processes and why these fail. Therefore the researcher is justified in selecting this research area due to the limitations and lack of similar studies in general across the Middle East and the UAE in particular.

### 1.5 Research Objectives

- 1) To critically review the theories and concepts related to change management and readiness for change.
- 2) To identify the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within the MOI.
- 3) To analyse the existing strategic plans and measures for change readiness within the MOI.
- 4) To investigate whether the MOI uses formal change management techniques to ensure the success of change initiatives.
- 5) To find out what practical measures can be taken to prepare staff for change.
- 6) To assess the perceptions and views of MOI leaders about the change readiness.
- 7) To make recommendations based on the findings of this study to deliver and implement successful change initiatives within the MOI.



## 1.6 Research Questions

- 1) What are the theories and concepts related to change management and readiness for change?
- 2) What are the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within the MOI?
- 3) How may the current changes in the Arab world affect the MOI?
- 4) What practical measures can be taken to prepare staff for change?
- 5) What are the main sources of resistance for leadership which impede the implementation of change?
- 6) What are the perceptions and views of MOI leaders about the change readiness?
- 7) What are the recommendations based on the findings of this study to deliver and implement successful change initiatives within the MOI?

This study takes the view that leadership support and effective readiness to change are the keys to successful change transition. The role of leaders is to offer direction to their followers, get them to share their vision for the institution, and aim to create the conditions for them to achieve results. This study will assess the MOI level of readiness and capability to change and understand how to benchmark this against best practice.

## 1.7 Structure of this study

This study examines the readiness to change at the MOI in the UAE, the strategies adopted to implement change and what the success rate is in preparing the employees for change. The research will consist of seven chapters.

Chapter One outlines the research study and introduces the thesis in terms of its objectives, the research questions, and an overview of key literature related to change. The nature of the problem is also clearly formulated.

Chapter Two provides an overview of the research context focusing on the UAE and the MOI, highlighting the history, political, economic and socio-cultural aspects of the UAE, justifying why change management is important and worth addressing from an organisational point of view.

Chapter Three provides a critical literature review focusing mainly on key concepts, such as defining change, and contrasts and compares relevant debates, concepts and theories related to change and readiness to change. It will also highlight the limitations and gaps in the literature.

Chapter Four provides a discussion of the appropriate methodologies adopted for this study and outlines the methods used for the data collection to achieve the objectives of this research. Within the context of the MOI, the justification for the research philosophy will be given and the research instruments and strategy that are adopted will be discussed. Details of how the researcher selected the sampling population will also be provided.

Chapter Five provides a description and analysis of the primary data that have been collected. There will be a schematic analysis of the findings from the questionnaires and interviews and a comparison of the data. There will be a presentation of the quantitative findings that have been derived from the questionnaire and the findings from the interview themes.

Chapter Six discusses the results of the analysis undertaken in order to achieve the research objectives. Following a summary of the findings, these will then be compared to the existing literature and a discussion then provided in terms of the implications for practice and the possible issues for management.

Chapter Seven draws conclusions and presents key findings that have been obtained from the data. There will also be a discussion of the limitations of the research. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings of the research overall, the contribution made to current knowledge and an outline of the potential areas for future research in the field along with reasoned implications and recommendations.

### 1.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter highlights the different phases of the research. A brief overview of the background to the research is provided, followed by a review of the literature. It also formulates the nature of the problem to be addressed by this study and justifies the rationale and importance of undertaking the study. It sets the research questions and aim and objectives of the study. Finally, it outlines the structure of the research.

## Chapter Two

### Research Context

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide background information about the research context of this study. The UAE, the Arab world's second largest economy, is set to finish 2013 at 4.5 per cent growth. Thirty years ago the UAE was one of the least developed countries of the world. Today, it has achieved an income level comparable to that of the industrialised nations.

At the outset of 2013, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has established itself as a solid federation with many positive attributes in state building and overall development. Backed by a windfall in oil revenues over the last ten years, the country has taken advantage of its excellent economic position to achieve unprecedented economic and social development – to the point that aspects of the country's progress may be considered a model for other countries to follow. This model character comes from being able to combine governmental control and direction with the virtues of neoliberalism. In terms of its market economy status, the UAE has made vast advances since the establishment of the country, ranking today among the highly developed nations in all leading indices. In regional affairs, the UAE has been a frontrunner in terms of liberalisation of trade policy and has placed a premium on macroeconomic stability backed by a well-developed financial sector and strong social safety nets that have combined to provide the country with a

variety of output strengths. The country's rulers have also placed particular emphasis on building up the education sector in order to better balance labour market needs with educational output, while, at the same time, not forgetting about the importance of sustainable development through the fostering of an environmental policy that promotes renewable technologies and a wider diversification of the economy.

This chapter takes account of the fact that economic development cannot be separated from the institutional, social, cultural, economic and political context. It also takes into account the all-important human factor, both as a goal and a source of economic development.

## 2.2 UAE Vision 2021

The UAE's has articulated a national strategic plan - Vision 2021 to become "among the best countries in the world" by 2021 - the nation's Golden Jubilee Year. It seeks to do so as a cohesive, resilient economy, bounded by its identity, with the highest standards of living in a nurturing and sustainable environment. The vision identifies four thematic areas: "United in Responsibility; United in Destiny; United in Knowledge and United in Prosperity," and underscores the fact that people are at the core of development (UAE VISION 2021)

## 2.3 UAE Achievements and Changes

The UAE is a land of superlatives. The Guinness World Records, the global authority on record-breaking achievements, confirmed the Burj Khalifa as the 'tallest

man-made structure on land ever' which stands at a record-breaking 828 metres and the 'highest restaurant', Atmosphere, situated on Level 122 at a height of 441.3 metres from the ground. Dubai was also recognised as home to the 'largest shopping centre' with Dubai Mall covering a total area of 1,124,000 square meters and the 'longest driverless metro' with two lines totalling 74.694km operating entirely without drivers. The 'fastest roller coaster made from steel' is also based in the UAE at Ferrari World where it moves at speeds of 239.9 km/h at a 52 metre incline in less than 4.9 seconds. Another UAE record-breaking achievement is the 'most environmentally-friendly city', Masdar City in Abu Dhabi and is the world's first city designed to be zero-carbon and zero-waste. The entire city's power is generated from renewable resources and all waste material is recycled. Cars are banned in favour of electric, driverless, underground vehicles, meaning that the city's projected 50,000 citizens should leave no carbon footprint. Overall, the UAE is featured more than 100 times in the new Guinness World Records as record applications from the UAE have grown 130 per cent and the number of world record holders has grown 171 per cent in the past five years. (www.gulfnews.com Sept. 13)

The United Arab Emirates has won membership of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) Council for the third time in a row. The elections, held on 27 October 2014, witnessed strong competition from 18 countries on 13 memberships reserved for the Asia region out of 48 memberships constituting the ITU Council. The Emirates Identity Authority has won the SESAMES 2014 Award in the category of Identification/ID Cards/Health/E-Government. The award was won

by the authority for the "cutting edge innovation it demonstrated in the National Validation Gateway." (ITP.net 2014)

Etihad Airways, the national airline of the United Arab Emirates, has been named 'Airline of the Year' at the Arabian Business Achievement Awards 2014 in recognition of its outstanding performance, customer service levels and innovative developments over the past 12 months, It has also been named CAPA Airline of the Year at the CAPA Aviation Awards for Excellence 2014 held in Antwerp, Belgium. The CAPA Aviation Awards, the world's pre-eminent aviation strategy awards, are for strategic leadership in the aviation industry. (www.etihad.com Nov. 14)

Dubai will be hosting the World Expo 2020. Under the theme of "connecting minds, creating the future," Dubai is the first city in the MENASA region to host this highly celebrated international exhibition. To cap all this, the UAE is deemed the happiest Arab country and the 17th happiest in the world, according to a UN-commissioned report. The World Happiness Report (2013), published by the University of Columbia's Earth Institute, covers 156 countries/territories. It indicates the happiest countries tend to be high-income countries but beyond a certain level, extra income adds little to well-being. They also need a high degree of social equality, trust, and quality of governance as well as strength of social support, the absence of corruption and the degree of personal freedom. Another survey, the UAE Opinion Survey (August 2012) by the market researcher TNS Mena, gave the UAE a satisfaction rating of 91 per cent.

## 2.4 UAE Ranking in International Reports 2013

According to the following international reports, the UAE is ranked first in the GCC region:

The World Competitiveness Yearbook –

The report covers 60 countries and it analyses how nations and enterprises manage the totality of their competencies to achieve prosperity or profit.

Prosperity Index –

The report covers 142 countries and the index measures economic fundamentals health, freedom, governance, safety, education, entrepreneurial opportunity and social capita and how they influence a country's economic growth and the happiness of its citizens.

The Global Enabling Trade Report -

The report covers 132 countries and it measures the extent to which economies have developed institutions, policies, and services facilitating the free flow of goods over borders and to their destination.

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report -

The report covers 140 countries. Over the past five years, the World Economic Forum has involved experts and leaders from the sectors of aviation, travel and tourism in order to conduct an in-depth analysis of the competitiveness of the travel and tourism sector in the world economy.



The Global Innovation Index –

The report covers 142 countries and it measures innovation inputs and outputs using 84 indicators, of which are 60 hard data, 19 indices and 5 are survey questions.

Doing Business Report -

The report covers 189 countries and it measures 10 stages that affect the life cycle of a business from the start of the project till project closure.

Global Gender Gap Report -

The report covers 136 countries. The framework captures the magnitude of gender based inequalities, health-based criteria and provides rankings that allow for effective comparison of income groups and over time.

## 2.5 Economic and Institutional Constraints

The UAE, the world's eighth largest oil producer, maintains a free-market economy and is also one of the most politically stable and secure in the region. This ensures that the country has a robust competitive edge as the region's premier commercial hub and second largest economy.

Economic growth in the UAE is steady despite a short-lived hiatus as the global economy faltered. Recovery was helped by high oil prices, increased government spending and a resurgence in tourism, transport and trade. In addition, successful

restructuring of debt owed by high-profile companies, solidarity among the emirates and accommodative monetary and fiscal policies all played a role in bringing significant economic stability to the market. Following the dip in 2010, UAE GDP rose to US\$419 billion at the end of 2014, up 4.8 per cent on 2013. The IMF predicts GDP will continue to grow at a rate of 4 to 5 per cent over the next seven years. Despite high economic performance, inflation rates are expected to remain between 2 to 3 per cent. ([www.uaeinteract.com](http://www.uaeinteract.com))

## 2.6 Economic Diversification

Although oil has been the mainstay of the UAE economy and continues to contribute significantly to economic prosperity, a determined and far-seeing policy of economic diversification has ensured that non-oil sectors now account for 69 per cent of GDP, with oil supplying the remaining third.

Abu Dhabi's Economic Vision 2030 and Dubai's Strategic Plan 2015 are leading the drive towards diversification. The strategy is to increase investment in industrial and other export-oriented sectors, including heavy industry, transport, petrochemicals, tourism, information technology, telecommunications, renewable energy, aviation and space, and oil and gas services. Much has already been achieved in these fields, especially in satellite and telecommunications, the aviation sector and in renewable energy, and although short-term priorities have been altered to accommodate changing realities, the long-term strategy remains the same.

At the federal level, the UAE is pursuing its 2021 Vision, which aims to place innovation, research, science and technology at the centre of a knowledge-based, highly productive and competitive economy by the time of the federation's Golden Jubilee in 2021. Significantly, the jubilee year is also the target date for the launch of the first Arab-Islamic probe to Mars by the newly established Emirates Space Agency.

## 2.7 Political and Social Stability

Since its formation in 1971 the UAE has enjoyed political stability. The existing political structures appear to suit the tribal society of the UAE, and the distribution of huge oil revenues in the form of social and economic infrastructure, high salaries, a high standard of social services, such as health and education, has raised the standard of living for UAE citizens and considerably reduced the likelihood of internal political and social unrest. It is worth mentioning that the UAE government has maintained a relatively good record on human rights since the formation of the state. This in turn has promoted political and social stability.

The UAE is an active member of many regional and international associations such as the Arab League, the United Nations, the Non-Aligned Movement, the Arab Gulf Cooperation Council, and the Organisation of the Islamic Conference. Relations with many countries of the world, particularly the western democratic countries, have been traditionally warm. Political and social stability has gone hand in hand with

liberal trade policies and has paved the way for investment (domestic and international) in the industrial sector.

The keenness of UAE in providing support, assistance, comfort, welfare, and stability to the citizens, in addition to the sanctity of respecting and observing the law, is reflected in the climate of political and social stability and security enjoyed by UAE citizens as well as residents. The infrastructure, the social and legislative structure, and the incentives offered by UAE to investors constitute the favourable climate for attracting direct foreign investment. It also encourages technology transfer and advanced management methods and techniques, and opportunities for transferring expertise to the national workforce. The UAE was able to attract 342 projects in 2011, and incoming investments increased in value from US\$4 billion in 2009 to US\$9.6 billion in 2012. (MOE Annual Report 2013)

## 2.8 Oil and Mineral Resources

The United Arab Emirates' economy is highly dependent on the exports of oil and natural gas (40 percent of total exports). The UAE began to commercially produce oil in the 1960s, later than many of its neighbours in the Middle East. While many Gulf States chose to nationalise their oil production in the 1970s and early 1980s, UAE retained its 75-year concessions that established partnerships between the Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (ADNOC) and IOCs such as BP, ExxonMobil, Shell and Total. The onshore concession, which accounts for around 1.6 million bpd

of current production, expired at the start of 2014 and the offshore concession, is due to end in 2017. ([www.reedsmith.com](http://www.reedsmith.com) Jan.14)

There are three main upstream operators in Abu Dhabi—ADCO (Abu Dhabi Company for Onshore Oil Operations), ADMA-OPCO (Abu Dhabi Marine Operating Company) and ZADCO (Zakum Development Company)—and several smaller companies. Abu Dhabi's three upstream operators have a number of projects aimed at lifting overall production levels through this decade, investing over \$50 billion. The majority of these projects are expansions of existing fields. The UAE will continue to invest heavily in oil and gas output capacity to meet the growing global demand for energy products regardless of the current slump in world oil prices.

UAE has ambitious growth targets for 2020 and the country's crude output hit a record high last year. Among the seven small emirates in the United Arab Emirates, Abu Dhabi accounts for the vast majority of oil reserves and production, with Dubai trailing a distant second. Both onshore and offshore fields contribute to the UAE's crude output, which averaged 2.72 million bpd in 2013. While this is a historic record high for UAE, and just short of the current sustainable capacity of around 2.85 million bpd, the country hopes to boost production capacity to 3.5 million bpd by 2020. The UAE is investing more than US\$70 billion to raise the production capacity to 3.5 million barrels per day by 2017. Natural gas will remain the main source for generating electricity at 70 per cent by 2020, while nuclear power and renewable

energy will contribute 25 per cent and five per cent, respectively. The UAE also has an ambition to establish itself as a major regional bunker fuel hub at the Fujairah terminal, competing with Singapore and Rotterdam, and providing an export market for Gulf producers with a surplus of fuel oil. ([www.pipeline.com](http://www.pipeline.com) Nov 14)

## 2.9 Agricultural Resources

Agricultural land in the UAE was last measured at 6.81 in 2009, according to the World Bank. The former Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries (MAF) (current Ministry of Environment and Water - MOEW) has divided the area it covers (i.e. all the Emirates except Abu Dhabi) into three zones or districts as follows: Eastern (Fujairah and Sharjah), Central (Dubai, Part of Sharjah, Umm Al Quwein, Ajman and part of Ras Al Khaymah), and Northern (most of Ras Al Khaymah). The total number of farms in the UAE is 38,548 (2003), of which 60 percent in Abu Dhabi, 16 percent in the Central and Eastern zones and the remainder in the Northern zone. In each of the three zones it covers, the MAF has a centre staffed with engineers and technicians to support farmers. The services to farmers focus on the provision of subsidies, for example for cultivation (free of charge), crop protection (50 percent free with the exception of general campaigns which are totally free), veterinary services and fertilisers (50 percent free). This system of subsidies does not concern private companies specialised in the intensive production of vegetable crops. Some extension advisory services are also provided, but they deal mainly with agricultural practices; the number of agents is 46, 8, 13 and 13, respectively in Abu Dhabi, the Eastern, the Central and the Northern zones. ([www.tradingeconomics.com](http://www.tradingeconomics.com))

The Ministry of Environment and Water, inaugurated on December 2014 at the Agricultural Innovation Centre in Al-Dhaid, Sharjah, aims to promote the latest agricultural advancements and maintain the agricultural sector's sustainability in the UAE through state-of-the-art technological innovations, research work and relevant consultations. The Centre will coordinate with the best international centres specialising in agricultural technologies through the execution of joint scientific research and partnership programmes and schemes to develop the country's agricultural system.

The Agricultural Innovation Centre falls in line with the UAE Vision 2021, which is inspired by the National Work Programme of President His Highness Sheikh Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, and aims to position the UAE as one of the world's best countries by 2021. It will also collaborate with international organisations, authorities and industry experts, namely the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations and the International Centre for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (ICARDA). The Centre will cooperate with the International Centre for Biosaline Agriculture (ICBA), as well as participate in various joint studies covering local agricultural segments, such as a study on the effects of multiple levels of salinity on the production of some salinity-tolerant agricultural and pastoral crops.

Water conservation is crucial in UAE in the face of increasing demands from a growing population. Because the agriculture sector accounts for up to 75 per cent

of the country's annual water consumption, improving water management in that area offers great potential for reducing the overall amount of water consumed. Introducing smart irrigation technology that improves the efficiency of water use will not only help farmers to make their activities more profitable, but also increase the sustainability of agriculture in general.

## 2.10 Population and Labour Force

The UAE is expected to witness steady population growth over the next few years as it aims to become a regional hub in the Middle East. The total population in United Arab Emirates was last recorded at 9.4 million people in 2013. According to the World Urbanisation Prospects report released by the UN in 2013, the UAE's urban population is expected to amount to 7.9 million by 2020, growing at an average annual rate of 2.3 per cent between 2010 and 2020. Thus, a small indigenous population, a large expatriate population, and immense wealth generated by oil are the dominant socio-economic features of the UAE. In addition to population size and age composition, social factors in the UAE have a great impact in determining the size of the UAE labour force.

According to estimates based on the Labour Force Survey (by SCAD 2013) in the fourth quarter of 2013, the labour force constitutes 69.5 percent of the total population and approximately 83.3 percent of the population aged 15 years and above. Females account for 15.9 of the total labour force. The data further indicates that the economic dependency ratio reached 43.9%.



Regarding the structure of the labour force, a distribution by region shows the Abu Dhabi region is home to the largest proportion (61.2 percent) of the emirate's labour force, followed by Al Ain with 23.4 percent, and Al Gharbia with 15.4 percent. Data on the age structure of the labour force in 2013 indicate that the 25-29 age group accounted for the largest share (23.9 percent) of the labour force. A comparison by region reveals that Al Gharbia region has the highest refined economic participation rate (93.7), followed by the regions of Abu Dhabi (83.2 percent) and Al Ain (77.9 percent). (SCAD 2014)

### 2.11 Structural Changes in the UAE's Economy

Economic development can be perceived as change in the structure of the economy. Structural change refers to terms such as agricultural transformation, industrialisation, demographic transition, urbanisation, transformation of domestic demand and production, foreign trade, finance and employment.

The United Arab Emirates is one of the most developed countries in the Arab Gulf and has one of world's highest GDP per capita. The country still has a commodity-based economy, with shipments of oil and natural gas accounting for 40 percent of total exports and for 38 percent of GDP. Yet, in order to diversify the economy and reduce the dependence on oil revenues, the UAE has been making huge investments in the tourism, financial and construction sectors.

The 2030 Economic Policy calls for an industry clustering strategy based on sectors in which Abu Dhabi has a natural competitive advantage or an existing base or a critical mass of assets. As a result, sectors such as real estate and tourism, aviation, logistics, energy and media – among others – have begun to flourish.

A healthy financial services sector is not only identified as one of the nine pillars in the UAE Economic Vision 2030, but as illustrated in major cities globally, it is an integral component to developing and sustaining a diversified economy. The UAE has a robust and successful finance heritage – with a well-diversified portfolio across asset classes, geographies and sectors that all share the same deliberate and long term view of investment. ([www.breitbart.com](http://www.breitbart.com) March 14)

Manufacturing accounts for 6.1% of the real GDP in 2012, while the value added of the manufacturing activity at 2007 constant prices, increased to AED 41.5 billion in 2012 compared to AED 35 billion in 2007, registering an annual growth rate of 3.3% on average during the period (2007-2012). The growth rate of the activity in 2012 stood at 9.6% compared to 2011. This rate was nearly threefold the average annual growth rate during the period (2007-2012) and twice the growth rate of Abu Dhabi's real GDP in 2012. (Abu Dhabi Chamber, April 2014)

The contribution of extractive industry activity to the real GDP of Abu Dhabi dropped to around 52% in 2012, compared to 52.9% in 2011 as a result of the growth of non-oil activities at a greater rate than the growth of oil and gas activity in 2012. This is an indicator of the gradual success of the policy of diversification of the Emirate. The value added of extractive activity at constant 2007 prices rose from AED 339.6 billion in 2011 to AED 352.6 billion in 2012. However, the growth rate of the value added of activity decreased from 11.7% in 2011 to 3.8% in 2012 owing to the increase in oil production during 2012 at a lower rate than the increase in 2011. However, the growth rate of the activity in the 2012 remained above the average annual growth rate of activity during the period (2007-2012), which was 2.8%. The gross fixed capital formation in the industrial extractive activity at current prices registered a growth rate of 3.7% in 2012, which was less than the 24.7% average annual growth rate of the activity during the period (2007-2012). [REDACTED]

The UAE Vision 2021 that was launched recently stands as an ambitious plan for achieving economic and social goals, and reaching the set expectations in all areas, as it aims at achieving annual 5% real growth in non-oil sectors. The agenda aims at raising the contribution of SMEs to reach 70% of GDP, doubling the rate of employed nationals in the private sector and the rate of Emiratisation in the private sector, achieving advanced positions in the index of business leadership, the index

of innovation, the index of the knowledge and doubling the rate of spending on scientific research, as well as the indices of transport, communication, water and electricity to advanced global rankings and paying great attention to the social dimension through advancing health, and services to the highest standards and levels. (UAE Vision 2021)

## 2.12 Structural Change in the UAE's Employment Patterns

The service sector, which includes trade, restaurants, hotels, transport, storage, communications, finance, insurance, real estate, business services, community, social and personal services, ranks first in size of employment (58 per cent of the labour force), which reflects its powerful dominance in the UAE.

The latest Employment Index (August 14) says that the BFSI (Banking, Financial Services and Insurance) sector witnessed a good 17% year-on-year growth and is currently being placed as the top-growth sector. Following the booming banking industry, it is the hospitality sector that is playing a pivotal role in the economic growth and diversification in many parts of the Gulf region, dominantly including the UAE. The sector has exhibited significant growth in the UAE industrial analysis.

Expo Dubai 2020 will, among other advantages, lead to an increase in the number of building developments undertaken in the country in order to create the appropriate infrastructure, as well as create jobs in the tourism sector. This growth

will certainly trickle down to other industries too. The UAE travel and tourism sector is expected to create 245,000 jobs directly by 2023, registering an annual growth rate of 4.1%. The analysis also found that capital investment in the sector is expected to rise annually by an average of 4.5%, to reach AED143.4 billion in 2023. This would increase travel and tourism's share of the UAE's total private investments to about 23.2%, up from 22.8% in 2013. In 2012, the estimated total contribution of UAE travel and tourism to employment was 383,500 jobs, representing 11.3% of total employment, as compared to 363,100 jobs in 2011. This is forecast to increase by 2.6% in 2013 to 393,500 jobs. (Khaleej Times May 14)

Over the next 10 years, the sector is expected to create 245,000 jobs directly by 2023 registering an average annual growth rate of about 4.1%. This includes employment by hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services; it also includes the activities of the restaurant and leisure industries directly supported by tourists.

### 2.13 Industrialisation

In the process of economic development, industrialisation has been considered crucial to the transition. Industrialisation is linked to the idea of stimulating forward and backward linkages with the rest of the economy. In addition, industrialisation creates new employment opportunities. In common with other developing countries, the UAE, whose economy has been significantly dependent on the export of one

primary product, namely oil, pursues a strategy of industrialisation to diversify the sources of its national income and reduce its dependence on oil.

The main factors which have acted as a constraint on UAE industrial development are limited raw materials, and the size of the domestic market. On the other hand, the abundance of natural mineral resources, the ready availability of financial capital, a well-established infrastructure, a flexible labour and employment policy, the availability of cheap energy, industrial zones and various incentives in legislation, plus political and social stability have been the main resource and incentive for UAE industrialisation.

The industrial sector in the UAE grew by 11 percent in 2011 continuing to maintain its position as second largest component of GDP, following the hydrocarbon sector. The chemicals segment is expected to be the fastest growing segment; growing at a CAGR of 11.3% from 2014 to 2020. The growth in this segment is attributed to the rapid industrialisation and upcoming business utilities in the UAE. Such high growth is the result of public and private investment in manufacturing projects.

(Transparency Market Research Sept.14)

## 2.14 Human Development Indicators

The main human development indicators in the UAE can be analysed at two levels:  
a) nationally over time and b) internationally (or cross sectionally), comparing

performance with both developing and industrial countries. The first level, nationally over time, enables the exploration of the rate, structure and character of human development in the UAE. The latter, internationally, enables the examination of the degree of human development in the UAE compared to both developing and developed countries.

At the national level, the UAE has achieved impressive improvements in many human development indicators during the past three decades. At the international level, the UAE has recorded high levels of development bearing comparison with the average of the developing countries, and even with some individual industrialised countries.

The UAE performs well in the Human Development Report which was released by the United Nations Development Programme in Tokyo on July 2014. The UAE's Human Development Index, the main measure for the UN-sanctioned report, has improved to 0.827 from last year's 0.825, placing the Emirates 40th among 187 countries measured. Life expectancy increased from 76.7 to 76.8 years. The biggest change has been the expected time in school for a UAE citizen. It is now 13.3 years, compared with 12 last year. The country was ranked highest in the region in average period of schooling for women, at almost 11 years. Key areas such as women's empowerment, youth engagement, employment, developing

human capital and resilience to climate-related and human disasters were among the top priorities for UAE policymakers. (Human Development Report [REDACTED])

### 2.15 Educational Institutions

Great nations and societies are built on great education. Taking a cue from this, the UAE is prioritising the sector and seeking huge investments towards developing state-of-the-art schools, higher education institutes, universities and vocational training centres. To demonstrate its commitment towards education, the UAE has allocated a fund of AED 9.8 billion (USD 2.67 billion) for school and higher education in the 2014-2016 budget. Current tertiary enrolment of 115,510 students (2013 figures) is projected to rise to nearly 154,000 by 2019, with primary and secondary enrolment jumping from 785,229 to over 956,000 during the same period. (GETEX April 2014)

As a part of the intended objective, the UAE is seeking huge investments towards developing universities, institutions and research centres. One of the initial initiatives in this regard has been Dubai Knowledge Village (DKV), established in 2003 as a free zone for foreign universities and institutions. However, due to space limitation in DKV and increasing growth in the education sector, Dubai International Academic City (DIAC) was established in 2007 to facilitate more local and international universities with state-of-the-art modern facilities. At present, DIAC caters for over 20,000 students from 125 nationalities offering around 400 education programmes.



DIAC has 21 International Branch Campuses of various universities, which is the largest number in any one location in the world. (DIAC Feb. 2014)

The UAE's higher education landscape can be broadly classified into four types of education institutes; local, federal, foreign and vocational institutes which offer a range of courses such as technology, law, business, humanities, media and design etc.

The present socio-economic dimension in UAE, especially in Dubai and Abu Dhabi can offer numerous opportunities for the education sector to expand and flourish. World Exposition 2020, is expected to generate 277,000 direct jobs. Such events with huge demand potential, call upon universities to extend their academic and training portfolios to train and equip students to fill the gap. (EXPO 2020 Dubai website)

Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 is aimed at structured diversification of the emirate's economy into a range of key sectors with education being one of them. The plan seeks massive investment for the education sector to develop world class universities, training institutions, research and innovation centres. The latest figures from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics show the UAE sends about 8,500

students abroad for tertiary-level study; it hosts over 54,000 in return, primarily from countries in Asia and the Gulf region. (UNESCO Institute for Statistics website)

## 2.16 Health Services

The United Arab Emirates is actively expanding its national healthcare system to meet the growing needs of its people and support economic diversification, with leading U.S. medical centres, corporations and academic institutions playing vital roles in the process. The UAE has created an infrastructure of healthcare services increasingly recognised as on par with international standards and the health issues that affect Emiratis today are those faced by many in the developed world. Conditions commonly caused by sedentary lifestyles and fast food consumption, such as obesity and diabetes, are on the rise, as are diseases found among the aging population of Emirati nationals, such as heart disease and cancer. The UAE healthcare sector is divided between public and private healthcare providers and the system has been striving to keep up with immigration-driven population growth and struggling to control rises in per-capita healthcare spending caused by increasing levels of affluence and chronic disease. In fact, healthcare development and spending is emphasised as a key pursuit in the UAE's federal diversification plan. The UAE Vision 2021 states that "the UAE [will] ... invest continually to build world-class healthcare infrastructure, expertise and services in order to fulfil citizens' growing needs and expectations." Further, the Emirate of Abu Dhabi explains in their Vision 2030 plan that "The growth of the medical sector is dependent on large investments in technology, which Abu Dhabi is in a position to make ... Abu Dhabi will have to attract qualified doctors and medical scientists as well as train local

medical staff in order to develop this sector sufficiently.” Dubai’s 2015 plan similarly focuses on international U.S. healthcare providers to “improve health system planning to ensure service availability, accessibility, and quality.”

What sets the UAE apart from other countries in the Gulf is that the federal and individual-emirate governments are backing this vision with significant and strategic investments intended to drive the industry forward. In 2013 alone, UAE healthcare expenditures reached an estimated \$16.8bn. There are currently 104 hospitals throughout the seven Emirates and the World Health Organisation reports that there are currently 19.3 physicians and 40.9 nurses and midwives per 10,000 persons.

(UAE Healthcare Sector Report 2014)

## 2.17 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter highlighted the research context of this study providing brief background information concerning the country’s political and economic environment and the country’s vision of change in order to achieve excellence. This study examines the challenges faced by the MOI in successfully managing change, and the level of readiness of staff for change. The following chapter will provide a critical review of relevant models and theories in regard to change management, identifying trends and recurring themes used to support the preparation of staff for change.

## Chapter Three

### Literature Review

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to review the literature related to change management and organisational readiness for change, in line with the research objectives set by this study. Evaluating extant literature is useful for contextualising the intended research, identifying actual gaps and clarifying how the change phenomenon has already been studied. The purpose of the present literature review is therefore to provide a broad overview of current thinking in relation to theoretical change models, approaches to change, change drivers and key factors for enabling and managing change in general, and the extent to which this pool of information about managing change can benefit the Ministry of Interior (MOI) in the UAE in the current climate of uncertainty and instability in the Arab world. This provides an evidence base and a strong platform for supporting the change plan. Therefore this literature review can be used as a resource to guide managers and staff at the MOI UAE in planning and implementing successful change initiatives. It can also act as a key reference point to influence and shape change interventions in different MOI departments.

A review of previous work may point towards potential conceptual and methodological advantages or disadvantages (McGhee et al., 2007). Over the years, a substantial literature on change management has been produced. This study aims to find out whether this broad literature has served the change process

in practice for the UAE to benefit from the vast change processes that have been initiated and make use of the multiple theories and models that have been proposed. Some critics argue that the abundance of change management literature has had but a modest impact on the practice. Other studies refer negatively to the many change efforts claiming that change efforts are wasteful as in most organisations, two out of three change initiatives fail. Serkin (2005: 110) cynically points out that, citing the widely quoted saying by the French novelist Jean-Baptiste Alphonse Karr, “Plus ça change, plus c’est la même chose,” meaning “The more things change, the more they stay the same,” while clearly admitting that “managing change is tough, but part of the problem is that there is little agreement on what factors most influence transformation initiatives.” Despite this criticism, change continues to make the headlines and generate interest in both academic research and organisational and business settings.

This chapter examines change management and readiness for change from different perspectives. The literature shows that the dominant ideas regarding change within the public service remain largely untested or challenged. As a result, the present chapter starts with the general debate and interpretation of organisational change as a concept, and then critically reviews the different models of organisational change, followed by the concept and implementation of change within the UAE public sector in the Ministry of Interior (MOI) in line with the government vision of excellence. Organisations need to be proactive and receptive to change in order to adapt and cope with the constant demographic diversity in their environment (Bouckenooghe et al. 2009). The MOI has been proactively

promoting organisational change for the successful implementation of the vision of excellence by the UAE leadership. The review will then assess the readiness for change by analysing constraints to change and the elements of resistance to change and the strategies for overcoming this resistance. An emphasis will be placed on the crucial steps that are required to take forward the successful implementation of organisational change. Factors that are the core issue in a change management application will be discussed.

### 3.2 Change Management

Extensive research has been conducted on the topic of change management and readiness for change (Kelman, 2009; Isett, et al. 2012; Piening, 2013; Karp and Helgø, 2008; McNulty and Ferlie, 2004). Earlier useful studies were also carried out creating a platform for the current research activities about change management. These include: Beer and Nohira, 2000; Teicher, 1992; Lansbury and Davis, 1992; Lawler, 1999; Allen et al, 2007; Lewin, 1957; Kanter, 1983. Although much of the existing change management literature is designed to provide managers with recommendations to deliver effective change for their organisations, there is a reminder in almost all change publications that, “many change programmes fail to meet expectations.” (Oakland and Tanner, 2006:28). Moran and Brightman (2001) argue that change management is a continuous process of updating and retuning of the organisation’s vital sectors. The same authors define change management as “the process of continually renewing an organisation’s direction, structures, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers”. (Moran and Brightman, 2001: 66)

Change is deemed by many as compulsory in order to survive in today's volatile business environment. Management guru, Tom Peters, rightly points out that 'change or die' has been used as a motto for countless organisations (Jick and Peiperl, 2011). More recently, the argument has even been put forward that, if change is seen as the basic manifestation of (social) reality, existing research practices need to be completely overhauled (Nayak 2008; Tsoukas and Chia 2002; Sminia, 2009). Studying organisational change and development goes beyond the construction and identification of event sequences. It is worth noting that research into organisational change involves both the content and the process. According to Burke (2002:14), the distinction between the two is important because the content of change, represents the 'what', and provides the vision and overall direction for the change, whereas the process of change refers to the 'how', and is concerned with implementation and adoption. 'Content has to do with purpose, mission, strategy, values, and what the organisation is all about – or should be about. Process has to do with how the change is planned, launched, more fully implemented, and once into implementation, sustained.'

Change can be large or small, evolutionary or revolutionary, sought after or resisted (Hayes, 2010). Change is a part of personal and organisational life, both at an operational and strategic level (Todnem, 2005). From another perspective change, according to Albert Einstein, is a state of mind, "The world as we have created it is a process of our thinking. It cannot be changed without changing our thinking."

Hayes (2007:30) believes that change management is about modifying or 'transforming organisations in order to maintain or improve their effectiveness'.

More often than not, the term change management is defined and interpreted differently by various key authors. Although the range of views appear to be diverse, they all seem to be in tune with one another. According to Song (2009) change is "a systematic approach to dealing with change, both from the perspective of an organisation and on the individual level" (Song, 2009:7). Hiatt and Creasey (2002) state that change management derives from the convergence of two fields of thought:

- An engineer's approach to improving business performance
- A psychologist's approach to managing the human side of change

In the same line of thought, Senior (2002) claims that due to the importance of organisational change, its management is becoming a highly required managerial skill. Similarly, Graetz (2000: 550) argues that:

'Against a backdrop of increasing globalisation, deregulation, the rapid pace of technological innovation, a growing knowledge workforce, and shifting social and demographic trends, few would dispute that the primary task for management today is the leadership of organisational change.'

This boom in change management studies has also generated many theories and models providing useful insights and benefitting both researchers and organisational decision makers. Shaw (2014) quotes ProSci®, The World Leader in Change Management. ProSci® defines change management as follows:



“Change management is the process, tools and techniques to manage the people-side of change to achieve the required business outcome.” In the same vein, The Society for Human Resource Management (2004) defines change management as

“The systematic approach and application of knowledge, tools and resources to deal with change. Change management means defining and adopting corporate strategies, structures, procedures and technologies to deal with changes in external conditions and the business environment.”

In the light of the many nuanced and often ambiguous explanations of the term ‘change’, it could be argued that the change management concept is far from straightforward because the phenomenon of change management is neither well-explained nor clearly defined. However, despite their apparent diversity, most change management strategies/models are similar in terms of form and components each containing strengths and weaknesses. It is also worth stating that the broad research on organisational change tends to make little distinction between change management in the private and the public sector with the bulk of literature focusing on the private organisations. There seems to be a scarcity (Fernandez and Rainey 2006) of studies that have directly investigated change within public sector organisations. (Stewart and Kringas 2003; Klarner, et al. 2008). Werner (2007), believes that organisational change refers to a transformational process where a company moves from the known to the unknown. For the purpose of this study, change management is the process of introducing changes to a system or an organisation in a structured way, often in line with strategic planning, organisational restructuring and operational improvements.

This study takes the view that change is a slippery concept with differences and ambiguity in explaining and interpreting change and which is influenced by various external as well as internal factors. Many definitions of change exist in the literature, to the point that everyone seems to have their view of what constitutes change. This means that the often-debated differences between the public and private sectors could be pertinent in this case. (Rusaw 2007; Karp and Helgo 2008). Change is understood to mean doing things differently in order to deal with emerging circumstances and changes in the organisation. Change in any department of the organisation may have a direct bearing on the whole organisation. Hortho (2008) believes that change is viewed as an objective fact that happens to the organisation, either as a result of external drivers, or as an outcome of management choice.

Given the broad literature that exists on change management, it may be assumed there is little left to say. However, there are still several gaps which would justify the value of exploring the literature in more detail to determine the nature and extent of evidence that relates specifically to change within the public sector and to find out whether some well-established and tried change models in the west could be useful in the context of MOI UAE. Change as Guy and Beaman (2004: 33) see it, is no longer considered as something special. They argue that:

Expectations have shifted from seeing change as an extraordinary event to seeing it as a permanent condition of business life. Similarly, change management is increasingly perceived as an ongoing business function rather than a focused response to an occasional need for reorganisation.

In the words of Balchin (1981:248) 'Nothing is static, the process of change is never-ending. Human beings will often accelerate the rate of change or, conversely, slow down the process with conservation measures.'

Although the term change management is widely used, and its generic meaning appears to be understood by many as involving some kind of makeover or restructuring, in practice change comes in different shapes and forms and is used in various ways, by different people, in different settings, for diverse purposes, and often produces different outcomes and success rates. In short the diversity of definitions and interpretations of change management shows the depth and interest this topic area generates. It also reflects today's ever evolving business environment characterised by rapid pace of change, uncertainty, and complexity. Change management is often viewed as a regular approach and application of knowledge, tools and resources to achieve the benefits of change.

This study starts from the premise that UAE has been engaged in a massive and intensive development programme for quite some time. This has brought about progress in many areas which in turn has produced many challenges. Moreover, many models and strategies for implementing change are too abstract and overlook the political regime changes and the cultural and organisational environments which are still holding to traditional Islamic values such as in the UAE. It is a platitude to suggest that each region and each culture has its own way of doing business. To be successful, change initiatives in the Arab world need to

understand and take into account its culture and people's mind-sets. The model of change to be adopted must be home-grown by experts based on and shaped by factors on the ground.

### 3.3 The Nature and Rationale for Change

It is highly pertinent to understand the implicit and explicit meaning of change as often people associate it with changing the structure or vision of an organisation. Change has become an accepted facet of the modern workplace (Weber and Weber, 2001; McLagan, 2002) and it has also become a popular cliché through the statement that 'change is inevitable and constant'. In this sense the occurrence of change in organisational life is now widely believed to be necessary and for the better. No one is immune from change and that change is a process that generally affects all participants in an organisation either positively or negatively. At its best, it can bring together employees within an organisation to achieve a common goal or vision. On the other hand it can be disruptive, divisive and a source of conflict. The motivation for change is not always the same. The reasons put forward by researchers about the importance of organisational change differ widely. Some argue that change is good for business success and sustainability. Others suggest that change provides the organisation with the much needed competitive edge, and some claim that change is simply a means of survival. The rationale for change should come with the 'solutions' proposed, since different motivations for change lead to different strategies for change. Thus there are different purposes for change which require different strategies and lead to different outcomes. For

change to stand a chance of success, it must be clearly driven by a purpose that everyone can understand.

There is also another view which suggests that organisational change mostly aims to change the organisational state from the undesirable “before” to an improved or desirable “after” state (Ragsdell, 2000:48). Thus change is a necessary undertaking of every organisation for technological, commercial and political purposes. This argument is supported by Oakland and Tanner (2006:64) who point out that the reason for change: “Developing technology, the changing needs of stakeholders and economic pressures all contribute to the need for organisations worldwide to significantly modify the way they do things.”

It can therefore be concluded that, no organisation is static. All organisations undergo change at some point to comply with either government policies that require a particular course of action or to respond to the need for continuous improvement process. Change may be required to enhance self-management of an organisation and may be proactive or reactive. A proactive change implies a plan of action to prepare for expected or unexpected future challenges. Generally it is initiated by management. A reactive change may be an instinctive response to a change taking place in the environment (Lacovini, 1993: 35) “The human side of organisation change”.

Different motives trigger change initiatives. According to Benjamin and Mabey (1993:181): “while the primary stimulus for change remains those forces in the

external environment, the primary motivator for how change is accomplished resides with the people within the organisation.” Similarly, Khatri and Gulati (2010: 131-2) indicate that organisational change occurs ‘because of several reasons some of which are external to the company and others are internal to it. External causes can be some of the following:

1. Government policies
2. Change in the economy
3. Competition
4. Cost of raw materials
5. Pressure groups
6. Technology push
7. Scarcity of labour
8. Social pressures
9. Legal requirements, etc.

Internal causes can be such as the following:

1. Change in leadership
2. Implementation of new technology
3. Decline in profitability
4. Changes in employee profile
5. Union actions
6. Low morale etc.”

As can be seen, organisational change has many faces and comes in many shapes and manifestations, driven by societal or technical, environmental factors and motives. Although the authors are different, the ideas put forward regarding the justification for change appear to be broadly saying the same thing. Hortho (2008: 725) confirms the idea that change is a natural process driven by several reasons either external or internal drivers.

The UAE is in a state of increasingly rapid change, driven by a variety of interlinked factors and as the MOI UAE represents one of the most sensitive offices in the country, the rationale for change is more pertinent than any other state institution. In the case of the MOI, the motivation for change can be summed up as follows:

- 1) To set better coordinating arrangements between the different departments to enhance service delivery through creating collective response systems.  
(Thompson, 2008)
- 2) To sustain economic development and reduce costs.
- 3) To conduct fresh initiatives for enhanced performance.
- 4) To respond to current turmoil in the Arab world.

### 3.4 Defining Change

The conclusion that can be drawn so far is that organisational change has always attracted plenty of research interest as demonstrated by the vast number of studies examining employees' and management attitudes towards change (Caldwell et al ,

2004; Fugate, et al. 2008; Oreg, 2006; Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). These studies focus on investigating the relationships, employees' perceptions and views towards change (Fugate et al., 2008; Wanberg and Banas, 2000; Shapiro and Kirkman, 1999; Axtell et al., 2002; Oreg, 2006; Amiot, et al. 2006). Others concentrate on the task of managing change and steps for leading successful change.

Although change may mean different things to different people, change is not something new for managers. In their line of duty, managers deal with change on a daily basis through decision-making on a small or large scale and by acting and reacting to solve problems in various situations. Nevertheless, change appears as vague and subtle in practice as in the literature. The term change conveys the idea of to renovate or transform an existing thing by adding some values or reducing or shedding something. Thus change may be defined in concrete terms as making, changing or doing things differently. For instance, Fincham and Rhodes (2005) refer to change as a transformation process, by suggesting that change is the process of organisational transformation – especially with regard to human aspects and overcoming resistance to change. On the other hand, Lines (2005: 10) views the change process as 'a deliberately planned change in an organisation's formal structure, systems, processes or product-market domain intended to improve the attainment of one or more organisational objectives.'



Similarly, Fullan (1982: 41) rightly argues that change is not an event that occurs in such a way that a 'before' and 'after' can be recognised and measured; rather, he defines change as a process. Thus change can be viewed as the process of transitioning from one state to another (Newton, 2007). Moreover, Newton (2007) points out that the term "transformation" is often used as a synonym for change. Change, Newton (2007) goes on to argue, is a response or reaction to some stimulus. This stimulus could be designated within or outside an organisation. Shalk et al (1998:157) hold the view that change is "the deliberate introduction of novel ways of thinking, acting and operating within an organisation as a way of surviving or accomplishing certain organisational goals." London (2001:133) echoes the same idea by claiming "the adoption of new work practices or behaviours is more likely to be accepted if the benefits of change can be demonstrated to the people affected by the change." Other definitions split change into three main phases: a current state, a desired future state, and a set of transition processes to shift from the current state to the desired future state (Beckhard and Harris, 1987)

Although these definitions are quite pertinent, as change is viewed as a planned process that occurs within an organisation which acts as a catalyst to new behaviours, they do not go far enough in suggesting what the drivers of change are and how to lead employees through that change process.

According to ProSci (2012 [www.change.management.com](http://www.change.management.com)) change is not just a process, it is a package which includes a set of instruments to be applied in order to achieve the mission objectives:

“Change management is the [application of the] set of tools, processes, skills and principles for managing the people side of change to achieve the required outcomes of a change project or initiative.”

On the same wave length, Rance (2011:33) believes that change is:

the process responsible for controlling the lifecycle of all changes. The primary objective of change management is to enable beneficial changes to be made, with minimum disruption to IT Services.”

A useful definition of change management is provided by BNET Business Dictionary, which defines it as: 'the coordination of a structured period of transition from situation A to situation B in order to achieve lasting change within an organisation'. Chonko (2004) on the other hand, views organisational change as shifting from one stage to another or concerned with breaking down existing structures and creating new ones. Bennett (2001) focuses on the details of change saying that change might be small or large but is concerned with improvement, variation, alteration or modification of something. Galloway (2007) claims that change is a process shifting from one permanent state to another, through a sequence of steps which represents the struggle between what is and what is desired. Fullan (2002) describes change as an emotion-laden process which can bring feelings of tension, and uncertainty.

Furthermore, Fullan (2007:13) and Hardy (2008) point out that any change involves loss, anxiety, struggle and such like in achieving the proposed changes.

As can be clearly seen from the range of existing definitions, despite the fact they focus on different aspects of change, they tend to overlap or make similar points in different ways. This indicates that the word change or change management is a blanket term used to refer to change at both the individual and organisational level. For example, the term change management is used to describe:

- a) the task of managing change;
- b) an area of professional practice;
- c) a body of knowledge (consisting of models, methods, techniques, and other tools);  
and
- d) a control mechanism (consisting of requirements, standards, processes and procedures). (Nickols, 2010).

Therefore, the gist of the change management debate seems to revolve around the argument that the driving forces for organisational change are influenced by the need to constantly improve productivity and efficiency (Arnetz, 2005). In simple terms, change is a way of asking people to adopt innovative ideas in doing things and use a creative approach in dealing with different aspects of their lives. One of these aspects is introducing “new ways of doing things, new ways of seeing

themselves, their roles and their interactions with others inside and outside the organisation.” (Sinclair, 1994:27).

In conclusion, definitions of change management and reasons for conducting change appear to show some similarities in form and content. In addition, in today’s complex, volatile and uncertain world, new terms have emerged to refer implicitly to the concept of organisational change. These labels for organisational changes are commonly known as downsizing, restructuring, implementing of new technologies, mergers and acquisitions and technological changes. Change is no longer seen as an unexpected event or a daunting prospect. Rather it is viewed as a natural progression and a regular process in any institution or business life. In today’s ever changing business environment, change management is increasingly perceived as an on-going business occurrence rather than a focused response to an occasional need for restructuring. Metre (2009) goes as far as to claim that change management is well established and no one is immune from change (Metre, 2009:5)

Change management is becoming institutionalised in various ways: having a dedicated change management function within an organisation (typically within HR), dedication and commitment to developing tools for planning and implementation, focused communication efforts directed at facilitation of change, reorientation of corporate culture toward flexibility and agility with regard to change.

The view held by this study is aligned with Morrison (1998:13) who argues that change is a dynamic and continuous process of development and growth that involves a reorganisation in response to “felt needs”.

### 3.5 Change in the Arab World and the UAE

Experts and lay people acknowledge that change is endemic and perpetual within every society and as a result it has become one of most important challenges for individuals, organisations and countries and one which leaders have to face at all levels. Change pressures are triggered by external and internal factors - shifting business trends and paradigms, economic and legislative changes, globalisation, new technologies, and changes in consumer tastes, lifestyles and workforce demographics such as in the UAE where over 80% of the manpower is of non-UAE origin. It is often the case that organisations are forced to change the way they do business in order to grow, gain competitive advantage, and even to survive (Herold and Fedor, 2008; Martins, 2008).

Although Farris and Ellis (1990: 33) point out that “change has become a way of life for many companies in the United States and other developed countries”, until three years ago the term ‘change’ in the Arab world seems to hold the opposite meaning, stagnation, and in some parts it is a hollow and meaningless word. Over many decades, with little exception, nothing seemed to change in the Arab world: the same leaders, the same politics, the same attitude and the same chaos. Today,

change in the Arab world is in vogue and has become a buzzword. It is a term chanted by millions of people demanding “we want change” and ‘the people want change’, a call being expressed by the masses suffering from a lack of democracy, incompetent leadership, inequality in wealth distribution and inadequate quality of services. However, it can be argued that, despite the waves of change that have hit the Arab world under different labels such as Arab Awakening, Arab Spring and Arab revolution’ the region has not changed for the better or as much as people hoped. The change of regimes has been followed by a breakdown of society, while in some cases the underlying structures remain in place. This change has included political turmoil and brutal violence; conflicts between sects, tribes and ethnicities have started to emerge. Change has become a curse rather a blessing.

In the business world ‘change’, in the current climate of economic recession and government cuts requires a fundamental change in mentalities, traditional practices of doing business and delivery of service quality. Thus, there is growing pressure on the political and organisational stakeholders to put change as their top priority. However, change is a complex and multifaceted process that is often easier to design than to implement.

In the UAE, change is not special or new; change occurs continuously, although not necessarily in guided form. Within the MOI, changes are implemented in response to central government directives or policies aimed at positively impacting on the service, strategy, structure, and people. Thus, change has been a dominant

and a fundamental phenomenon as the UAE has in the last two decades undergone rapid economic growth and dynamic organisational changes. Several major developments have taken place transforming the UAE landscape nationwide in construction and infrastructure, and encouraging innovation and entrepreneurship. The UAE has become a model of economic growth and a symbol of excellence in living standards.

As a consequence, this rapid change has brought with it complex issues and challenges; thereby the traditional and familiar ways of doing things are no longer sustainable. There is a demand for a more qualified and knowledgeable workforce. There is also a need for clear strategies for dealing with the current and future challenges. Importing ready-made change models from the west is neither desirable nor practical as change management systems are situational. What works for one country or an organisation may not work for another. It can be argued thus that a universally accepted definition of change is difficult to achieve, simply because change management is a mixed bag of disciplines with no clear-cut boundaries and that the theory and practice of change management is a wide-ranging topic involving a number of social science disciplines and traditions (Burnes 2004).

### 3.6 Change Management Theories and Models

There is breadth and depth in the literature on the different theories, approaches and models of change management, which often consists of generic and

comparable views. The common theme that emerges from the review of the change management literature is that there is not a single theory that defines or explains organisational change. Theories of organisational change tend to focus on change per se but deal also with other related areas such as culture, leadership, and decision-making. The key debate tends to focus on planned versus emergent approaches (Burnes, 2000; Carnall, 2007; Wilson, 1999). They stipulate that change can be a set of deliberate actions, a product of conscious reasoning and decision-making. This type of change is known as planned change. In contrast, change sometimes is introduced in an apparently spontaneous and unplanned way. This type of change is called an emergent change.

The planned approach makes the assumption that change can be planned by managers in advance. The theory suggests that change is brought about through controlled decision making, and effective management of such change follows a linear, step-by-step approach. The emergent change approach implies that leaders take a set of decisions which are unplanned and apparently unrelated to the change that emerges. The planned approach to change management tends to focus on changing the behaviour of individuals and groups through participation. In contrast, the emergent approach to change management concentrates on the organisation as an open system with its objective being to continually realign the organisation with its changing external environment. Child (2005) developed a clear frame to distinguish between the scope of change and type of change.



Figure 3.1 Approaches to organisational change

		Planned	Emergent	
Radical		BPR	Organic development (eg start-up company)	whole org.
		Merger of departments	Changes to selection of new members made by teams	part org.
Incremental		Annual targeted improvements	Organisational learning	whole org.
		Changes agreed in staff performance plans	Continuous improvement through project teams	part org.

Source: Child (2005)

Within organisational change, some authors such as McElyea (2003) make a comparison between the traditional change model and the complex adaptive model of organisation change as shown in Table 3.1, making the point that organisational change from a historical perspective emphasises that organisational change is essentially a dual management process, a balance between autonomy and interdependence, between steering and self-organisation. From this perspective, strategies such as empowerment cannot be corrected without strong steering.

Table 3.1 Traditional change model vs. complex adaptive change model

Traditional Models of Organisational Change	Complex Adaptive Model of Organisational Change
Few variables determine outcome	Innumerable variables determine outcome
The whole is equal to the sum of its parts (reductionist)	The whole is different from the sum of its parts
Direction is determined by design and power of a few leaders	Direction is determined by emergence and the participation of many people
Individual or system behaviour is knowable, predictable and controllable	Individual or system behaviour is unknowable, unpredictable and uncontrollable
Causality is linear: every effect can be traced back to a specific cause	Causality is mutual: every cause is also an effect and every effect is a cause
Relationships are directive	Relationships are empowering
All systems are essentially the same	Each system is unique
Efficiency and reliability are measures of value	Responsiveness to the environment is the measure of value
Decisions are based on facts and data	Decisions are based on tensions and patterns
Leaders are experts and authorities	Leaders are facilitators and supporters

Source: McElyea (2003: 63)

The conclusion that can be drawn from the above is that managing change rests on two key issues. Change can be top down, deliberate, a specific target approach, or a bottom up approach using a range of teamwork and operation management tools to help individuals participate in the decision-making to address operations management problems, and overcome resistance to change and resolve conflicts. This suggests that firstly, there is a need to identify, analyse and if necessary challenge hasty and untimely managerial decisions. Secondly, organisation-level change is not fixed or linear in nature but contains an important emergent element and that change is often a process that can be facilitated by perceptive and insightful

planning. On the other hand, Ackerman (1997) labels types of change in organisations as Development, Transition or Transformation.

### 3.6.1 Developmental Change

This involves change that can be either, planned, emergent (unplanned) or incremental (continual). It is a type of change that usually will address failings in existing procedures or enhance existing procedures. Continuous change often responds to changes in the environment in which the organisation operates e.g. staff turnover.

### 3.6.2. Transitional Change

This is change where the organisation aims to achieve a fixed goal so this type of change is planned, episodic and radical. Episodic change is change that occurs infrequently, usually involving replacing an existing programme or strategy with a new one and is a change that is planned by the organisation's decision makers. Often this type of change will not fit into existing or new strategy; in other words it is discontinuous.

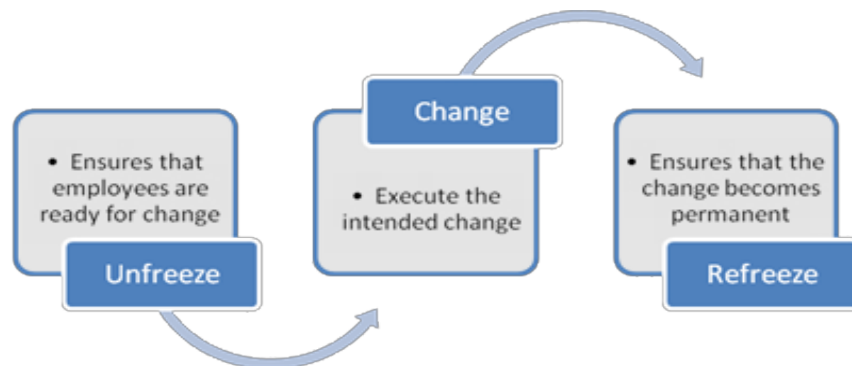
### 3.6.3 Transformational Change

This will lead to an organisation that is very different to the one that existed prior to the change. As the change is major and significant, the organisation and its employees will need to totally change their views, strategy and assumptions. Such change aims to alter an organisation's culture, ethos and systems.

Furthermore, change can be proactive or reactive. A proactive change implies a planned initiative in order to prepare and face anticipated future challenges. Generally it is a top-down process. A reactive change may be a spontaneous response to a change taking place in the environment (Lacovini 1993). Moreover, in the last two decades, there has been a growing interest by both academics and practitioners in elaborating concepts and models of change management that support the activities of organisation management in order to survive in the present complex world and to succeed in the highly competitive and continuously evolving business environment. According to Urnes (2011: 445) “we live in an era where change is seen as essential if organisations and, indeed, the human race are to survive.”

The literature contains many change management models intended to drive and lead the implementation of change initiatives in organisations; however, it would be beyond the scope of this study to review each one of these models. The most common and most referred to is Lewin’s (1951) model - known as "Lewin's Freeze Phases" – introduced in the early 20th century and it still forms the underlying basis of many change management theories, models and strategies for managing change:

Figure 3.2 – Lewin's (1951) three stage change management model



Source: (Lewin, 1951)

Lewin's (1951) theory of organisational change is well known and much cited by both academics and organisational managers today. Lewin's (1951) model has influenced and still dominates many of the change management models and strategies. It has also the credit for introducing force field analysis, which assesses the driving and resisting forces in any change situation. Metaphorically speaking, Lewin's model represents a tug-of-war between forces around a given issue. Lewin (1951) points out that there are two opposing sets of forces within any social system; these are the driving forces that promote change and the resisting forces that maintain the status quo. The key principle is that driving forces must outweigh resisting forces in any situation if change is to be successfully implemented. Therefore, to unfreeze the system, the strength of these forces must be adjusted accordingly. This framework contains some positive elements because it suggests that change is a multi-staged approach, starting with communicating the gap between the current state and the end state to the key stakeholders in the change process:

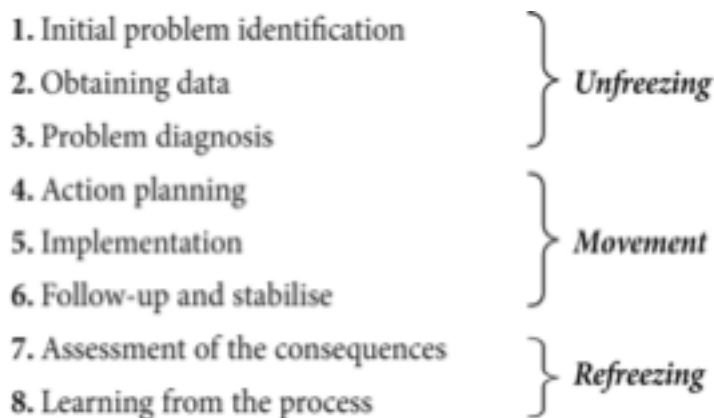
- working to minimise the resisting forces;
- working to maximise or make the most of driving forces;
- agreeing a change plan and a timeline for achieving the end state.

However, much has changed since Lewin's model was introduced in 1947, and critics question the validity of such a basic approach to dealing with a complex issue, such as change management in an organisation. In today's volatile and complex world, change is occurring more frequently. Critics contend that Lewin's 'Unfreeze, Change, Refreeze' model, is far too simplistic to be of practical use in the organisation when undergoing change, as there is simply no time following a major change, to 'Refreeze' and settle. The rigidity of 'Refreezing' is not compatible with modern thinking as change is often a continuous, sometimes a chaotic process. In the modern business world, change occurs at such a pace which gives no time to settle, and consequently refreeze, and therefore Lewin's model lacks the flexibility required in order to manage change effectively. In other words, the beginning and ending point of the unfreeze-change-refreeze model is stability - which, for some people and some organisations, is wishful thinking.

However, one element of Lewin's model which can be useful for today's organisations undergoing change is the message it attempts to reinforce, which is the importance of ensuring that change is accepted and maintained. In an environment where the rate of fast paced change is ever increasing, it is important for managers to support the change and ensure that the desired change is sustained and accepted, so that people do not automatically revert to pre-change ways of working.

Although some have disparaged Lewin's change model for being rather rudimentary and for describing a sequential linear process. Lewin's (1951) three stages of change have had a positive influence on many other more contemporary change management models. For instance French et al. (1985) list eight components of a planned-change effort, which can be related to Lewin's model:

Figure 3.3 Planned-change effort



Source: French et al. (1985)

As can be seen, the terms used are different but the same idea is implicitly conveyed.

Following on from Lewin's idea (1951) of unfreezing, movement and refreezing as the key components of the change process, GE's (General Electric) 7-Step Change Model was developed. It focuses on the leader's role in creating urgency for the change, crafting and communicating the vision, leading the change and measuring the progress of the change across several dimensions. The GE model focuses initially on leadership, where the change leader is one who owns the entire process with full accountability. The leader is also responsible for committing resources to

the change effort, providing role models to the rest of the team and championing the overall effort through execution, perhaps even beyond. Communicating a shared need of change is the second step within the GE change model. It is a crucial stage ensuring all change agents and recipients of the change effort understand the reasons behind the effort and the planned gains after executing the change effort as the following table clearly shows:

Table 3.2 General Electric 7-Step Change Model

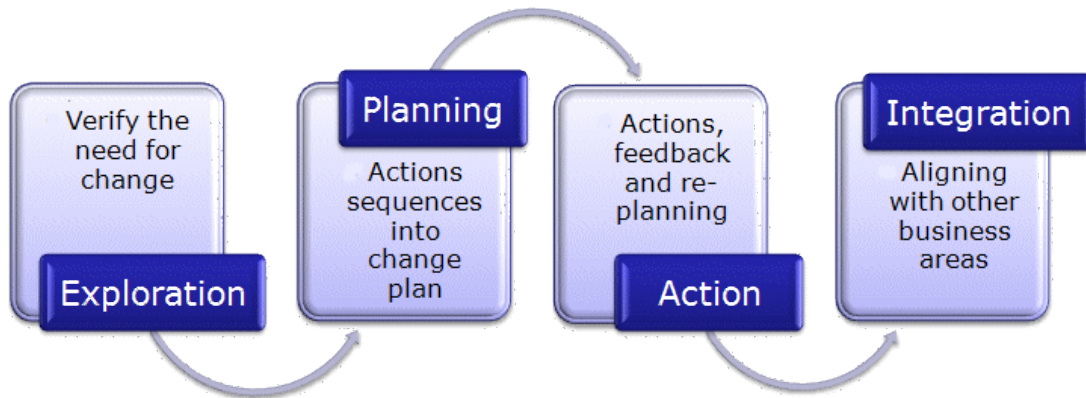
GE's Change Model	
1	Leader behaviour: owns, champions, role models, commits resources
2	Creating a shared need: ensures everyone understands the need for change
3	Establishing a shared vision and common terms
4	Mobilizing commitment: builds support, understands interests of diverse stakeholders
5	
6	
7	communications, roles and reporting relationships, rewards

Source: (General Electric, cited in Metre, 2009:21)



Bullock and Batten (1985) also developed a change model called Planned Change or phases of planned change which draws its substance from the disciplines of project management. The aim of this model is explained in the following figure:

Figure 3.4 The Four-phase Model of Change



Source: (Bullock & Batten, 1985).

Bullock and Batten's (1985) change model starts with the exploration stage which is crucial to prepare the ground for the need for change, together with the type and nature of change and the amount of resources required. The Planning phase includes designing and setting the foundation for change involving and engaging with stakeholders, which not only reduces resistance to change but also helps to address the concerns of wider stakeholder groups. Implementation and monitoring of change comes at the action stage, where changes are thoroughly evaluated and readjustments are made where necessary. At the final stage, the Integration change is achieved by continuous development through training and motivation, which reinforces the support for change. Bullock and Batten's (1985) change model can be illustrated as follows:

Table 3.3 Bullock and Batten's (1985) change model

Phases	Processes
1. Exploration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1.1 Need awareness</li> <li>1.2 Search</li> <li>1.3 Contracting</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Planning                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2.1 Diagnosis</li> <li>2.2 Design</li> <li>2.3 Decision</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Action      3.1 Implementation</li> <li>3.2 Evaluation</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Integration                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4.1 Stabilization</li> <li>4.2 Diffusion</li> <li>4.3 Renewal</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

Source: (Bullock & Batten, 1985).

Bullock and Batten's (1985) approach seems to suggest that organisational change is a technical problem that can be solved with a definable technical solution. The approach is quite useful as it aims to simplify the process of change which can suit isolated cases but it may prove difficult to deal with complex situation for organisational change, i.e. when it involves complex and challenging organisational settings of change where change drivers and forces are undefined.

Another significant and prevalent change management theory was put forward by Van de Ven and Poole (1995). The authors developed a model of change that gave priority to two key dimensions of change, namely the unit of change, and the mode of change. Van de Ven and Poole's (1995) change framework consists of four key process theories of change; each is characterised by a different event sequence and associated change mechanism. The four key process theories are

summed up as follows:

1. life cycle theories which consider change as part of the establishment of an organisation;
2. teleological theories which consider change as a series of defined goals;
3. dialectical theories, which consider change as a form of organisational conflict; and
4. evolutionary theories which consider change as a natural form of organisational development.

The above four theories reflect the nature of change in the context of how it occurs within the organisation and the manner in which it impacts on organisational development.

Jick's (1991) 10-Step Change Model is designed as a strategic model to lead the implementation of major organisational change. His ten-step approach, serves as a roadmap for organisations embarking on the change process as well as a way to evaluate a change effort already in progress.

Jick (1991: 46) stresses that implementation is 'a blend of both art and science.' arguing that:

"...how a manager implements change is as important as what the change is. How well one does in implementing a particular change depends on the nature of that change."

Table 3.4. Jick's (1991) 10-Step Change Model

10 Steps For Implementing Change	
1	Analyze the organization and the need for change
2	Create a shared vision and common direction
3	Separate from the past
4	Create a sense of urgency
5	Support a strong leader role
6	Line up political sponsorship
7	Craft and implementation plan
8	Develop enabling structures
9	Communicate, involve people and be honest
10	Reinforce and institutionalize the change

Source: (Jick 1991)

Jick's (1991) suggests a pragmatic strategy to implementing change. The first step in his model involves a thorough investigation by the specific organisation to find out whether change is necessary. Once an actual need for change is determined, Jick's (1991) second step, overlaps with Kotter's (1995) third, which focuses on creating a shared vision and a common direction for driving change. On his third step, Jick stresses the importance of separating current change initiatives from those that have been undertaken in the past.

In the same vein, Kanter et al. (1992) recommend a detailed prototype to bringing about lasting change, with their ten step model. It should be noted that this is exactly

the same as Jick's (1991) model, except for a change of title. Kanter, with Stein and Jick, (Kanter et al 1992), call it "The Ten Commandments for Executing Change", a review of the 'state of the art' of change management Their ten items reflect the eight listed in Kotter's well-known article on "Why Transformation Efforts Fail" (Kotter 1995).

Figure 3.5 – Kanter et al. (1992) Ten Commandments to Managing Change



Source: (Kanter et al., 1992)

Kotter (1995) created an eight stage model to effectively implement change, which seems to stress the importance of getting people on board with any type of change, including multiple references to communicating the vision and empowering people. Kotter's eight-step model is based on examining his consulting practice with 100 different organisations going through change. According to Metre (2009: 7) "Kotter observed the myriad difficulties associated with change efforts, distilled the common

themes and turned them into a prescriptive framework". Thus Kotter's model put together key themes around making change happen, highlights the importance of a 'felt need' for change in the organisation, and emphasises the need to communicate the vision and keep communication levels extremely high throughout the process. Kotter's model demonstrates clearly the links between each step.

Figure 3.6 Kotter's (1995) 8-Step Change Model



Source: (Kotter, 1995)

Kotter's (1995) first step aims to stress the sense of urgency. He believes that urgency inspires individuals and creates a sense of realism with respect to change efforts. He found that most change initiatives fail because of the inability to create a sense of urgency about the need for change, failure to create a coalition for managing the change process, the absence of a vision for change, failure to effectively communicate that vision, failure to remove obstacles that could impede the

achievement of the vision, failure to provide short-term achievable goals, the tendency to declare victory too soon, and failure to anchor the changes into the organisation's culture.

Dunphy and Stace (1998) expand the change types, Incremental and Transformative, by introducing fresh insights using the different terminology 'Collaborative and Coercive', and develop a matrix showing four possible outcomes, which they call types as illustrated in the following table:

Table 3.5 Change Model – Dunphy and Stace (1988)

Collaborative	Incremental	Transformative
Coercive	Type 1 - Participative Evolution	Type 2 - Charismatic Transformation
	Type 3 - Forced Evolution	Type 4 - Dictatorial Transformation

Source: (Dunphy and Stace,1988)

In the same line of thinking but using different terms, Nadler and Tushman (1995) designed their own change model.

### 3.6 Change Model – Nadler and Tushman (1995)

Anticipatory	Incremental	Discontinuous
Reactive	Tuning	Reorientation
	Adaptation	Recreation

Source: (Nadler and Tushman,1995)

This goes to show that change models are innovative and that a one-size-fits-all approach to change management is not feasible. To be effective at leading change,

organisations will need to tailor their change management model, based on the nature of the problem they wish to address.

Cadle and Yeates (2004) presented a four phase approach of managing change, in order for organisations to deliver the expected and required business benefits. Their approach examines the feelings people may go through during each stage of the change management process, and describes the key activities to be undertaken by those implementing change at each step. This model is useful to a certain degree in bringing about certain types of change within an organisation, perhaps introducing new technological equipment or a new software system.

Table 3.7– Cadle and Yeates’ (2004) Four Phases of Change

Phase	Stage
2	Communication - Win hearts and minds
4	After go-live - Build on success

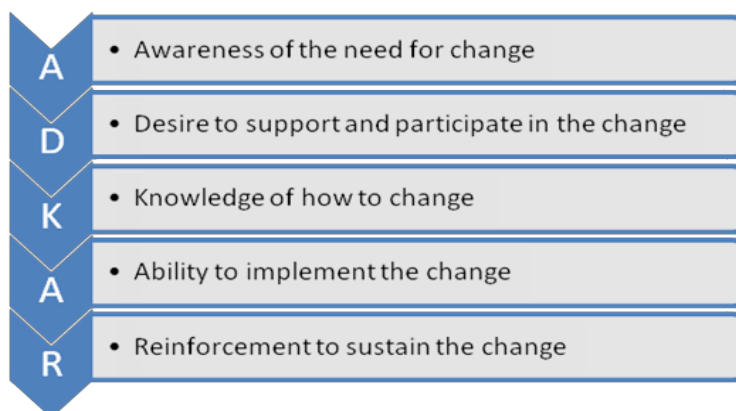
Source: (Cadle and Yeates’ 2004)



Hiatt (2006) developed the ADKAR five-stage process to be followed when implementing change. The ADKAR model is founded on two basic ideas: that it is the people who change, not the organisation, and that successful change occurs when individual change matches the stages of organisational change. For successful changes, Hiatt (2006) proposes that people need to project through the stages as illustrated in Figure 3.7. The ADKAR model is beneficial in that it provides details of the necessary building blocks for change management. The model was published following ten years of research and development involving over nine hundred organisations, and has proven successful in supporting change management in various organisations. Overall, ADKAR contains an effective and viable change management checklist but it does not seem to take into account the complexity and scope of major change management initiatives in their specific settings.

Figure 3.7– Hiatt (2006) ADKAR model

L



Source: (Hiatt, 2006)

Another weakness of the ADKAR model is the massive gap between steps one and two, awareness of the need for change, and the desire to support and participate in the change. For the staff in the MOI, such a transition can involve loss and letting go of familiar routines, doing things deeply rooted in cultural traditions, social identity, status and relationships. Bridges (2001) makes the point that change can only work when the people affected by it can get through the transition it causes successfully.

Oakland and Tanner (2007) suggested nine key steps to change:

- 1) The agenda for change is driven by external events
- 2) Leaders set a clear direction and manage change
- 3) The need for change must be aligned with operational issues
- 4) A process approach is central to successful change
- 5) Performance measurement has a key role in supporting change
- 6) A project-based approach increases the chance of success
- 7) External support adds value in managing change and the transfer of knowledge
- 8) Aligning the culture supports changes in peoples' behaviour
- 9) Continuous reviews

Oakland and Tanner's (2007) change ideas start by putting the emphasis on the agenda for change which they believe is mostly driven by external factors. In other

words organisational change is triggered by environmental forces in which the organisation operates, such as policy changes and competition. Oakland and Tanner (2007) point out that it is the leaders within an organisation who identify and prioritise change initiatives and that change involves everyone and is the concern of each employee within the organisation.

Finally, it would be beyond the scope of this study to assess the full range of current change management models, suffice it is to include for the purpose of breadth and depth, and to provide a full picture of the slight nuances that exist between various change models, a comparison of three models of change developed by Todnem (2005).

Table 3.8: A comparison of three models of change from Todnem (2005)

Kanter et al. Commandments for Executing Change (1992)	Kotter's Eight-Stage Process for Successful Organisational Transformation (1996)	Luecke's Seven Steps (2003)
Analyse the organisation and its need to change		Mobilise energy and commitment through joint identification of business problems and their solutions
Create a vision and common direction	Developing a vision and strategy	Develop a shared vision of how to organise and manage for competitiveness
Separate from the past		
Create a sense of urgency	Establishing a sense of urgency	
Support a strong leader role		Identify the leadership
Line up political sponsorship	Creating a guiding coalition	
Craft an implementation plan		

Develop enabling structures	Empowering broad-based action	
Communicate, involve people and be honest	Communicating the change vision	
Reinforce and institutionalise change	Anchoring new approaches in the culture	Institutionalise success through formal policies, systems, and structures
	Generating short-term wins	
	Consolidating gains and producing more change	
		Focus on results not on activities
		Start change at the periphery, then let it spread to other units without pushing it from the top
		Monitor and adjust strategies in response to problems in the change process

Source: (Todnem, 2005)

In the same line of thought, Illes and Sutherland (2001) contribute in clarifying and distinguishing between patterns of change. Table 3.8 illustrates their efforts in trying to provide part of the answer to the question “How does change occur?” In summary the above models have their merits but look too abstract and too academic in nature, providing few realistic and concrete ideas about how to implement successfully.

In general much of the change management literature focuses on privatisation or privatised enterprises. However, a study distinguishing public sector change management from generic change management was published by Rusaw (2007) who developed four approaches to change in public organisations:

- 1) A means-end, rational, top-down planned change approach with examples of TQM and re-engineering,
- 2) An incremental, small-steps, decentralised, approach focused on visible results in the short-term that is most successful if there is no need for external approval,
- 3) A pluralistic approach involving multiple mental models and actors that is useful to solve complex problems (shared policy-making),
- 4) An individual approach, which is basically the learning model, involving changing the organisation through individuals and groups as well as formal and informal learning behaviour to improve service levels and invent new service systems.

Table 3.9 Patterns of change and their meaning

PATTERN OF CHANGE	MEANING
Emergent	Unintended naturally occurring change
Planned	Intended deliberate change
Episodic	Intended radical change that only occurs occasionally
Continuous / Developmental	On-going, adaptive and cumulative
Transitional	Episodic change that redirects the existing organisation
Transformational	Episodic change that changes the organisation fundamentally

Source: (Illes and Sutherland, 2001)

The above literature review shows that some change management models share common features; others are similar or overlapping in terms of the use of key terms. Since Lewin's (1951) seminal work there has been a surge of interest in change management. Lewin's (1951) Three-Phase Model of Planned Change has since been exploited, adapted and extended by a number of academics and business experts to update and enhance its practical implications including Lippitt et al.'s (1958) seven-phase model and Cummings and Huse (1989) eight-phase model. This led Dawson (1994) to state that, almost without exception, contemporary management texts uncritically adopt Lewin's 3-stage model of planned change and that this approach is now taught on most modern management courses. Thus many subsequent models are based on the planned approach to change management and, according to Cummings and Huse (1989:23), they all share one fundamental concept: "the concept of planned change implies that an organisation exists in different states at different times and that planned movement can occur from one state to another".

However, today's complex and challenging business environment is widely considered to be dynamic and uncertain; as a result the suitability of a planned approach to change management is questionable. Change is not uniform it is multifaceted and best viewed as a process which is influenced and shaped by the combination of several variables. On the limitations of the research on change, Burnes (2005b:323) argues that almost all writers on organisational change view it as "running along a continuum from incremental [continuous] to transformational [radical]". One of the criticisms aimed at linear change models is that they portray

the process of change transforming from an initial state to a final stage. But in today's complex and turbulent world, change is essentially acknowledged as being a constant and continuous process for all organisations.

Dunphy (1996) strongly argues that there is an absence of a consistent and widely accepted theory in the field of organisational change management. In his review of change theories, Dunphy (1996:543) highlights five factors that constitute a theoretical framework for organisational change. These consist of: 'a basic metaphor' related to the nature of the organisation; 'an analytical framework or diagnostic model' that helps in understanding the organisational change process; 'an ideal model of an effectively functioning organisation' which explains the directions for change and the values used to assess the change; 'an intervention theory' which describes how the change process will move the organisation; and 'a definition of the role of the change agent' that clarifies the initiator and manner of change.

Whilst these models have merits and provide useful insights for identifying the key steps managers need to undertake to implement change, such linear approaches to change management have come under criticism suggesting that change is never uncomplicated. This view is supported by Carnall (2007:69) who argues that "managing a change of any magnitude is generally more complex with many stops and starts and side tracking along the way".

One of the key criticisms levelled at the proposed step-by-step models is that they are viewed by some as too simplistic with few practical implications, enhanced emphasis on incremental and isolated change and failing to account for the internal and external factors affecting an organisation such as the environment or politics (Carnall, 2007; Burnes, 2000). Pettigrew (1990) argues that the planned approach is too prescriptive, emphasising the need to understand the context in which change takes place.

Admittedly, the step-by-step models do provide some structure and a brief outline of how to implement change; they are too inflexible and slow for the case of the organisation in this study. Such models assume that a linear process can be followed; however this is not suitable for the MOI UAE.

The substance of the change management debate shows that there is no one best change management model, and there is no old set of principles that need to be replaced by a new set. Rather, continuous and creative initiatives need to be taken in order to maintain high standards of delivery and performance, and these are generated and influenced by a host of circumstantial, internal and external factors. The organisations that manage and lead change successfully are those that make conscious and distinctive choices about what principles to follow. There is no one size fits all model. No one model or approach is a panacea or a master plan that guarantees successful change. Despite the various divergences in opinions about



the nature of change, there is a clear consensus amongst authors that change is a natural process which affects all organisations in different industries and sectors and may be generated by both internal and external factors. It is also worth noting that many of the ready-made change kits/tools rarely provide valuable and actionable insights, because the change being initiated is specific and often unique to a particular organisational setting and not a generic “change package.” Thus, while many guidelines and recommendations have been made on specific strategies and steps that should be taken to implement change effectively, very little change research has moved beyond descriptive and prescriptive perspectives.

### 3.7 Challenges to Change Management

Managing change successfully is becoming one of the key competencies for any organisation. But managing change is not just about managing the “technical” side of change. Effective implementation of organisational change requires understanding and addressing the complex interactions that take place between different change agents within an organisation. Change is a collective process which must involve everyone concerned, leaders and employees. One of the main barriers to achieving success in change management is the realisation that the ‘changers’ may be living in the future, while everyone else is living in the present or even the past. Researchers seem to agree that change management is about establishing a ‘sense of urgency’ and a communication strategy to firstly, reduce an individual’s anxieties and concerns (Farais and Johnson, 2000) and secondly, to create acceptance of change. With this view in mind and to achieve a smooth transition, it is important to try to understand and to be receptive to all the stakeholders’ views if

they oppose the proposed changes. Allen (2008) claims that resistance to change is caused by lack of planning or not getting people involved in discussing the initial change plan. As Mento et al. (2002: 53) state “It has been observed that it does not matter whether the change is perceived as being positive or negative. Resistance is generated because the status quo will be affected. People are comfortable with knowns”.

### 3.7.1 Resistance to Change

An inevitable consequence of change is the replacement of a predictable and certain environment with one that is uncertain and confusing (Olson and Tetrick, 1988). The challenges and difficulties of implementing change are often discussed in line with employee resistance to change. Research on resistance to change is extensive and the issue of resistance to change has been acknowledged as an organisational concern. Although it is well-known that individuals resist change, a full understanding of the different nuances and mind-sets about how resistance is manifested and expressed is still needed and further research is worth undertaking because there is still little consensus about what constitutes resistance. The term is ambiguous and sometimes obscure because it implies multiple meanings and generates different reactions and behaviours. Dent and Powley (2003), for example, indicate that there is not even a commonly held definition for resistance to change. They listed at least 10 ways that resistance to change is defined in the literature, all definitions qualitatively different. For instance, Maurer (1996:23) views resistance as, “a force that slows or stops movement”. In contrast, Bridges (1986) argues that it is an incomplete transition in responding to change. Kotter (1995)

believes that resistance is an obstacle in an organisation's structure that prevents change. Other researchers consider resistance to change in terms of negative attitudes shown by employees. According to Hultman (1995) resistance consists of two dimensions: active and passive. Active resistance would include such behaviours as being critical, selective use of facts, sabotaging, and starting rumours. Passive resistance is displayed by such behaviours as public support but failure to implement the change, procrastinating, and withholding information or support.

Thus resistance to change represents a range of attitudes and behaviours in response to change. Therefore defining and explaining clearly, what "resistance to change" entails, enables stakeholders to understand, predict, and manage resistance. For the purpose of this study resistance to change is understood to mean any phenomenon be it negative reaction or reluctant attitude that aims to hinder the process at its beginning or during its development, seeking to maintain the status quo.

Lewin's (1951) work led nearly half a century of literature and practice around the concept that there will be forces driving the change and forces of resistance to the change and that this change must in turn be managed to deal with it. Lewin (1951) who still dominates the change management debate and whose views still make sense today, indicated that there will be forces driving the change and forces of resistance to the change. He (1951:14) argues that:

‘the practical task of social management, as well as the scientific task of understanding the dynamics of group life, requires insight into the desire for and resistance to, specific change’.

Expanding on Lewin’s (1951) theory of the resisting forces and how these can be managed, Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) concluded that resistance was not just an employee phenomenon. Indeed, organisations themselves stimulated the conditions for resistance through the inertia of their powerfully stable systems and operations. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) identified seven individual sources of resistance to change and identified for each of these the manner in which they could be managed as indicated in Table 3.10:

Table 3.10: Individual Sources of Resistance to Change

SOURCE OF RESISTANCE	SUMMARY EXPLANATION
Habit	Habitual work practices can create resistance to change through reluctance to change behaviour
Low tolerance for change	Some employees welcome change whereas others fear the consequences
Fear of a negative economic impact	Fear of losing employment or experiencing adverse employment conditions i.e. wages etc.
Fear of the unknown	Employees are unable or unwilling to visualise what the future may look like after the change

Desire not to lose something of value	The threat to the existing security of an employee can generate resistance to change in the workplace
Selective information processing	Negative attitudes towards change can result in employees only seeing the adverse outcomes associated with change
Belief that change does not make sense for the organisation	The resistance to change may be based in an informed understanding that arises from a limitation of the change process

Source: (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008)

It is also common knowledge that individuals respond to change in different ways, thus generating different outcomes. A clear knowledge of those expressions of resistance is important in the development and implementation of effective change management strategies. Resistance to change remains a contentious topic, which can be interpreted or explained in three ways. The first refers to resistance as a natural and normal process generated by false beliefs or by individuals' tendency to assess situations using extreme scenarios. The second measures resistance as the intention to resist, and analyses resistance as a set of perceptions of the impact of change, of unfounded ideas and of affect (Bovey and Hede, 2001). The third attributes resistance to a negative emotional reaction activated by the inconsistencies and discrepancies between the cognitive schemes of individuals and those present in the proposals for change (Campbell, 2000). In the same line of thinking, Oreg's (2006:76) study provides useful insights into the understanding of the complex construct of resistance to change, describing it as three-interrelated dimensions "a tri-dimensional (negative) attitude towards change, which includes

affective, behavioural, and cognitive components.” Oreg’s (2006) key and significant contribution focuses on considering resistance to change as involving the interplay among these three dimensions. The cognitive dimension involves how an individual conceptualises or thinks about change – for example, what is the value of the change? Will the change benefit or harm the organisation, or me? Cognitive negative reactions or attitudes towards the change include lack of commitment to the change and negative judgments of the change. The affective dimension of individual reactions involves how an individual feels about the change. Affective reactions to the change include experiencing such emotions as elation, stress, anxiety, anger, fear, enthusiasm and apprehension (Cummings and Worley, 2005).

Organisational change inevitably involves changes in behaviours, changes in work practices, changes to roles and responsibilities. Change, positive or negative, is disturbing because people want stability (Keyes, 2000). Individuals often resist change; some resist more than others. Each person reacts differently to change. Some people are willing to embrace it, some will be reluctant, some will get on board quickly, some will take a lot more time and some will actively (or passively) resist it. According to Giangreco and Peccei (2005) resistance to change is a form of dissent. Anti-change behaviours are frequently expressed in passive rather than overt ways – implicit rather than explicit, for example not actively supporting change initiatives, or behaving in ways that more covertly hamper the effectiveness or pace of change. Lines (2004) goes as far as to suggest that resistance to change involve behaviours that slow down or terminate change effort. This is the challenge organisations must face when introducing any change. Resistance to change is a natural reaction and

is an expected but manageable part of the change management process. The following constitutes common fears and main reasons why people resist changes in their environment:

- An individuals' predisposition toward change
- Surprise and fear of the unknown
- Climate of mistrust, suspicion and lack of information
- Fear of failure or of loss of control
- Loss of status and/or job security
- Peer pressure
- Disruption of cultural traditions and/or group relationships
- Personality conflicts
- Lack of tact and/or poor timing
- Non-reinforcing reward systems, "what's in it for me" is not made clear
- Past success, no motivation to change
- Fear of increased workload

(adapted from <http://www.practical-management-skills.com/what-is-change-management.html> 2014)

In addition, change processes that influence individuals' attitudes and resistance towards change include communication of the change, the level of understanding of

the change, consistency of management actions with the goals of the change initiative, and participation in the change process. Fisher's (2012) Process of Transition model clearly highlights how people respond to change. Fisher (2012) indicates that there are many factors that trigger negative employee attitudes towards change. Fisher's change theory is inspired by earlier studies by Kubler-Ross (2006) who identified five stages of grief. Fisher identified eight stages that people follow in succession through a change process:

1. Anxiety and denial
2. Happiness
3. Fear
4. Threat
5. Guilt and disillusionment
6. Depression and hostility
7. Gradual acceptance
8. Moving forward

In short, change resistance is a form of distraction and an inconvenience in the work place and this takes away from the overall quality of the work at hand.

Therefore it is important for an organisation to prepare its employees for change, raising awareness of the need for change, creating a desire to change and equipping employees with the ability to transition to the future state. These changes can be initiated by leaders in terms of communicating the organisation's vision and future strategies.



### 3.7.2 Initial Resistance to Change

Mcshane and Von Glinow (2008), state that attitudes towards change, generally consists of a person's cognitions about change, affective reactions and behavioural tendency towards change. As Senge (2006:64) states "People don't resist change. They resist being changed". Researchers have examined various employees' reactions to an organisational change ranging from strong positive attitudes (for example, this change is essential for the organisation to succeed) to strong negative attitudes (for example, this change could ruin the company) (Piderit, 2000). Rabelo and Torres (2005) stress that attitudes towards change are one of the sources of resistance at the individual level.

Resistance can be either systemic or behavioural. Systemic implies lack of appropriate knowledge, information, skills and managerial capacity (cognitive). Behavioural suggests reactions, perceptions and assumptions (emotional). People generally react unfavourably to change in the first instance. They are worried and often in shock. This is followed by expressing a degree of happiness or relief about the situation, glad that something is happening at last. Then fear sets in. If there is a healthy amount of two way communication at the happiness stage, then the degree of fear may be reduced, but it always present. People will resist change, because they are afraid of what lies ahead and how it might affect them in a negative way. People are creatures of comfort. Some are lost out of their comfort zone and are afraid of the unknown. Many people in the UAE prefer their routine not to change and are deeply rooted in traditions. They think things are just fine as they are and

do not understand the need for change. For them change is a headache because it often requires people to perform multiple tasks and roles, increases workload, and necessitates training and acquiring new knowledge. Thus, there is a disruption in the individuals' working patterns. As a result many become cynical about change. Organisation-wide change often goes against the values held dear by employees in the organisation; that is, the change may go against how employees have been doing things over the years. According to Worrall and Cooper (2013:8):

In our 2012 report we revealed that organisational change had reached epidemic proportions with the prime driver for change being cost reduction (82% cited cost reduction as the prime driver of change in 2012 compared to 60% in 2007 and 37% in 1997). The drive to reduce costs whatever the cost seemed to be the prevailing business logic of 2012. Not surprisingly, those affected by organisational change overwhelmingly saw it as damaging: it reduces motivation, morale and loyalty to the organisation; it undermines workers' sense of job security and creates a climate of fear; it makes workers feel that they have to work harder and longer to prove their value to the organisation; and it reduces workers' sense of control over their own jobs.

The above statement clearly demonstrates that the way that change is often implemented disregards the human side and undermines the workers' sense of wellbeing. It is also a source of stress as it diminishes employee confidence. It can be argued that communicating and informing the employees of the reasons and motives for change as well as the impact on their work can be used to reduce

uncertainty and therefore increase readiness for change; this will most likely decrease resistance to change.

Although resistance is a normal reaction to change, however, it can be alleviated by effective planning and communication so that change does not come as a surprise. Successful change implementation is increasingly dependent on generating employee support and interest. Understanding how employees in an organisation respond to change and react to the impact of change should be management top priority. For instance employees need to feel adequately trained and informed especially during change because effective communication reduces fear and uncertainty and, therefore, resistance to change.

### 3.7.3 The Multiple Forms of Resistance to Change

The growing pace and complexity of change requires employees to adapt to change without disruption; however resistance to change is the more common reaction. In addition to their earlier significant contribution to understanding the sources of resistance Kotter and Schlesinger (2008:133) state:

Many managers underestimate not only the variety of ways people can react to organisational change, but also the ways they can positively influence specific individuals and groups during a change.

They further put forward seven individual sources of resistance to change and identified for each of these the manner in which they could be managed as illustrated in Table 3.11:

Table 3.11: Organisational Sources of Resistance to Change

SOURCE OF RESISTANCE	SUMMARY EXPLANATION
Structural resistance or inertia	The bureaucratic nature of the organisation mitigates against change
Ignoring all factors that can be changed	Change that adopts a limited focus on one organisational aspect, rather than a holistic approach, can cause resistance
Threats to resources	Change that is likely to generate a redistribution of resources within the organisation can generate resistance
Threats to expertise	Change that is likely to generate a redistribution of resources within the organisation can generate resistance
Threats to power	Change that is likely to generate a redistribution of resources within the organisation can generate resistance
Group inertia	Organisational groupings can develop organisational habits that mitigate against change or resist the change

Source: (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008)

Furthermore, there are five sources of resistance providing different perspectives which can be summed up as follows:

- a) Leadership indecision, due to leaders' fear of uncertainty or sometimes for fear of changing the status quo (Beer and Eisenstat, 1996; Burdett, 1999; Hutt et al., 1995; Kanter, 1989; Krüger, 1996; Maurer, 1996; Rumelt, 1995);
- b) Embedded routines and work practices and certain ways of doing things combined with deeply rooted values (Hannan and Freeman, 1984; Rumelt, 1995; Starbuck et al., 1978);

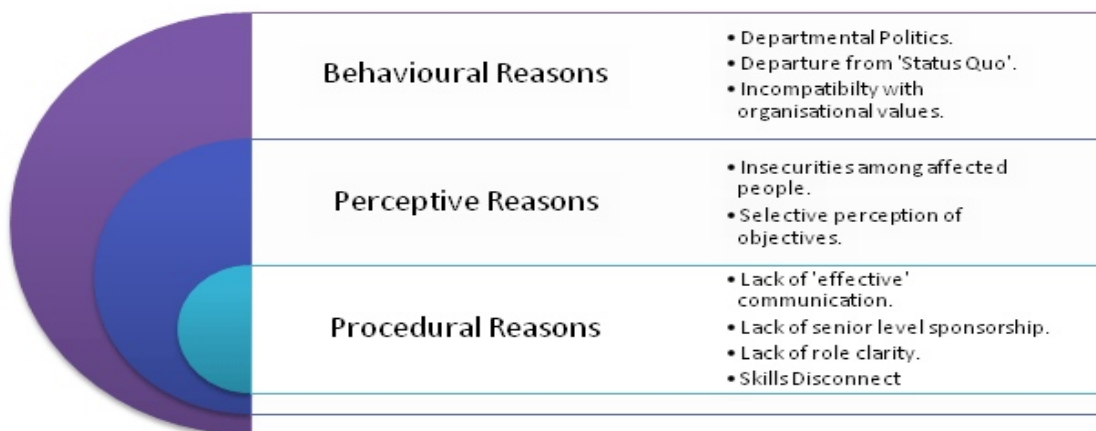
- c) Collective action problems, specially dealing with the difficulty to decide who is going to move first or how to deal with free-riders (Rumelt, 1995);
- d) Lack of the necessary capabilities to implement change – capabilities gap (Rumelt, 1995)
- e) Cynicism –showing negative attitudes about the motivation and benefits for change process (Maurer, 1996; Reichers, Wanous and Austin, 1997).

In addition, management not supporting change is believed to be the biggest single factor inhibiting change (ProSci, 2000: 5). It includes:

- Management that is not committed or is sceptical of change
- Senior management failure to communicate a “workable” change strategy.
- Senior management lack of time to help implement and support change.
- Inadequate resources of time, money and knowledge

Dixit (2012) sums up the components of resistance to change as follows:

Figure 3.8: Components of resistance to change



Source: (Dixit 2012)

#### 3.7.4 Resistance to Change in the Arab World

Change in any organisation or country is generally challenging and likely to be resisted, but if that country or organisation is in the Arab world, then the change initiative becomes daunting and of unpredictable consequences. Many people in these parts of the world are neither used to change nor to change management and nor have they been trained in initiating, implementing and sustaining change. Business as usual and God will take care of the rest seems to be the guiding principle.

#### 3.7.5 Overcoming Resistance to Change

The literature clearly shows that resistance to change is a potential challenge and a likely inconvenience to be considered in any change process, since dealing and managing resistance adequately can 'make or break' change initiatives. It is important to understand the employees' concerns, fears and resistance and to discuss with them these issues. Changes often mean new territory for all concerned. Informing and communicating clearly and openly shares the vision so that rumours do not build up and the new territory is not perceived as threatening but as manageable. The ability to listen and let people know they are being heard and understood, which makes them more willing to work together to find a solution instead of digging in their heels, is an important leadership role. All too often management refers to resistance to change using the cliché that "people resist change" and never look further. But changes continually occur in life. People are reluctant to change their routine because something that is working does not need any change in their opinion. Strategies for overcoming resistance to change include:

- Communication
- Participation and involvement
- Management support
- Negotiation and agreement

Change often fails because some organisations favour slogans and symbols over substance. Substantial change in practice requires a lot of hard work. Change is accepted because employees have been convinced that the change or innovation is necessary. Franklin (2013:33) sums it up clearly suggesting that research, surveys and experience have shown that much, if not most, of the resistance to a change can be eliminated or minimised through foresight and appropriate action.

‘Resistance is a natural reaction to change – in fact, the lack of resistance usually indicates that either 1) they don’t believe the change will occur or, 2) they don’t believe the change impacts them. We don’t want to hide or ignore resistance. We want to identify, address and move past it’.

To conclude, resistance often occurs not because employees are opposed to the change, but because they have not been engaged in the process early on and they lack awareness about why the change is being made.

### 3.8 Reasons Why Change Initiatives Fail

Despite the success rate of some change models in different organisations across the world and the much publicised idea of adopting ‘best practice’, it is difficult to import or export change programmes and models from one region to another.

Particular vision and policies, cultural background, people and local settings shape programmes in unique ways. Even if the words used to label aims, problems or outcomes are the same, what exists on the ground will inevitably be influenced by particular characteristics in each and every instance. The findings from most of the relevant studies showed that change is often snubbed by employees in many organisations because it was mandated by the management and forced on the organisation and employees had not been consulted. Katzenbach (1996:149) states that: 'change efforts are often conceived as waves of initiatives that sweep through an organisation from the top down, or the bottom up, or both, and flow across functions'. This suggests that change initiatives – as most of the organisational plans – are prepared exclusively by management at the top then dropped on the employees. Based on the fact that change models are mostly goal-driven aiming towards attaining a purpose, goal, function, or desired end state, thus change is seen as purposive and planned. Models are built on the assumption that outcomes are not a historical necessity but the result of purposeful human actions. According to Greenhalgh et al (2004), change and innovation fail not because the new strategies or goals are inappropriate but rather because organisations are unable to successfully implement them. Similarly, Worrall and Cooper (2012:3) conducted a comprehensive study and their findings were significant. They state that:

'Our research has pointed to the existence of a negative cycle in many organisations that often originates in ill-conceived and ineptly managed organisational change which leads to increased workplace stress, lower



motivation and lower productivity. This cycle of decline is often compounded by damaging leadership styles and uninspiring management behaviours'

Organisational change management literature suggests that there are serious constraints to overcome and 'change fatigue,' is one of them. This refers to the exhaustion that sets in when people feel under pressure to make too many transitions at once. The change initiatives are untimely, rolled out too fast, or put in place without sufficient preparation. It is also a likely result of management being ill prepared and ill qualified to deal with change effectively. There are some common reasons why strategies for managing change do not work. The odds of change management failure depend on numerous key factors: These can be summed up as follows:

- Unclear or incorrect goals or vision
- Insufficient communication and motivation
- Change seen as a senior management issue only
- Implementation strategy not thought through
- Lack of skills to ensure that change can be sustained over time.
- Too much focus on the technical side of change – rather than people issues
- Culture not changed

In their final report, Worrall and Cooper (2012:5) express their concern about the tinkering nature of some of the change strategies:

'Our prime concerns are that, when it comes to organisational change, many senior management teams appear to be making things up as they go along and they are often too ambitious in what they think they can achieve without

permanently damaging or alienating the entire workforce. When it comes to managing change, the end of term report for UK managers is definitely 'could do better, must try harder'.

In conclusion, change literature has discussed and presented different change theories and varying steps involved in change processes; however, there is no evidence that indicates that these have been translated fully into change processes and successfully implemented in practice. This is supported by Robertson et al. (1993: 619), who claim that: "relatively little effort has been devoted to the task of empirically validating, such theoretical models". Moreover, Dougherty and Cohen (1995:100) stress that: "piecemeal tweaks and incremental shifts [...] are not enough. Managers need to grab the configuration and shift it all at once."

Critics argue that one of the causes of change initiatives failure is attributed to leaders who do not prepare the organisation sufficiently enough (Self et al., 2007). Leaders tend to rush into change initiatives, so much so that they lose sight of the objectives (Beer and Nohria 2000), overlook the importance of communicating a consistent change message (Armenakis and Harris 2002) or fail to understand what is necessary to guide their organisation through change (Self and Schraeder 2009).

Dunphy (1996) holds the view that organisational change is of itself a failure of the organisation to continuously adapt. The need to introduce change arises where continuous improvement has not been undertaken and the organisation requires remedial action to address the weaknesses. This view is also advocated by Weick

and Quinn (1999:362) who argue that: 'The basic tension that underlies many discussions of organisational change is that it would not be necessary if people had done their jobs right in the first place.'

In addition, change management theories and models tend to use simplistic and mechanistic language and create often unrealistic routines and structures to maintain and manage people. A good deal of research involving organisational change efforts views change as a linear process, as if people going through change behave or work predictably and linearly. Thus standardised change approaches with leadership styles for all types of change are put forward. As Cummings and Worley (2009:41) point out:

Current thinking about planned change is deficient in knowledge about how the stages of planned change differ across situations. Most models specify a general set of steps that are intended to be applicable to most change efforts.....Considerably more effort needs to be expended identifying situational factors that may require modifying the general stages of planned change.

Combe (2014) states that, in a study of CEOs, IBM (2008) identified the top challenges to successfully implementing strategic change as:

1. Changing mindsets and attitudes (58%)
2. Corporate culture (49%)
3. Underestimation of complexity (35%)

4. Shortage of resources (33%)
5. Lack of higher management commitment (32%)
6. Lack of change know-how (20%)
7. Lack of motivation of involved employees (16%)

### 3.9 Successful Change Management Factors

A range of labels, terms and slogans have over the last three decades emerged in the research area of business such as managing change, change management, leading change, readiness for change, change leadership, change agent and resistance to change. There is a plethora of change management text books, articles, models, steps, formulas and change strategies. And yet despite the hype about change management and change expertise, most change initiatives end in failure. According to statistics, 70-80% fell short of achieving their strategic change objectives (Hughes, 2011; Pellettiere, 2006) and according to a frequently cited study by McKinsey consultants, leaders found that only one third of change efforts are successful (Meaney and Pung, 2008). This led Higgs and Rowland (2010:37) to conclude that despite the broad and diverse change efforts and initiatives, there is no real progress, only “dysfunction, patchy implementation and frustration.”

Although some studies made an effort to evaluate the achievement and completion rate of change theories using a range of different criteria, what precisely constitutes a success or failure is often overlooked. The main theme that transpires from the literature suggests therefore that many studies tend to focus on success as one-

way traffic, although multiple indicators could be more pertinent. It is worth noting however, that it is difficult to measure and assess the success of change in general. This study takes the view that the most cited information in the change management literature which makes reference to 'The brutal fact is that about 70% of all change initiatives fail' (Beer and Nohria 2000:15) should be viewed with some suspicion. Reichard (2003) reinforces this view stating that it is impossible to make success judgements because many changes are still ongoing. Few studies explicitly refer to organisational change as being successful (Sharma and Hoque 2002; Chustz and Larson 2006; Chen et al. 2006). Other studies rarely explicitly address the success of change. In other words the success of the change remains a mystery to be explored in most studies.

Successful change can only be achieved through the involvement, commitment and participation of everyone concerned in the organisation, employees and managers. Engaging everyone in the change process is key to contributing to a smoother transition. A useful way of thinking about the change process is problem solving. Managing change is considered as a process of moving from one state to another, specifically, from the problem state to the solved state. Problem analysis is generally a prerequisite. Structural changes form only part of the change process and successful change management depends upon seven key factors as illustrated in the following table:

Table 3.12. Step by Step Strategies for Managing Change

1	Understand the change process. Understand the urgency and need for change. Raise awareness why the change needs to happen
2	Create a shared vision of how the organisation will benefit from the change; in other words communicate the need and involve people in developing the change
3	Acquire resources and competencies to undertake the change;
4	Communicate the need and involve and engage employees in change and ensure management commitment in supporting the change.
5	Assess readiness of organisational structure.
6	Take decisive and sustainable action to maintain and drive the change.
7	Evaluate progress and celebrate success

Source: Developed by the present researcher

To conclude, the key issue with the theories and arguments put forward thus far is that many authors assume and believe that their change model is innovative and will produce successful change results if applied properly. Others argue that the problem is the unit of analysis: much of the change research focuses on the organisational (i.e. macro or system-oriented) level and less on the individuals (Neves 2009; Wanberg and Banas 2000); fewer still consider the two together (Burnes and Jackson (2011).

However, it is probably safe to state that whatever the type and nature of organisational change carried out, planned, unplanned, transitional, or

transformational, there is no one best model and that change is never a straightforward or smooth process or one that can be fully predictable. A clash is bound to happen when people and processes try to work together to achieve the organisational vision. Thus change is often distressing, unsettling, intimidating and sometimes upsetting. Depending on the individual, change in the workplace can be challenging.

### 3.10 Change Readiness – Change Awareness

There is a plethora of suggestions and theories on what is the best way to manage change (Jicks, 1991; Kanter 1989; Kotter 2012). There is also a large body of research that argues that there is no point in undertaking change unless the organisation is actually ready and able to adopt the change (Armenakis and Harris, 2002). The literature abounds with 'change readiness' research. Bouckennooghe (2010) conducted an extensive review in which he concluded that over 90% of conceptual work on change attitudes has focused on either change readiness or resistance to change.

Before considering a change initiative, it is essential that an organisation first determines and evaluates its readiness and capacity for change. The main challenge is not the change itself but the importance of awareness, anticipation and readiness for the change. One of the most important tools for building common understanding around change is organisational dialogue.

The pace, scale and significance of change have increased considerably in recent years (Burnes and Jackson 2011; Grady and Grady 2012). Such changes are often aimed at improving the performance and effectiveness of the organisations so that they are competitive and generate value (Cawsey et al. 2012; Hayes 2002). There is strong evidence which suggests that the world, and in particular the business environment, is likely to undergo change at a more rapid pace in the future. The signs of change are already here. Kotter (2012) predicts that the speed and pressure on organisations to change will increase and expand over the next few decades. He suggests that it would make sense to learn more about what creates successful change and to be prepared to deal with the challenges ahead.

It can be argued that readiness and change go hand in hand; they are inseparable. The success of any organisational change initiative is reliant to a large extent on the "readiness" level of the employees. "Readiness" is viewed in this study as the extent to which employees are willing to support, rebuke or resist change. In order to determine employee "readiness" for change, awareness is necessary to assess the organisation capability. Good change awareness is being proactively engaged and ready for continuous improvement, focusing on emerging trends and planning for the future. Researchers continue to warn that the pace and complexity of change is growing and will continue to grow (Canton, 2006). This trend is reflected in new concepts and terminology appearing in the management and organisational studies literature. For example, authors refer to high-velocity environments (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000) and hyper turbulent environments (Selsky, et al. 2007).



### 3.10.1 Defining Readiness for Change

Within the scope of change management and managing the resistance of employees to change is the concept of readiness for change. Readiness is a slippery term; it denotes different meanings and is used in different ways (Choi and Rouna 2010; Weiner, et al. 2008). For instance, some believe that readiness for change means being aware of the change initiative and the capacity to implement it successfully, whilst others focus on the employees' belief in the benefits from the change. Choi and Rouna (2010) indicate that despite the large and diverse number of definitions about readiness for change, most of these definitions have similarities in meaning and share common understanding of the term which relates to the 'individual readiness for organisational change' that involves an individual's assessment about the individual and organisational capacity for making a successful change, the need for a change, and the benefits the organisation and its members may gain from a change.

The concept of "readiness for organisational change," as defined by Holt et al. (2007, 235), fits particularly well within the scope and aim of this study:

A comprehensive attitude that is influenced simultaneously by the content (i.e., what is being changed), the process (i.e., how the change is being implemented), the context (i.e., circumstances under which the change is occurring), and the individuals (i.e., characteristics of those being asked to change) involved.

Thus readiness for change assumes an already established sense of preparedness. It is a key strategy for change management which consists of preparing employees for the impending change in their organisation. This concept considers that change is best managed when there is preparedness for it and when those who are to be affected by it have come to accept that it will happen. Jones, et al. (2005: 362) define this readiness for change as:

the extent to which employees hold positive views about the need for organisational change (i.e. change acceptance), as well as the extent to which employees believe that such changes are likely to have positive implications for themselves and the wider organisation.

Simpson and Flynn (2007) view organisational change as a dynamic step-based process developed to improve practices by introducing new initiatives in a sequential manner. Steps include: a diagnosis of the readiness level before exposure to new evidence-based interventions in training workshops, adopting the new practices, which involves decision-making and action; implementing the innovation by expanding the adoption to regular use; and finally, sustaining the implementation to become standard practice. Thus, the change process starts with an assessment of the current state of the organisation in terms of needs and resources, structural and functional characteristics, and general readiness to embrace change (Simpson, 2009). Thus in order to define and understand the concept of readiness, several perspectives need to take into account. For instance, Armenakis et al. (1993), view readiness as the cognitive precursor to the behaviours of either resisting or supporting the change effort. Similarly, readiness has been defined as the extent to

which employees show a positive attitude and have the feel good factor about the need for organisational change. The most frequently quoted definition of change readiness was developed by Armenakis et al. (1993: 681) who described readiness as an individual's "beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organisation's capacity to successfully undertake those changes".

In other words readiness is not just about the individual but also about the organisation's capacity to facilitate and support the change process (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Jones et al., 2005). To convey the same idea, some authors use different terms with similar meaning to readiness for change. For instance, Miller et al. (1994: 60) coined the term "openness to change" which they define as 'support for change,' with a positive take on "the potential consequences of the change, and it is considered a necessary, initial condition for successful planned change."

In some literature, readiness for change is considered as a wide-ranging concept comprising of different aspects i.e. readiness is viewed as a multidimensional and multilevel construct (Bouckenooghe, 2008; Weiner, 2009; Rafferty et al., 2013). Its multidimensional aspect represents the cognitive (the way a person thinks), affective (the way a person feels) and behavioural or intentional (the way a person is inclined to act) aspects towards the object of attitude (Pideret, 2000; Oreg, 2006; Bouckenooghe, 2008). The multilevel perspective indicates the individual, group and organisational readiness, (Weiner, 2009; Ford et al., 2008; Rafferty et al., 2013).

However, according to Gagnon et al. (2011), there is a lack of a holistic approach in the assessment of readiness for change.

Therefore readiness for change is an assessment and a process of determining how prepared an organisation is for change. A readiness assessment begins with evaluating the culture, leadership styles, performance, processes and resources of the organisation. Thus readiness for change by employees has a dual function. Firstly, it is a positive factor in overcoming resistance to change and ensuring effective change management. In other words assessing readiness for change entails identifying the issues that are likely to be challenging or barriers to the change process (the resistance trouble spots) and then addresses these in a proactive way. Readiness for change takes account of the fact that there will be differences arising from a change process and presupposes that this will in turn lead to resistance within an organisation. Secondly, change readiness is identified as a potential cursor for determining when to undertake a change programme. (Armenakis et al.1993; Jones et al, 2005). However, expecting resistance to change and planning how to deal with it from the start of the change initiative will allow the effective management of hostilities. Change must be clearly driven by a goal that everyone can understand and making sure everyone has a part to play.

In the words of Holt et al. (2007), Organisational Readiness for Change (ORC) is a comprehensive attitude affected concurrently by the nature of the change, the

change process, the organisation's context, and the attributes of individuals. These approaches include planning, communication and vision setting for the type of organisational environment that is anticipated after the change process has been implemented (Armenakis et al, 1993). Such an approach considers change as an ongoing process and not just one that considers the beginning of the change process.

One way of creating staff readiness is by engaging employees in the change process. Many researchers acknowledge that this has a positive effect on future change programmes. For instance, Weber and Weber (2001:291) point out that: 'An organisational environment where employees have previously been involved in planning or implementing changes can help reduce resistance to new change efforts and also encourage employee's commitment to the change'

Preparedness and organisational readiness for change cannot be stressed enough as there is a general consensus amongst key authors in the change management literature who point to the fact that most change initiatives have failed to achieve their purpose (Carnall, 2007; Senge et al, 1999; Kotter, 1995; Song, 2009; Kotter, 1996, 2012). It can be argued that one of the likely causes of failure is the untimely and inefficient approach taken in managing the change. It is also a likely result of management and employees being ill prepared and ill qualified to deal with change effectively. Hence the main aim of this study is to find out the level of readiness for change within the MOI departments in order to implement effective change strategies.

It is well acknowledged that change is an inevitable part of the modern business environment and that change is a process that organisations have come to realise that they cannot ignore. But change is a complex process and rarely comes easily. As pointed out earlier, the change management literature suggests that lack of attention to the issue of change readiness leads to 70% to change failure (Beer and Nohria, 2000; Cope, 2003; Burnes, 2004; Ford et al., 2008). It seems therefore that there is a general consensus that preparing seriously and effectively for change is a prerequisite to the success of organisational improvements (Holt et al.2007; Cinite et al.2009; Pare et al., 2011).

Organisations and their employees must constantly re-invent themselves to remain competitive. As a result, today's leaders must do more than manage the status quo. Leaders must be experts in change readiness – the ability to continuously initiate and respond to change in ways that create advantage, minimise risk, and sustain performance. As Holt et al., (2007: 33) point out:

“Successful implementation of organisational changes generally proceeds through three stages: readiness, adoption, and institutionalisation. Readiness occurs when the environment, structure, and organisational members' attitudes are such that they are receptive to a forthcoming change. Adoption occurs when the organisational members temporarily alter their attitudes and behaviours to conform to the expectations of the change. Institutionalisation occurs when the change becomes a stable part of the organisation's behaviour.”

Although the concept of creating readiness for change focuses on the attitudes of employees within a workplace and their perspectives and beliefs of the need or rationale for change, readiness is not the opposite of resistance. The greater the readiness, the less threat of resistance there will be. There is a consensus among change management theorists that readiness for change is often the core to any change management strategy (Armenakis et al. 1993). As Self (2009: 4) argues:

“The genesis of readiness lies in Lewin’s (1951) concept of unfreezing or getting organisation members to let go, both physically and psychologically, of the current ways of doing things within the organisation”.

Armenakis et al. (1993) also indicate that in order for change to happen, clear communication, stressing key messages to create readiness for organisational change is a prerequisite, as the following Table 3.13 reveals:

Table 3.13: Creating Readiness for Organisational Change

Need for change (discrepancy)
Highlight the organisation’s ability to make the change (efficacy)
Appropriateness of the change – does it suit our business?
Principal support for the change – do the leaders support it?
Value of the change (valence) - how will I personally benefit?
The communication appeared to be inadequate

Source: (Armenakis et al.,1993)

Thus the importance of creating a feel good factor and a sense of preparedness to adopt new initiatives, and providing a sense that the existing workplace conditions are ready for change, has been viewed as basis of the preparedness for change programme (Schalk et al, 1998). Many researchers found that where organisational leaders failed to create an atmosphere of readiness for change and misjudged the degree of preparedness within the organisation and its employees, the change effort either experienced false starts from which they might or might not recover, the change efforts stalled as resistance increased, or the effort failed altogether (Self and Schraeder 2009; Weiner, et al. 2008). According to Rafferty et al. (2012: 112):

Despite the degree of interest in change readiness, however, we identify two major limitations with research on the topic that currently restricts our understanding of this construct. First, while there is agreement about the key cognitions or beliefs that underlie change readiness (cf. Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007; Armenakis et al., 1993), researchers have paid considerably less attention to the affective element of this change attitude.

One way of assessing readiness for change is to gauge employee perceptions about change. An understanding of how the employees perceive and experience change is important in understanding how participants react and feel during the change process. This in turns means being able to address the forces of resistance. A key to successful change stems, therefore, from clearly outlining and communicating the reasons and the vision for change. Employees need to be aware about what the change involves and how they are involved in it.



### 3.10.2 Change Readiness – Change Agility

Recent literature refers to change readiness as change agility which consists of a company's capability to engage people in change processes. This is an internal programme that is critical to the company's ability to effectively implement identified initiatives. Change agility thus implicitly raises the following questions: what is the change, how is it going to be accomplished, and what outcomes does it intend to achieve? According to Combe (2014) this can be set out as follows:

- 1) What: Change agility is the intentional and planned preparation of the organisation to enhance the likelihood that its strategies—realised through portfolio, programme and project management, including the change management components—will produce the intended strategic benefits.
- 2) How: The change agility review process assesses and leads to enhanced organisational agility and operational capability to respond effectively to opportunities or challenges.
- 3) To What end: It is aimed at creating an environment of personal and organisational norms, structures, and processes that are more fluid and adaptive.

Thus Combe (2014) believes that today's business environment requires greater change agility because organisations operate in a world of unprecedented change and instability. An organisation with good change agility has the capacity to stretch when necessary and quickly allocate resources where they are likely to make the most difference. And while change has always been the norm in business, the pace

of change is considerably much faster than in the past. Combe (2014:12) argues that:

Change agility is not a destination or a defined state of maturity. It is a continuous quest, informed by changing internal and external factors. Change agility is enhanced through an intentional management process of continuous improvement in the organisation's ability to both respond to environmental change to remain competitive, and to proactively initiate change to leverage opportunities.

### 3.10.3 Change Readiness Framework

Change readiness refers to the organisation's capability to respond and react to change adopting multiple measures and a multi-staged approach by identifying the nature and the urgency of the problem that needs to be addressed, assessing the risks, and managing potential employee opposition and resistance. A change readiness framework is designed to set clear change vision by engaging everyone in the change process and by aligning the mission objectives across the departments. The degree of preparedness of the organisation and its ability to integrate a change programme within existing systems is likely to produce successful change. Regarding the level of readiness and capability to change, Teece (2007) adopts the term dynamic capabilities. He argues that dynamic capabilities can be divided into the capacity: (1) to sense and shape opportunities and threats, (2) to seize opportunities, and (3) to maintain competitiveness through enhancing, combining, protecting, and when necessary, reconfiguring the business enterprise's intangible and tangible assets.

Adopting a different line of thought, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002, 474) point out that readiness implies a sense of 'commitment' which is one of the key factors involved in employees' support for change initiatives. They define "commitment to change" as a force or the mind-set that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative. According to them, this mind-set that binds an individual to this course of action can reflect: (i) a desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits (affective commitment to change); (ii) a recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the change (continuance commitment to change); and (iii) a sense of obligation to provide support for the change (normative commitment to change).

### 3.11 Summary and Gaps in the Literature

The literature review regarding promoting or inhibiting change reveals that there is no unified front in change management research and that many studies fall short of providing empirical evidence about change management. Theories of change can therefore present an illusion of purpose indicating that change is a common feature, but in practice change is multi-dimensional and complex and failure is relatively widespread (Flaskas, 2005). Although change management and managing change have been widely examined in a variety of contexts, there seems to be the same outcome. Research has always achieved the purpose of providing concrete answers on how to manage the change successfully in different cultural settings.

In addition much of the change management literature consists of anecdotal evidence, views and case studies that are difficult to compare and the various theories or ideas produced by “gurus” that appear plausible but in the long run have few practical implications (Illes and Sutherland, 2001). Harsh criticism was levelled by Pettigrew (1985) at the research on change claiming that change management research was weakened due to its ‘ahistorical, acontextual and aprocessual nature’ and was therefore of little practical use to managers. In a later paper, Pettigrew (1990) sustained this view and suggested that the failure to identify clear insights was because researchers tended to focus attention on single change events in the design and execution of their research. It may also be true to say that some studies on change management have been “repackaged” for publication. Literature suggests that the dominant ideas regarding change within the public service remain largely untested or challenged.

Although change management research extends over six decades it is still not conclusive. This is confirmed by Hughes (2007) who claims that there still exist contradictions related to the gap in change management models and initiatives and their successful implementation. This view is supported by By (2005:370) who argues the only two points on which everyone seems to agree:

“Even though it is difficult to identify any consensus regarding a framework for organisational change management, there seems to be an agreement on two important issues. Firstly, it is agreed that the pace of change has never been greater than in the current business environment. Secondly, there is a

consensus that change, being triggered by internal or external factors, comes in all shapes, forms and sizes, and, therefore, affects all organisations in all industries.”

It can also be concluded that research on change management draws significantly on psychological theory as it predominantly focuses on people issues such as changing mind-sets, values and behaviours. As a result, the literature contains descriptive and prescriptive models and approaches of organisational change initiatives. These prescriptive approaches, or 'n-step guides' as Collins (1998) calls them, assume that workers' personalities are 'plastic' and easily shaped to suit the needs of the organisation. One of the ideas underpinning the notion of different models is that they represent a meaningful distinction in bringing about change.

There is extensive research focusing on organisational change in general involving academics, business and organisational experts. However, it is fair to say that whilst a great deal of the research is relatively sound providing useful insights, it is supported only by untested empirical data. There is probably not a sufficient amount that has used a longitudinal approach to produce meaningful insights into the phenomenon. A large part of the generic change management literature attempts to define change concepts, describe how they should be implemented, and underlines the benefits of implementation. Empirically based studies are relatively rare and, of those that are available, many describe research that is flawed in parts, or lacking a conceptual framework, appropriate research design, analytical rigour, or independent investigators (Shortell et al., 1995).

The literature indicated that there are at times overlapping views between researchers regarding the most suitable approach to managing change: either planned or emergent approaches. Most planned approaches to organisational change outline a set of steps or stages designed to be followed to implement change initiatives, without taking into account the impact of contextual factors on the individuals required to achieve organisational results. The key issue, it seems, is that stakeholders must take into account the holistic context in which the organisation operates, and what outcomes their change initiatives are attempting to achieve, before deciding on the most appropriate approach to managing change.

There is a general consensus across the extensive change management literature that the human impact of change can be controlled to some extent by managers if due care is given to preparation and readiness for change. There is widespread belief in much of the change literature which indicates that, in general, change implementation models are not exportable and unsuitable for most organisational change situations, based, to a great extent, on their face value.

The limited research conducted in the UAE on how to effectively manage the change process for the MOI staff provides strong evidence for the need of this study. Much of research has been conducted in western settings with a strong tradition for routine change, but in the Middle East change management is under-researched. Therefore this study aims to provide fresh insights into managing change within the public

sector in the MOI in order to expand the literature and benefit the relevant decision-makers.

It is true that the UAE has been undergoing massive change over the last three decades. However, 'change management' as a discipline has been largely unconsidered and unaddressed by organisations. As a result existing academic and business research has paid little attention to the variables that have contributed to a disjointed process of organisational change.

There is a knowledge gap in terms of the applicability of existing change theories in non-Western countries and in particular the Middle East. In other words, the scope of change theories and the range of change drivers proposed by the broad literature are restricted to developed rather than developing countries; therefore these change models do not take into account government influence which is often one of the most influential factor in the UAE. Changes are motivated by different events and reasons, led by different decision-makers, and originating from different hierarchies of the organisations but in the case of the UAE, change is a prescribed process initiated by the federal government driven by a number of factors. Moreover, managing change studies have been driven by case studies. In addition, change management theories are often prescriptive, with very little, if any empirical evidence and the change models suggested have not been tested in the Middle East. There is little research on change theory which examines the UAE organisational settings.

The success of change rests on several factors, such as readiness for change and scale of change. However, the most important element in change management is the human factor, that is, those who prepare the change, those who will be tasked to implement the change and also those affected by change. Organisational culture also impacts on change as change is perceived differently by various stakeholders. There is agreement in the literature regarding the nature of resistance and opposition to change which can be triggered by lack of a coherent and consistent vision of the change initiatives and fear and uncertainty of a new work environment. In addition, the complexity of a change initiative may lead to resistance if it is not clearly explained by leaders and managers and fully understood by all stakeholders. With regards to the many change models that this study reviewed, it is reasonable to argue that there are essentially no 'off the shelf' solutions to implementing change processes. Nevertheless the models provide some useful insights. Whilst it is unlikely that any one change model fits perfectly, there is scope to consider a more hybrid approach to change. There needs to be a move away from 'static' models of change, which stress the content and substance of change (Nelson 2003), to the dynamics of change, with the expectation that change occurs within a less certain environment. No single change theory, strategy or model will address all the issues or fit all situations that emerge. The MOI needs to be adept at assessing organisational situations and experienced at choosing a change programme that is best suited to the particular circumstances that confront them. The MOI has in recent years, acknowledged that the traditional style of managing is no longer compatible with current challenges. An efficient approach to managing is needed to enhance public service delivery.



It can thus be concluded that the literature about change management is broad and covers a lot of ground encroaching on several different academic disciplines including psychology, sociology, business policy, social policy and others. The fuzzy boundaries of change management make a universal definition of change difficult. Valuable contributions to change management literature from the past, headed by Lewin (1947), have left their mark on this research area. Recent research contains plenty of evidence and models generated by a wide range of authors whose work and change theories differ in form and tone but are overlapping in content, encompassing descriptive accounts of change, theoretical models for analysing change, prescriptive models that aim to guide the change process, typologies of different approaches to organisational change, and empirical studies of the success and failure of various initiatives, programmes and tools. Within the literature, the nature of change is examined extensively from different perspectives and work environments exploring the scale of the change and its impact on core organisational strategies. However, the boom of literature on 'change management' has not been matched by a clear debate about the best way to implement change. In terms of content, it is worth noting that change management authors pay much attention to what the change involves, including in-depth accounts and descriptions ranging from macro-level reforms and new policies to micro-level changes in procedures and new structures. At this point, the following question could be asked: how useful are these change theories and models for facilitating and leading change within the context of MOI? The answer to the question depends on the practical

implications and suitability of these theories in different organisational and cultural settings.

The key objective for this chapter was to review the literature and find out how change management has been studied during the past decade and what lessons can be learnt to have a better understanding of the best practice, with the view of benefitting the MOI and by being able to make recommendations for a successful change agenda and vision for the future. In the light of this review, it can be broadly concluded that change management seems to be rather inconsistent and patchy.

As Kuipers, et al. (2014:30) point out:

Change management theory, as a rational-adaptive theory, places significant emphasis on both describing and prescribing the process of change implementation, although, it tends to lack contextual considerations.

From the broad and extensive literature on change management four key themes and insights common to all change efforts seem to emerge as highlighted by Armenakis and Bedeian (1999):

- 1) Content aspects which focus on the substance of contemporary organisational changes;
- 2) Contextual issues, which essentially focus on organisational external and internal environment factors;
- 3) Process issues, which address actions undertaken during the enactment of an intended change;

- 4) Criterion issues, which focus on outcomes commonly assessed in organisational change efforts. Research dealing with monitoring affective and behavioural reactions to change is also reviewed.

Undoubtedly, some change theories, as it is evident, provide insightful and thoughtful arguments worth considering in any change management context. Some have practical value, whereas others are purely theoretical or with little practical implications particularly in the UAE context. Naturally it implies that some are more pertinent and useful than others. However, it does not mean that organisations should overlook theoretical concepts, because these concepts may provide fresh views for their strategies. Particular attention should be paid to the change aspects which have direct relevance to change processes that are in tune with the UAE vision.

# Chapter Four

## Research Methodology and Methods

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and justifies the research methodology and methods adopted by this study in order to collect and analyse data to achieve the research objectives. In essence this chapter is concerned with the choice of appropriate methodology and methods by which the validity of research is measured. Thus, this chapter shows clearly and justifies how the research is to be conducted and why particular data collection instruments were selected and why others have not been considered. This research has been developed on the basis of the relevant literature review, the nature of the problem and the research objectives. For the purpose of clarity this chapter is structured as follows. It starts by re-visiting the research objectives and questions. It is then followed by defining the notion of research and clarifying the difference between methodology and methods. Next, the meaning of ontology and epistemology, the research philosophies and the research paradigms are explained and discussed. The research strategy and the research approaches (quantitative and qualitative) are highlighted and justified. Definitions of sampling, sampling selection and strategies, sampling in quantitative and qualitative research and justification of the selection of the research sample are determined. Two main data collection tools (questionnaire survey and interview) are explained and justified. Reliability, validity and generalisability and the main ethical considerations are

explained. The pilot study is discussed which is then followed by a summary as the final part of this chapter.

## 4.2 Revisiting the Research Objectives and Questions

This study aims to examine the level of readiness and the impact of organisational change within the public sector in the UAE, the case of the Ministry of Interior (MOI). It is worth revisiting the research questions set in Chapter One in order to put the research philosophy and methodological choices in perspective. The reason behind this, is that the selection of the methodology and methods are shaped by the nature of the problem and research questions.

### 4.2.1 Research Objectives

- 1) To critically review the theories and concepts related to change management and readiness for change.
- 2) To identify the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within the MOI.
- 3) To analyse the existing strategic plans and measures for change readiness within the MOI.
- 4) To investigate whether the MOI uses formal change management techniques to ensure the success of change initiatives.
- 5) To find out what practical measures can be taken to prepare staff for change.
- 6) To assess the perceptions and views of MOI leaders about the change readiness.

- 7) To make recommendations based on the findings of this study to deliver and implement successful change initiatives within the MOI.

#### 4.2.2 Research Questions

In order to achieve the above objectives and address the extent to which the MOI (UAE) is well prepared for implementing change, this study formulates the following research questions:

- 1) What are the theories and concepts related to change management and readiness for change?
- 2) What are the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within the MOI?
- 3) How may the current changes in the Arab world affect the MOI?
- 4) What practical measures can be taken to prepare staff for change?
- 5) What are the main sources of resistance for leadership which impede the implementation of change?
- 6) What are the perceptions and views of MOI leaders about the change readiness?
- 7) What are the recommendations based on the findings of this study to deliver and implement successful change initiatives within the MOI?

### 4.3 Defining Research

Research is the pursuit of knowledge based upon the methodological process of collecting and analysing information to enhance an understanding of a phenomenon under investigation. It aims to address a research question in order to generate and develop knowledge. Despite the fact that research is an essential part of both business and academic life, it is not clear-cut in the literature on how it should be defined. Research has become a label often used randomly to mean different things to different stakeholders. The nature and purpose of research itself is something that can have many different interpretations. Today's society is research driven and the term research is frequently used, but not always in the correct way (Walliman, 2011). There is, however, a general agreement that research is a process of inquiry.

The main purpose of conducting research is to contribute to knowledge in a particular field. Walliman (2011) stresses that the overriding objective of research must be that of gaining beneficial and interesting knowledge. The objectives of research have been listed as follows (Walliman 2011:7):

- Categorisation
- Explanation
- Prediction
- Creating a sense of understanding
- Providing potential for control
- Evaluation

Thus research involves an organised, systematic, data-based and objective-oriented process in order to produce meaning and knowledge. Thus, research has been defined by Mertens (2005:2) as:

“a systematic investigation or inquiry whereby data are collected, analysed and interpreted in some way in an effort to understand, describe, predict or control an educational or psychological phenomenon or to empower individuals in such contexts.”

Similarly, Bryman (2008) states that changes and developments in society are the main impetus for ‘social research’. However, definitions of research can be based on its purpose. Sekaran (1992) categorises research into two types – applied research and basic research. Applied research aims to solve an existing problem whereas the main purpose of basic research is to bridge the gap in the general body of knowledge in a particular field. Based on this definition, this study falls within the definition of basic research.

In the same vein, Burns (2000:3) views research as “a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem”. Sharp et al. (2002:7) consider research as “seeking through methodical processes to add to one’s own body of knowledge and to that of others, by the discovery of non-trivial facts and insights”. Clough and Nutbrown (2002: 22) using the same previously mentioned terminology, view research as a kind of systematic investigation of a phenomenon which can sometimes “be accurately measured scientifically, or data collected can be analysed and compared to identify trends, similarities or differences”.



The above definitions are either overlapping or share many common features. For the purpose of this study, research is considered as a knowledge seeking investigation and a process through which the existing knowledge is built on and expanded in order to create new knowledge to bridge the gap in the present knowledge. This study aims to identify and evaluate good practice in the area of change management to understand ways for managing change successfully within the MOI (UAE). The purpose of research in this case is about acquiring new skills of analysis and appraisal of change theories and models in order to generate strategies and make recommendations, based on reasoned arguments, to manage and implement change as and when needed rather than react in crisis.

#### 4.4 Research Methodology vs Research Methods

Research methods and research methodology are two terms that are often confused as one and the same and often used interchangeably (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Strictly speaking they are different. One of the main differences between them is that research methods are the tools/instruments used by the researcher to collect data on a phenomenon or a topic under investigation. In other words methods consist of the different investigation techniques and data collection instruments such as questionnaires, interviews, focus groups etc. In contrast, methodology is the study of methods and deals with the philosophical assumptions underlying the research process. Saunders et al (2009) define methodology as a theory of (1) how research should be conducted and (2) the implications of the method(s) used by the researcher, given the assumptions on which the research is based. Similarly

Easterby-Smith et al, (2013:18) distinguish methodology and methods as follows: “methodology is a combination of techniques used to inquire into a specific situation while methods are individual techniques for data collection, analysis, etc.”

Likewise, Hussey and Hussey (1997: 54) define methodology as “the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of data”. Methodology thus refers to the interrelationship which exists between theory, method, data and phenomena under investigation. It is a roadmap which aims to systematically explain the research problem, the rationale behind it and how research is conducted scientifically. Research methodology is a strategy used for the purpose of gathering information that helps in answering the research questions and achieving the research objectives.

Metaphorically speaking, the terms method and methodology are clarified by Clough and Nutbrown (2002:22) as follows: “method as being some of the ingredients of research while methodology provides the reasons for using a particular research recipe”. Johnson et al., (2007) describe methodology as a research design in which the researchers collect, analyse, and integrate or connect both quantitative and qualitative data related to their study. To conclude, Creswell (2003:3) states that there are three elements to a research framework when acting as a structure for understanding and developing research. He suggests that there are:

“Philosophical assumptions about what constitutes knowledge claims; general procedures of research called strategies of enquiry; and detailed procedures of data collection, analysis and writing called methods”.

#### 4.5 The Importance of Research Philosophies

Choices about the methodology underpinning a particular research is crucial. Ontological and epistemological assumptions play an important part in making these choices. Blaikie (2000) describes these aspects as part of a series of choices that the researcher must consider, and must demonstrate how these choices relate to the nature of the research problem which the study addresses. Easterby-Smith et al. (2004: 27) suggest that there are three reasons why an understanding of research philosophical issues is important:

- A knowledge of philosophy can help to clarify research designs;
- A knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which designs work or do not work;
- A knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher or may help the researcher to identify or create designs that may be outside their past experiences.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) stress that failure to grasp key philosophical issues can have a negative impact on the quality of the research outcome.

The importance of paying careful attention to the research philosophies has been highlighted by many researchers (Gay et al., 2008; Saunders et al. 2007; Bryman,

and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002) amongst others. Johnson and Duberley (2000: 7) stress the importance of being clear about one's philosophical position arguing that:

Our epistemological commitments influence the processes through which we develop what we take to be warranted knowledge of the world. Such deeply held taken-for-granted assumptions about how we come 'to know' influence what we experience as being true or false, what we mean by true or false, and indeed whether we think true and false are viable constructs.

Most research methods authors seem to agree that research philosophies not only allow the researcher to outline the method relevant to conduct the research but can also help to identify the type of data required, how to collect and how to interpret these data in order to find answers to the research questions and achieve the objectives. To put it concisely, a methodology is a strategy, a plan of action which determines the methods for data collection, whereas methods are simply the instruments and techniques used to gather the required data to answer the research questions

#### 4.6 Ontology and Epistemology

Research is based on assumptions about how reality is perceived and how best it can be understood and interpreted. Epistemology and ontology constitute the theory of knowledge and view of reality. Ontology refers to the philosophical study of the nature of being or the nature of reality while epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge, of how knowledge is gained from social entities. Clark et al., (2008)

define epistemology as the area of philosophy that uncovers the answer to the question ‘What does it mean to know?’ or ‘How does a researcher acquire the sought after knowledge?’ Furthermore, Crotty (1998:8) agrees with the above view and argues that “epistemology is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know”. Maynard (1994:10) points out that:

‘Epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate.’

Thus epistemology seeks to find answers two different questions including: How do we know the world? What is the relationship between the researcher and the known?

Table 4.1: Branches of philosophy

Branches of philosophy	Definition
Ontology	Studies the nature of reality, existence or being
Epistemology	Studies the nature of knowledge and what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study

Source: (Saunders et al., 2009)

The key debatable point is: is the social world external to social actors or something that people are actively involved in constructing? It is a question of whether social entities can be viewed objectively and that reality is external to social actors, or whether they are social constructions built up from the perceptions and interactions

of social actors. These two conflicting positions are referred to in the literature as objectivism and constructionism. As Bryman (2008:33) points out:

“Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors...

Constructionism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors.”

The relationship between epistemology and ontology is summarised in the following table:

Table 4.2 The relationship between epistemology and ontology

Assumption	Questions	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process Cause and effect Static design-categories isolated before study Context-free Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Context-bound Emerging design-categories identified during research process Patterns, theories developed for understanding Accurate and reliable through verification

Source: (Collis and Hussey, 2009:58)

In conclusion, ontology is considered as the reality that the researcher investigates whilst epistemology is the relationship between that reality and the researcher. On the one hand, reality is objective, absolute and the truth is single. On the other, the world is made up of multiple realities and truths. As social constructs are plural and reliant on subjective interests, researchers need to show where they stand.

#### 4.6.1 Research Philosophies

Research philosophy is referred to in the literature by different terms, depending who the author is, by such terms as research paradigm, epistemology and ontology, and philosophical worldviews (Creswell, 2009). Thus research philosophy, research paradigm and worldview are usually put in the same basket, suggesting these are just different labels signifying the same thing. In most instances, the philosophical background of a research is woven by a combination of different paradigms (Saunders et al., 2007).

Philosophy is a set of ideas, beliefs or values relating to a particular field or activity. Philosophy is concerned with investigating the intelligibility of concepts by means of rational argument relating to their presuppositions, implications and interrelationships (Patton, 2002). It is a paradigm that reflects the way a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge, which in turn influences the way they conduct the research (Saunders et al., 2007). For Crotty (1998), worldview or philosophy refers to attitudes and beliefs about knowledge while Denicolo and Becker (2012) make no distinction between paradigm and worldview, considering a paradigm as a basic set of beliefs and assumptions while a worldview underpins the

theories and methodology of a subject and thus guides actions. Guba and Lincoln (1994:107-108) define a paradigm as follows:

A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs ... that deals with ultimate or first principles. It presents a worldview that defines for its holder, the nature of the 'world', the individual's place in it, and its parts.

The two most frequently cited research philosophies in the social sciences are interpretivism and positivism (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). Similarly, Taylor and Bogdan (1984) state that there are two major research paradigms which have dominated the social sciences. The positivist seeks to obtain knowledge based on facts or identify causes of social phenomena away from the subjective states of individuals. The second paradigm is described as phenomenology also known as interpretivism which aims to gain knowledge based on meaning and understanding of social phenomena from the actor's/participant's own perspective. An interpretivist examines how the world is experienced. What is important about reality is what people perceive it to be. In terms of paradigms, the research management literature is vague as there is no single agreed paradigm (Breuer and Reichertz, 2001). There is also a variety of terms being used often erratically such as research philosophy, paradigm, epistemology and ontology, and philosophical worldviews (Creswell, 2009). Birley and Moreland (1998:30) define a paradigm as "a theoretical model within which the research is being conducted". Collis and Hussey (2003: 46) state that a paradigm: "Refers to the progress of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world



and the nature of knowledge; in this context, about how research should be conducted”.

According to Grix (2004: 78) paradigm is “our understanding of what one can know about something and how one can gather knowledge about it, and is inherent in every single approach to the study of society”. Kumar (2005) states that there are two main paradigms that form the bases of research in social sciences - positivism and interpretivism. He suggests that the paradigm which is rooted in physical science is known as the systematic, scientific or positivist approach. The other paradigm is called the qualitative or interpretivist approach. A paradigm in simple terms is a set of assumptions about how the world can be known (Gilbert, 2008).

The following table summarises some of the most common features that distinguish between positivism and interpretivism:

Table 4.3 Features that distinguish between positivism and interpretivism

	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Researcher and reality are separate	Researcher and reality are in-separable (life world)
Epistemology	Objective reality exists beyond the human mind	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a persons' lived experience

Research object	Research object has inherent qualities that exist independently of the researcher	Research object is interpreted in light of meaning structure of researcher's lived experience
Method	Statistics, content analysis	Hermeneutics, phenomenology
Theory of truth	Correspondence theory of truth: one to one mapping between research statements and reality	Truth is intentional fulfilment: interpretations of research object match lived experience of research object
Validity	Certainty: data truly measures reality	Defensible knowledge claims
Reliability	Replicability: research results can be reproduced	Interpretive awareness: researchers recognise and address implications of their subjectivity

Source: (Cepeda and Martin, 2005)

In this study the terms paradigm and philosophy, are used interchangeably.

#### 4.6.1.1 Positivism

This philosophical stance or paradigm views the researcher as an objective analyst and interpreter of a tangible social reality (Remenyi et al., 2002). Positivism enables the researcher to observe reality in a natural social setting, making generalised conclusions and using pre-existing theories to develop a different hypothesis. Positivists believe that there can be no real knowledge except that which is based on observed facts (Bryman, 2001). Gilbert (1993: 7) concurs and argues that positivists deem that society can be explained 'scientifically' according to laws and rational logics.

Research that uses the positivist approach is interested in finding the facts or causes of a social phenomenon while disregarding the subjective state of the individual. Social and natural worlds are both regarded by positivists as being bound by certain fixed laws in a sequence of causes and effects (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The underlying assumption for positivism is that the researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Accordingly, positivism is explained by Easterby-Smith et al. (2008: 57) as a paradigm based on the belief or the assumption that “The social world exists externally, and its properties should be measured through objective methods and not through sensation, reflection or intuition”.

Whereas a positivist seeks ‘to explain’, an interpretivist tries ‘to understand’ reality. Positivism seeks quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. However, positivism, especially in the social sciences, is not regarded as an approach that will lead to interesting or profound insights into complex problems especially in the field of business studies (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

However, absolute certainty and objectivity is deemed unattainable and researchers should be prepared to deal with the flaws and complex nature of the world. As a result, positivists have faced plenty of criticism recently for trying to investigate people as being separate from the social world in which they live and thus they cannot be understood without taking into account their perceptions which are influenced by their work place or environment. Furthermore, researchers are not

value free; they bring their own interests and values to the research during the observation process as Strauss and Corbin (1998: 43) indicate:

“Fortunately, over the years, researchers have learned that a state of complete objectivity is impossible and that in every piece of research – quantitative or qualitative – there is an element of subjectivity.... and researchers should take appropriate measures to minimise its intrusion into their analyses.”

Following this line of thinking, Collis and Hussey (2009:56) highlight a number of criticisms of positivism which include;

- “It is impossible to separate people from the social context in which they exist.
- People cannot be understood without examining the perceptions they have of their own activities.
- Capturing complex phenomena in a single measure is misleading.”

In essence, positivism is based on the belief that everything can be measured and that the researcher is an outsider and detached from the study. However, often collecting statistics and numbers is not the answer to understanding meanings, beliefs and experience, which are better understood through qualitative data. The assessment of the change initiatives and readiness for change within the MOI UAE can be quantified; however, in reality the findings which will be numerical may lack the rich quality of data required in order to interpret and gauge the participants’ perspectives and perceptions regarding change management at the MOI.

#### 4.6.1.2 Interpretivism

At the other extreme of the research paradigm, the interpretivist approach assumes that there are no 'universal truths' and that the individual voice is as important as the 'democratic' voice. Interpretivists accuse positivists of missing the point and lacking the necessary understanding of the complex and evolving world of business and management. Gill and Johnson (1997) explain that interpretivism, also known as phenomenology, is relative to research methods which examine people and their social behaviour. Thus according to Van (1990: 9-10). "Phenomenology aims at gaining a deeper understanding of the nature or meaning of our everyday experiences." A phenomenological analysis seeks to understand and articulate the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived experience of a phenomenon from a person's or group of people's points of view. Interpretivism can also be defined as:

"a focus on exploring how human beings make sense of experience and transform experience into consciousness, both individually and as shared meaning" (Patton 2002: 104).

The term interpretivism is also known as post-positivism and anti-positivism. It is considered as "a term given to a contrasting epistemology to positivism" Bryman (2001:12). The interpretivist approach considers people and their interpretations, perceptions, meanings and understandings, as the primary sources of data. Mason (2002) claims that an interpretivist approach not only sees people as a primary data source but seeks also their perceptions of the 'insider view', rather than imposing an 'outsider view'. The key point about interpretivism is that it involves people and how they interact, think, form ideas about the world, and how their world is

constructed. It also shows how people influence and are influenced by the environment in which they live and work.

Interpretivists view the world as “infinitely complex and open to interpretation” (O’Leary, 2004:6). According to them, the world is ambiguous and far from neat and regimented which refers to the complexity of understanding some things in reality. They view the world as “variable” and not a “fixed truth”. Moreover they consider the world as having multiple facets and angles from which to interpret reality, which means truth can be different from one person to another. The truth is not single, it is plural. Interpretivism often distances itself from the rules of scientific procedures.

Phenomenology or interpretivism as a means of interpreting reality to obtain knowledge started to gain popularity in the light of the limitations, the criticisms and narrow scope of positivism. Thus interpretivism takes into account the subjective aspects of human behaviour by focusing on the meaning rather than the measurement of social phenomena (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Interpretivism is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the participant’s own perspective (Bryman, 2007). Interpretivists aim to understand and explain people’s different experiences and attitudes instead of searching for causal relationships through external factors including fundamental laws (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

#### 4.7 Variations between Positivism, Interpretivism and Realism

The main features of the research philosophies – positivism, interpretivism and realism - are summarised in the following table:

Table 4.4 Features of the three main research philosophies

<b>Research Philosophies</b>			
	<b>POSITIVISM</b>	<b>INTERPRETIVISM</b>	<b>REALISM</b>
<b>Purpose of research activity</b>	Generate <i>universal laws</i> using methods and tests that can be <i>replicated</i> by others to verify your results.	Understand the <i>unique and subjective opinions</i> that motivate people to act in particular ways <i>in a given context</i> .	Understand how broad social forces combine with individuals' interpretations of daily experiences to produce observed behaviour.
<b>Role of the researcher</b>	Rational <i>objective</i> analyst who brings <i>no value judgements</i> to the research process.	Informed <i>interpreter</i> who inevitably bring their own values to their interpretations	Informed <i>interpreter</i> (as previously) who also accepts unacknowledged social forces affect views/interpretations
<b>Types of data considered valid</b>	<i>Objective quantifiable</i> data capable of statistical analysis.	Quantifiable data <i>plus</i> the <i>subjective opinions of those involved</i> in a situation.	Quantifiable data, <i>opinions of those involved</i> in a situation and information about social forces (e.g. culture).

Source: (Saunders et al, 2003)

Generally speaking, positivism is often associated with quantitative and deductive approaches whereas interpretivism is often linked to qualitative and inductive approaches. The differences between positivism and interpretivism are embedded in the central questions that need to be addressed under each of these philosophical paradigms. The main differences between positivist and interpretivist are clearly illustrated by Grix (2004:82):

“Positivists seek objectivity while interpretivists believe in subjectivity; positivists tend to model their research on the natural sciences while

interpretivists believe there is a clear distinction to be made between the natural and the social world”.

In short, a positivist approach is also known by alternative terms such as objectivist, quantitative, traditionalist, experimentalist and scientific. The other main philosophy, phenomenological or interpretivist philosophy is also known as subjectivist, humanistic and qualitative.

Saunders et al. (2007:74) summarise the advantages and disadvantages of both philosophies in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5 Advantages and disadvantages of positivism and interpretivism

	Positivism	Interpretivism
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Economical collection of large amount of data.</li> <li>Clear theoretical focus for the research at the outset.</li> <li>Greater opportunity for researcher to retain control of research process.</li> <li>Easily comparable data</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Facilitates understanding of how and why.</li> <li>Enables a researcher to be alive to changes which occur during the research process.</li> <li>Good at understanding social processes.</li> </ul>
Disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Inflexible - direction often cannot be changed once data collection has started.</li> <li>Weak at understanding social process.</li> <li>Often does not discover the meaning people attach to social phenomena</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Data collection can be time consuming.</li> <li>Data analysis is difficult.</li> <li>Researcher has to live with the uncertainty.</li> <li>Patterns may not emerge.</li> <li>Generally perceived as less credible by non-researchers.</li> </ul>

Source: (Saunders et al. 2007:74)



In conclusion, positivism believes that truth exists concretely independent of the observer and that reality is separate from the individual who observes it. In contrast interpretivism holds the belief that truth is a construct shaped or influenced by the observer and that reality is relative and not detached from the individual who observes it. In addition, positivism relies on experiments and empirical evidence to discover truth. Interpretivism relies on meaning obtained from interviews and subjective observation to describe perceived truth. Each philosophy has strengths and weaknesses as shown in the following table:

Table 4.6 Strengths and weaknesses of positivism and interpretivism

Philosophies	Strengths	Weaknesses
Positivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-May provide broad coverage of the range of a situation. Can be economical and fast.</li> <li>2-Where statistics are aggregated from large samples, they can be of considerable relevance to policy decisions.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-Methods employed tend to be rather artificial and inflexible.</li> <li>2-Not very effective for understanding processes or the significance that people attach to actions.</li> <li>3-Not very helpful in generating theories.</li> <li>4-In having a focus on what is, or what has been recently, positivist approaches make it hard for policy makers to infer what actions and changes ought to take place in the future.</li> </ul>
Interpretivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-Data-gathering methods seen as natural rather than artificial.</li> <li>2-Ability to understand people's meaning.</li> <li>3-Ability to adjust to new issues and ideas as they emerge.</li> <li>4-Contribute to theory generation.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-Collection can be tedious and require more resources.</li> <li>2-Analysis and interpretation of data may be more difficult.</li> <li>3-Harder to control the pace, progress and end-points of research process.</li> <li>4-Policy makers may give low credibility to results emerging from qualitative approach.</li> </ul>

Source: (Amaratunga et al., 2002: 20)

#### 4.8 The Research Philosophy Selected for this Study

Choosing appropriate research methodologies and methods is essential because the whole dissertation rests on them. Research philosophies have fundamental assumptions and implications concerning how research should be carried out. A research philosophy means how a researcher aims to acquire or develop knowledge. However, it must be stressed that establishing and choosing the most suitable philosophy is still open to debate amongst researchers. Many authors argue that there is no clear-cut rule which obliges the researcher to choose one method for one study, and another for another study. Robson (2002) and Jankowicz (2000) argue that there is neither a master plan nor a straightforward method to justify which method is better than another for a particular research. Brannen (2005:7) points out that “The researcher’s choice of methods is said to be chiefly driven by the philosophical assumptions, ontological and epistemological, which frame the research”. Saunders et al. (2007) believe that there is no one research philosophy better than other. Each research philosophy is better at doing different things and, therefore, a researcher should select the right one which can help to achieve research objectives. As always, which is ‘better’ depends on the research questions you are trying to answer. As Saunders et al. (2007: 116) clearly state:

‘It would be easy to fall into the trap of thinking that one research approach is ‘better’ than another. This would miss the point. They are ‘better’ at doing different things. Of course, the practical reality is that research rarely falls into only one philosophical domain...Business and management research is often a mixture between positivist and interpretivist.’

Knowing the strengths and weaknesses of both paradigms provides the researchers with insightful knowledge to decide their research positions. Saunders et al., (2009:107) suggest that “the research philosophy supports the creation of knowledge in a particular field and is influenced by the way a researcher thinks”. On the basis of the above arguments and given the nature and objectives of this study, it is justifiable to suggest that the philosophy underpinning this study is predominantly positivism rather than interpretivism. It is felt that as a high-ranking officer and employee at the MOI, it is important for the present researcher to be independent of and detached from respondents to allow them the freedom to provide an honest view in order to obtain objective, impersonal and value-free data as far as possible, regarding the change initiatives being implemented at the MOI. In addition, the positivist paradigm is considered as the dominant paradigm in business research (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Yin, 2009). This paradigm is often utilised by business researchers to observe situations and reduce phenomena to their simplest factual essentials according to Remenyi et al., (2002). In similar previous studies, the positivist paradigm was used as the main methodology.

However, this study adopts mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative) based on:

- a) the nature of the research problem
- b) the research objectives
- c) the belief that reality is both subjective and objective.

This study aims to examine how change within the MOI is managed and the level of readiness for change. The philosophical paradigm underpinning this study is predominantly positivist because this study seeks to find factual information through numerical evidence. The reason behind this positivist, quantitative approach, the use of a survey, is to focus on identifying the causal connection or correlation between change management variables. It also tries to explain why certain things happen or how they relate to each other. In support of the quantitative findings, this study aims also to gauge employees' opinions and perceptions as to how they are coping with change initiatives; thus the interpretivist position is necessary, to explore the subjective connotation motivating people's reactions, in an attempt to understand these.

Some argue against interpretivists whose knowledge is based on words and meanings, suggesting that no amount of speculation can be deemed as knowledge. Interpretivists contend that it is not possible to objectively measure and classify the world as there is no objective reality beyond the subjective meaning. In seeking to interpret social reality, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to say that this approach is definitely better than the other approaches. Each research approach, method or technique has its own strengths and weaknesses. The word "better" is relative rather than absolute and the level of chemistry between the selected approach and the nature of the research objectives and questions determines how much the selected approach is better than the other alternatives. This can be attributed to the fact that in most of the research inquiries the reality is a mixture of positivism and interpretivism. As Patton (1990: 39) rightly points out:

"Rather than believing that one must choose to align with one paradigm or the other, I advocate a paradigm of choices ..... the issue then becomes not whether one has uniformly adhered to prescribed canons of either logical-positivism or phenomenology but whether one has made sensible methods decisions given the purpose of the inquiry, the questions being investigated, and the resources available".

It is important, therefore, to select the methodology and methods that meet the philosophical assumptions underpinning the study under consideration. Each philosophy has its own strengths and weaknesses which depend on the type of research and the methods used in collecting and analysing the data. The researcher's aim is to find a philosophy that is suitable for exploring the topic under investigation. Making a clear distinction between the two paradigms – positivism and interpretivism - is useful to understand the main differences between these two philosophies. However, considering the quantitative and the qualitative research as polar opposites is, as Vogt (2008:56) explains, unhelpful and misleading and that the "quant-qual distinction distracts us from consideration of more important issues, and tends to constrain opportunities for innovation". In addition, there is no clear boundary between qualitative and quantitative. Howe (1985:17) using a common sense approach, argues:

Although it often makes sense to emphasise quantitative methods to the exclusion of qualitative methods or vice versa, there are no mechanical rules for making these decisions and....no good reasons for avoiding combinations of methods.

Understanding the social reality, researchers basically tend to mix quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. Gilbert (2008: 139) supports the view that “research that explicitly mixes paradigms leads to a fuller understanding of the social world....because complexity itself consists of both ‘interpretivist’ and ‘positivist’ aspects”.

The philosophical framework of this study makes use of the strengths of both paradigms – positivism and interpretivism. This is mainly because the quantitative data (numerical) and the qualitative data (non-numerical) are the two main sources of information which are used to answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives. However, as Wood and Welch (2010:2) state, the conventional divide between quantitative and qualitative seems to miss out on other interesting aspects:

We analyse two of the important dimensions – statistical versus non-statistical, and hypothesis testing versus induction. The crude quantitative-qualitative dichotomy omits many potentially useful possibilities, such as non-statistical hypothesis testing and statistical induction

#### 4.9 Alternatives to Positivism and Interpretivism

The common and widely cited distinction between positivism and interpretivism is often viewed as being over-simplistic. According to Wood and Welch (2010:2) some authors have highlighted the limitations of the quantitative versus qualitative dichotomy, arguing that ‘in many cases they go on using these labels’. For example, Reichardt and Cook (1979: 27) talk about going “beyond the dialectic language of

qualitative and quantitative methods”. There are a number of other choices available to researchers:

- a) Realism
- b) Pragmatism
- c) Bricolage

These will be briefly discussed.

#### 4.9.1 Realism

Realism emphasises that the world as one sees it is the reality, and shares some characteristics with the positivist approach, such as a scientific method to develop knowledge. Realism helps to reconcile the extreme approaches of positivism and interpretivism. The reality-oriented approach confirms that knowledge is socially and historically constructed and subjectivity cannot be discarded totally. A realist philosophy (Putnam 1990) has been adapted by many theorists who established the foundation of a reality-oriented approach.

“As realists, we see no meaningful epistemological difference between qualitative and quantitative methods. Instead we see both as assisted sense making techniques that have specific benefits and limitations” (Mark et al. 2000: 15-16).

According to Walliman (2005), the philosophy of critical realism holds that individuals and societies are mutually interdependent - individual actions are influenced by the society in which they are carried out and, in turn, these actions influence this same society. Denzin and Lincoln (2008: 17) state:

“Critical realists agree with the positivists that there is a world of events out there that is observable and independent of human consciousness. They hold that knowledge about this world is socially constructed. Society is made up of feeling, thinking human beings, and their interpretations of the world must be studied”.

#### 4.9.2 Pragmatism

Saunders et al. (2009: 109) define pragmatism as follows:

“Pragmatism argues that the most important determinant of the epistemology, ontology and axiology you adopt is the research question.... Moreover, if the research question does not suggest unambiguously that either a positivist or interpretivist philosophy is adopted, this confirms the pragmatist’s view that it is perfectly possible to work with variations in your epistemology, ontology and axiology”.

The main characteristics of pragmatism according to Creswell (2003) are:

- 1) Pragmatism is not confined to any one system of philosophy and reality.
- 2) Individual researchers have the freedom to choose the methods, techniques and procedures of research that best meet the objectives of the research.
- 3) Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity.



- 4) Truth is what works at the time.
- 5) Pragmatist researchers look to the 'what' and the 'how' to research based on its intended consequences.
- 6) Pragmatists agree that research always occurs in social, historical, political and other contexts.

Pragmatism philosophy is based on the premise that the mixed research method, where researchers use a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data, tends to provide the best understanding of the social reality. Taking a pragmatic viewpoint requires more openness to ideas and methods and being able to apply these in a variety of ways. Given the nature of the research objectives, the mixed method approach is found to be the most appropriate.

#### 4.10 Research Strategy

According to Saunders et al. (2003:488), there is no research strategy (design) which is inherently superior or inferior to any other. Research strategy has been thus defined as, "a general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions". Yin (2003b:20) echoes Saunders et al's. (2003) words and describes a research design as: "A logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions.' In the light of the above statements it can thus be argued that the choice of research strategy relies on a clear action plan in order to address the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study. In the same vein, Robson (2002:80) also states that: "The

general principle is that the research strategy or strategies, and the methods or techniques employed, must be appropriate for the questions you want to answer.” In other words, a research strategy is described as the overall direction of the research including the process by which the research is conducted (Creswell, 2003). The strategy defines the roadmap to be followed in the collection and analysis of data. A research strategy is also described as a research plan that a researcher follows for the answering of the research questions in order to achieve the aims and objectives (Creswell, 2009). Collis and Hussey (2009) classify research based on the purpose as being descriptive, exploratory, explanatory or analytical. The three purposes of research employed in each strategy are explained as follows. It is possible for the research to have more than one purpose (Saunders et al, 2007).

#### 4.10.1 Exploratory research

Exploratory research examines phenomena to gain new insights. It is concerned with the situations when not much information is available as Robson (2002:59) clearly states: “To find out what is happening, to seek new insights, to ask questions, and to assess phenomena in a new light.” Zikmund (2000) believes that there are three purposes for exploratory research: (1) diagnosing a situation, (2) screening alternatives, and (3) discovering new ideas. As stated by Saunders, et al. (2009), there are three main ways of conducting exploratory research:

- A search of the literature
- Conducting focus group interviews
- Interviewing ‘experts’ in the subject

#### 4.10.2 Descriptive research

According to Robson (2002:59) descriptive research aims: “To portray an accurate profile of persons, events, or situations.” Similarly, Sekaran (2003) believes that the purpose of using descriptive research is to describe the research phenomena in order to draw a picture or report that the researcher wishes to study from individual, organisational, industry-oriented or other perceptions. Explanatory research aims to study a situation or problem in order to explain the relationships between variables.

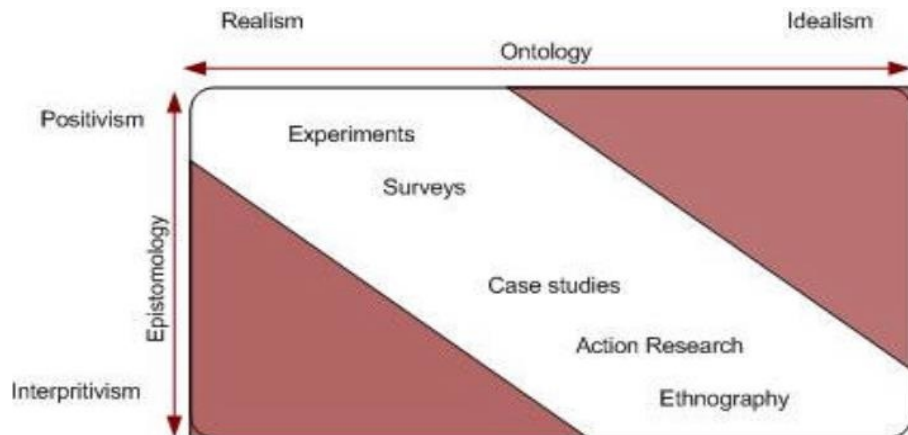
#### 4.10.3 Explanatory Research

Explanatory research, according to Saunders et al. (2007:134), involves “Studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationships between variables.”

The purpose of explanatory research is to establish the relationships between variables in order to clarify them. Statistical tests are applied to the collected data so that results can either confirm such a relationship or not (Thomas, 2009).

There are seven types of research designs or strategies which are: experiment; survey; case study; action (history); grounded theory; analysis of archival records; and ethnography (Yin, 2003b, Saunders et al., 2007). Each design can be used for the three research purposes which were discussed above: exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory (Yin, 2003b), as the following figure illustrates:

Figure 4.1 Research designs or strategies



Source: (Collis and Hussey 2007) (Spelling in figure above as in the original)

#### 4.10.4 Experiment

The main purpose of an experiment is to study causal relationships (Hakim 2000). It focuses on examining the link between two or more variables (dependent and independent), analysing the impact of the changes in the independent variables on the dependent variables, and assessing the relative importance of such changes. In conducting an experiment it is important to address the internal validity (the extent to which the findings can be attributed to the intervention method of the study) and external validity (generalisability of the findings). Experiments are used in exploratory and explanatory research to answer “how” and “why” questions.

#### 4.10.5 Survey

This research strategy is one of the most widely used method of data collection in the business and management research. It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical/efficient way through such data collection instruments as interview (oral) and/or questionnaire (written). Survey

is used to answer “what”, “where”, “how”, “how much” and “how many” questions. Hence, it fits for exploratory and descriptive oriented research.

#### 4.10.6 Case Study

In a case study, a particular individual, programme, or event is studied in depth for a defined period of time. It involves an empirical investigation of a particular phenomenon within its real life context using different sources of evidence (Robson 2002). Yin (2003) distinguishes between four case study strategies: (1) single case (studying one unique case), (2) multiple case (investigating more than one case to generalise the findings), (3) holistic case (the research is concerned with studying the whole organisation as a unit of analysis), and (4) embedded case (studying a number of departments – sub-units – within the organisation to link different units of analysis from micro and macro perspectives). The case study is good to answer “why”, “what” and “how” questions, although “what” and “how” questions are the main concern of the survey strategy. The case study is used in explanatory and exploratory research. “Case studies are common not only in medicine, education, and political science, but also in law, psychology, sociology and anthropology”, (Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 135).

#### 4.10.7 Action research

The main focus is on the purpose of research (resolving issues of major concern to the organisation). It is called research in action rather than research about action (Coghlan and Brannick, 2005). The involvement of practitioners and researchers through democratic participation in the research is a very important aspect of the

action research strategy simply because the practitioners will be responsible and held accountable for the implementation of the outcomes of the research. The action research strategy goes through an interactive and iterative process of diagnosing, planning, taking action and evaluating. This type of strategy is useful for “how” questions. Transfer of knowledge or applicability of the final outcomes to other organisational settings is an important characteristic of action research strategy.

#### 4.10.8 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory can be used to explore a wide spectrum of organisational issues. The aim is developing and building theory through a combination of induction and deduction analysis.

“Well-executed grounded theory ... is the product of considerable experience, hard work, creativity, and, occasionally, a healthy dose of good luck.”

Suddaby (2006: 640).

Data collection starts without the formation of an initial theoretical framework or specific hypotheses. Theory is developed from data collected by observations at the initial stage. Findings are then tested in further observations – continual reference to the data – in order to develop the final shape of the grounded theory. This strategy is discussed in more detail in the next section.

#### 4.10.9 Ethnography

Ethnography deals with the scientific description of specific human cultures. It is rooted firmly in the inductive approach. It aims to explain the social world. It is time-consuming strategy – conducted over an extended period of time – and, hence,

requires a great deal of adaptability and responsiveness to reflect new changes and patterns in the study. Ethnographic strategy is naturalistic – studying the phenomenon within the context in which it occurs in order to formulate valid interpretations on the basis of the perspectives of the involved people.

#### 4.10.10 Archival research

Archival research involves secondary analysis of data that can be collected from recent and historical administrative records.

From the different strategies, survey is the most popular and a common strategy in business and management studies. Sarantakos (1998: 223) states that “Surveys are the most commonly used method of data collection in the social sciences”.

Surveys are often used to measure the frequency of attitudes, behaviours, feelings and beliefs of people. Robson (2002) and Saunders et al. (2007) indicate that the survey is appropriate for both exploratory and explanatory research. Given the nature of this research problem, objectives, questions and hypotheses, survey has been selected as the most appropriate strategy. The following table highlights and sums up five types of research designs or strategies discussed above.

Table 4.7 Five research designs or strategies

Strategy	Form of research question	Requires control over behavioural events	Focuses on contemporary events
Experiment	How, why	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes
Archival analysis	Who, what, where, how, many, how much	No	Yes/No
History	How, why	No	No
Case study	How, why	No	Yes

Source: (Yin, 2009)

Adopting a particular research strategy is influenced by practical considerations. However, the perspective on the relationship between knowledge and the process for its development is likely to be the most important influence. Selecting an appropriate research strategy is key to ensuring that research questions are addressed in a way which has value and is congruent with the overall topic, questions and purpose of the research.

#### 4.11 Research Approaches

There are several approaches to the collection of information and the development of knowledge which are available. Reflecting and thinking clearly on the research approach to be adopted is important so that the theories underpinning the research design are made explicit. The researcher can then make informed decisions, identify what works and adopt a research approach based upon the questions being asked, the research strategy adopted, the facilities available within the organisation, the



extent of accuracy required, the time span of the study, and other costs and resources associated with and available for data gathering (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) point out that, generally, there are two approaches to reasoning which can result in the development or creation of knowledge. Induction and deduction represent the two different approaches to the building of theories that help in understanding, explaining and predicting business phenomena (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The inductive approach begins with an observation of a specific instance and subsequently seeks to establish generalisations, whereas the deductive approach commences with generalisation and looks to ascertain if these generalisations apply to specific instances. Rubin and Babbie (2010: 39-40), however, argue that either deductive or inductive approaches can be used for theories to influence the research process:

“An inductive approach is a research process based on inductive logic, in which the researcher begins with observations, seeks patterns in those observations, and generates tentative conclusions from those patterns. A deductive approach is a research process based on deductive logic, in which the research begins with a theory, then derives hypotheses, and ultimately collects observations to test the hypotheses.”

The following table highlights key differences between deductive and inductive approaches:

Table 4.8: Key differences between deductive and inductive approaches

Deductive approach	Inductive approach
Scientific principles	Gaining an understanding of the meaning humans attach to events
Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context
The need to explain the causal relationship among variables	The collection of qualitative data
The collection of quantitative data	A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as research progresses
The application of controls to ensure validity of data	A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process
The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition	Less concern with the need to generalise
A highly structured approach	
Researcher's independence from what is being researched	
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generate a conclusion	

Source: (Saunders et al. 2009:127)

Robson (2002) suggests that the development of deductive research involves a progressive five-stage process that seeks to test theory. Bryman and Bell (2007) expand on these stages by claiming that following the five-stage process will allow for the basis of explanation, to anticipate the phenomena and therefore enable the theory to be developed. The five-stage process involves firstly deducing theories which arise from the current literature. The theory is then expressed in operational terms, proposing a relationship between two specific concepts or variables. From this, an appropriate method is determined, which for the purpose of this current study will be predominantly using questionnaires which will be supported by collecting additional data provided through semi-structured interviews to reinforce

the findings of the questionnaires. Inductive reasoning, by its very nature, is open-ended and exploratory and thus a suitable research approach for analysing how managing change affects employees and decision makers within an organisation.

In contrast to the deductive approach, the assumption behind the inductive approach is socially constructed and subject to alterations, depending on time and the environment concerned (Collis and Hussey, 2003). This can also be known as the interpretivist approach, which translates 'into gathering 'deep' information and perceptions through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and participant observation, and representing it from the perspective of the research participant' (Lester, 1999:8). Weber (2004:231) suggests that interpretivism "refers to the way in which we as humans make sense of the world around us". Therefore, inductive reasoning relates to a theory-building process, starting with observations of specific instances, to establish wider trends surrounding the research problem. According to Collis and Hussey (2003) the inductive approach considers that social reality depends on the researcher's inner mind and feelings. Therefore, this approach tends to follow an inductive process, although in most instances theory developed from qualitative investigation is untested theory. The following table sums up the inductive – deductive key features:

Table 4.9 Key features of inductive – deductive approaches

Deductive	Inductive
Deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific	Inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theories
Sometimes this is informally called a "top-down" approach	Informally, we sometimes call this a "bottom up" approach
Conclusion follows logically from premises (available facts)	Conclusion is likely based on premises
	Involves a degree of uncertainty

Source: (Adapted from Burney, 2008)

Hussey and Hussey (1997) argue that the research process can only be successful if the researcher makes the right choices in the research design and approach. The research approach applied for this study is predominantly hypothetico-deductive.

This approach starts from a literature review, theoretical framework, formulating hypotheses and making logical deductions from the results of the study (Sekaran, 2006). The hypothetico-deductive method broadly divides a research design into a series of steps that lead to answering the research questions (Neuman, 1995).

This study uses both the deductive and inductive approaches to ensure that all angles are covered in terms of understanding the challenges of implementing change initiatives and the organisational readiness for change within the MOI (UAE).

Inductive and deductive reasoning are two methods of logic used to arrive at a conclusion based on information assumed to be true. However deductive reasoning arrives at a specific conclusion based on generalisations, whereas inductive reasoning investigates a phenomenon and makes generalisations. The difference between inductive and deductive arguments involves the strength of evidence in question; as there is no sound explanation or known facts, a deductive approach on

its own would not be appropriate for this study. As (Wilson, 2008: 44) clearly suggests:

“Inductive reasoning, by its very nature, is more open-ended and exploratory, especially at the beginning. Deductive reasoning is narrower in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses. Even though a particular study may look like it is purely deductive (e.g., an experiment designed to test the hypothesized effects of some treatment on some outcome), most social research involves both inductive and deductive reasoning processes at some time in the project.”

#### 4.11.1 Quantitative and Qualitative

Researchers have three key choices open to them, whether to choose qualitative or quantitative research or mixed methods. The former relates to the collection of data that are numerical or can be usefully quantified and can be employed for all research strategies, whereas qualitative data refer to all data that are non-numeric or that have not been quantified, and the third involves combining qualitative and quantitative (Saunders et al., 2007). However, the distinction between quantitative and qualitative according to Davies (2007) is not ‘clear-cut’. Wood and Welch (2010:3) argue that:

...the distinction is widely regarded as problematic or an over-simplification, but it occurs frequently in the names of journals, courses, websites, and so on, so, despite the problems, it is a distinction which is likely to have a substantial impact on the practice of research. Some researchers and

projects stick to what they call “quantitative” research, and others stick to “qualitative” research. However, there is now increasing awareness that both styles of research may have a contribution to make to a project, which leads to the idea of mixing quantitative and qualitative methods – but still making use of the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research (see, for example, Creswell et al, 2008; Denscombe, 2008).

Likewise, Denzin and Lincoln (2003:13) point out that:

“The word qualitative implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on processes and meaning that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency.”

Ary et al., (2006) have outlined the differences between the quantitative and qualitative approaches as shown in the following table:

Table 4.10 Distinction between qualitative and quantitative approaches

	Quantitative approach	Qualitative approach
Purpose	Study relationship, cause and effect	Examine a phenomenon as it is, has rich detail
Design	Developed previous study	Flexible, evolves during study
Approach	Deductive: tests theory	Inductive: may generate theory
Tools	Preselected instruments	The researcher is primary data collection tool
Sample	Large samples	Small samples
Analysis	Statistical analysis of numeric data	Narrative description and interpretation

Source: (Ary et al, 2006: 25)

#### 4.11.2 Quantitative Approach

Strauss and Corbin (1990) state that qualitative research is any kind of research that provides results not arrived at by means of numbers. Shimahara (1988:80) agrees and adds that qualitative research produces findings that cannot be obtained by means of statistical procedures or any other means of qualifications. Hussey and Hussey (1997:12) point out that:

“A quantitative approach involves collecting and analysing numerical data and applying statistical tests. Some researchers prefer the qualitative approach, which is more subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities.”

Quantitative research is linked to the positivist philosophy. It determines the required data before the research starts, designs the most appropriate research instrument for collecting the required data, provides interpretation of the results, and presents critical evaluation of the findings. Quantitative research represents the use of numerical data which is objective in nature. It involves testing a theory by using statistical techniques in analysing the data (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Quantitative research, which has strengths and weaknesses, may raise further questions, which can be addressed by qualitative research.

Table 4.11 Strengths and weaknesses of the quantitative approach

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Testing and validating already constructed theories about how/why phenomena occur.	The researcher may use categories that do not reflect the local constituencies' understanding.
Testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data are collected.	The theories used in the study may not represent the understanding of the respondents.
Can generalise a research finding when it has been replicated on many different populations.	The main focus is on theory or hypothesis testing rather than on theory or hypothesis generation (called the confirmation bias).
Quantitative predictions can be made.	Knowledge produced may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific local situations, contexts and individuals.
The researcher can construct a controlled environment where cause –and – effect relationships can be examined.	
Data collection is more efficient and economic. It is a good approach for studying a large number of people.	
Quantitative or numerical data is more precise and reliable for the purpose of analysis.	
Data analysis is relatively less time – consuming because of using statistical software.	
The research results are relatively independent of the researcher.	
The results or findings may have higher credibility and can be generalised.	

Source: (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004:19)

### 4.11.3 Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research, associated with the interpretivism philosophy, involves the collection of a variety of empirical materials in order to interpret certain phenomena, events, problems, occurrences, behaviours, experiences etc. Qualitative research seeks to capture the wealth of people's experience in their own terms.

Understanding of the social reality emerges from an in-depth analysis of people's beliefs, views, perceptions, expectations etc. The researcher builds a holistic picture, provides detailed non-numerical data on the basis of interviews, transcripts,



documents analysis, etc., in order to reach a better understanding about the subject matter. In other words, it involves a rigorous approach to data collection, data analysis, and report writing.

Qualitative research demands a commitment and spending extensive time in the field - natural setting - to collect the required data. It does not have specific guidelines or procedures and is constantly evolving and changing. Researchers are at the centre of the process to understand, challenge and interpret the social world. Qualitative research is concerned with:

“Individuals’ own accounts of their attitudes, motivations and behaviour. It offers richly descriptive reports of individuals’ perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, views and feelings, the meanings and interpretations given to events and things, as well as their behaviour.” (Hakim,1987:26)

Qualitative research is an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. The task of the qualitative methodologist according to Burns (2000:11) is “to capture what people say and do as a product of how they interpret the complexity of their world, to understand events from the viewpoints of the participants”. Qualitative research attempts to make sense of or interpret a phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Lincoln cited in Davies, 2007:10). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:20) present a number of strengths and weaknesses of the qualitative approach as summarised in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Strengths and weaknesses of qualitative approach

Strengths	Weaknesses
Qualitative data in the words and categories of participants help to explore how and why phenomena occur.	Knowledge produced may not be generalised to other people or other settings because relatively few people are included in the research study.
It is useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth.	It is difficult to make quantitative predictions.
It is useful for describing complex phenomena.	It is more difficult to test hypotheses and theories.
Provides individual case information.	It may have lower credibility with some administrators and commissioners of programmes.
Can conduct cross-case comparisons and analysis.	Collection of data is a time consuming process.
Provides understanding and description of people's personal experiences of phenomena.	Data analysis is difficult and often time consuming.
Can describe phenomena as they are embedded in local contexts.	The results can be influenced by the researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies.
The researcher identifies contextual and setting factors as they relate to the phenomenon of interest	
It is a dynamic process (i.e., documenting sequential patterns and change).	
The researcher can use the primarily qualitative method of "grounded theory" to generate inductively a tentative but explanatory theory about a phenomenon.	
Data are usually collected in naturalistic settings.	
Qualitative approaches are responsive to changes that may occur during the study.	

Source: (Adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004:20)

Positivism and interpretivism establish the epistemological base from which a good understanding of social realities can be derived. Studying and exploring the quantitative and qualitative meanings that are embedded in people's wealth of knowledge about social phenomena leads to better understanding and more reliable

results. "Approaches are selected because they are appropriate for specific aspects of investigation and specific kinds of problem" Denscombe (2003:3).

Several criteria have been proposed by Creswell (2009) and Saunders et al., (2009) for determining the adoption of a suitable approach to research. The most important of these criteria are as follows:

1. Topic of the research. When there is a wealth of literature to help in the development of a theoretical framework and hypotheses, a quantitative/deductive approach may be appropriate. For a new topic that has little existing literature, it could be more appropriate to employ a qualitative/inductive approach.
2. Time available for the research. Qualitative research can be much more time-consuming than quantitative research, and so adopting the latter may be a lower-risk strategy.
3. Preferences of respondents. The quantitative approach is familiar to most managers, and they are more likely to have faith in the conclusions that result from it.

Based on the above evidence, this study has adopted the quantitative method (personally administered questionnaires) as the main instrument for collecting the required numerical data. In addition, the qualitative approach (semi-structured interviews) will be conducted to collect the required non-numerical data and to corroborate the findings of the quantitative approach. This combination is important

and relevant to achieve the objectives of this study. In fact, each approach has its own strengths and weaknesses. The best way to minimise the weaknesses of each approach is to use them both.

#### 4.11.4 Quantitative Data vs. Qualitative Data

Qualitative data refers to non-numeric data or data that cannot be quantified, while quantitative data involves numerical data or data that could be quantified and can be used in most of the research strategies. According to Saunders et al (2007: 472) a distinction between qualitative and quantitative research exists as follows:

- 1) Quantitative data is based on information derived from numbers. However, qualitative data is based on meanings expressed through words.
- 2) Quantitative data collection results in numerical and standardised data, while qualitative data collection results in a non-standardised approach requiring classification into categories.
- 3) Quantitative data analysis is conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics, as opposed to qualitative data analysis which is conducted through the use of conceptualisation.

Patton (1990) states that data from qualitative methods are usually collected from the following sources: interviews; observation and documents. Data from interviews consist of information about people's experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge. According to Sarantakos (1998) the semi-structured interview is commonly used in qualitative research. However, the structured interview is mostly

used in quantitative research (Saunders et al. 2009). The data from observation consist of detailed descriptions of activities, actions, and behaviour of people. The data from documents consist of organisational related records such as notes, official publications, policies, procedures, reports, etc., personal diaries, and open-ended-written responses to questionnaires (Sarantakos 1998).

Quantitative research depends on mathematical and statistical tools to analyse data and presents findings through tables, graphs etc. Researchers in qualitative research analyse and interpret findings by using content analysis and other tools such as Nvivo. According to Janesick (2000: 387). “Simply observing and interviewing do not ensure that the researcher is qualitative; the qualitative researcher must also interpret the beliefs and behaviours of participants.”

#### 4.11.5 Triangulation

A growing body of opinion favours the use of multi-methods for obtaining data or analysing it (Saunders et al., 2009). The purpose of this study is to investigate the challenges and the level of readiness in implementing change within the MOI; triangulation is considered suitable for finding answers to the research objectives. Mixed methods enable triangulation for supporting the validity and reliability of the research findings (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). For business research, ‘triangulation’ is in reference to information gathered from a number of sources that is then analysed in an attempt to ensure that a view obtained from an informant is not biased (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Saunders et al., 2012). Creswell and Plano (2007:18) state that:

“Triangulation research is important today because of the complexity of problems that need to be addressed, the rise of interest in qualitative research, and the practical need to gather multiple forms of data for diverse audiences”.

Thus triangulation acts as a third paradigm which bridges the gap between quantitative and qualitative research. It refers to the use of different research techniques within the same study. The essence and differences of quantitative and qualitative approaches are derived from particular philosophical bases and are underpinned by certain epistemological assumptions, conceptualisations and beliefs about the social reality. While the quantitative/experimental approach is hypothetical-deductive and the qualitative/naturalistic approach is inductive, in practice, these approaches can be combined in the same study in order to enhance the quality of the final conclusions and recommendations. Collis and Hussey (2003:77) claim that it is perfectly possible to use both qualitative and quantitative methods for collecting data.

“Rather than believing that one must choose to align with one paradigm or the other, I advocate a paradigm of choices .... the issue then becomes not whether one has uniformly adhered to prescribed canons of either logical-positivism or phenomenology but whether one has made sensible methods decisions given the purpose of the inquiry, the questions being investigated, and the resources available.” (Patton, 1990: 30).

Patton (1990) mentions that employing several research methods or data triangulation including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches in the same study, enhances the accuracy of data and strengthens the research design. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) claim that mixed methods provide better answers to the research questions, lay down the base to formulate more reliable inferences and open the door for obtaining a greater diversity of views. Employing a mixture of paradigms would maximise the advantages and minimise the disadvantages of each one. The triangulation approach tends to be commonly used in business and management research as a way of overcoming the limitations of each individual method and cross-checking findings. Sarantakos (1998) suggests that triangulation allows the researcher to collect a variety of information on the same issue to achieve a higher degree of validity and reliability, and to overcome the deficiencies of employing a single method. According to Saunders et al (2007:139) triangulation is:

“The use of different data collection techniques within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you. For example, qualitative data collected using semi-structured group interviews may be a valuable way of triangulating quantitative data collected by other means such as a questionnaire.”

Collis and Hussey (2003: 78) identify four types of triangulation as explained in the following table:

Table: 4.13: Types of Triangulation

Types of Triangulation	Explanation
Data triangulation	Where data is collected at different times or from different sources in the study of a phenomenon.
Investigator triangulation	Where different researchers independently collect data on the same phenomenon.
Triangulation of theories	Where a theory is taken from one discipline and used to explain a phenomenon in another discipline.
Methodological triangulation	Where both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection are used.

Source: (Collis and Hussey, 2003:78)

There are three major strategies within a mixed methods approach or triangulation (Creswell 2003):

- 1) Sequential: the researcher in this approach seeks to elaborate on or expand the findings of one method with another method.
- 2) Concurrent: the researcher collects different types of data at the same time during the study and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results.
- 3) Transformative procedures: the researcher uses a theoretical lens within a design which contains both quantitative and qualitative data. This lens provides a framework for subjects of interest, methods for collecting data, and outcomes or changes anticipated by the study.

The main aim of triangulation is not to replace either qualitative or quantitative approaches but rather to draw from the strengths and minimise weaknesses of both in the research. The most important point that should be considered in selecting the



research approach is that the research methods should be linked to the research questions in a way that offers the best opportunity to get useful answers.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:21) highlight the key strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods which are illustrated as follows:

Table 4.14: Strengths and Weaknesses of Mixed Methods

Strengths	Weaknesses
Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers. The opposite is true - numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative.	It is difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative researches concurrently.
Researcher can generate and test a grounded theory.	Researcher may not have the required skills and experience to use multiple methods and understand how to integrate the results appropriately.
A broader and more complete range of research questions can be answered.	Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm – specialisation leads to more focus.
A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in the same study.	Using more than one method involves higher expenses.
Good conclusions can be made through convergence and corroboration of findings.	Collecting the required data tends to be a time-consuming process.
Supports generalisability of the results.	Some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g. problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyse quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).
Introduces reliable knowledge and contributions to link theory with practice.	

Source: (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:21)

Based on the nature of the research problem formulated by this study and its questions and objectives, the quantitative approach is deemed relevant and suitable. However, in order to support and strengthen the quantitative findings, the use of the qualitative approach is justifiable as it fits well within the methodological framework of this study. The strategy of using mixed methods will add value to the credibility of this research because it will:

- 1) Examine the subject matter from all angles.
- 2) Enhance the degree of reliability, validity and generalisability of the findings.
- 3) Overcome any potential deficiencies that may occur as a result of employing a single method.

In conclusion, in order to achieve the research objectives set by this study, a mixed method approach will be adopted, as relying on only quantitative or qualitative separately would be insufficient to fully answer the research questions; the mixed method approach is considered more appropriate for improving an understanding of the particular phenomenon being investigated (Teddlie and Tashakori, 2009). In addition, as Ozanne and Hudson (1989:1) clearly state, “blind conversion to interpretivism is just as dangerous as blind adherence to positivism”.

The aim of this study is not only to try to find out the success factors of change initiatives and drivers of change at the MOI. It gauges the employees' and management perceptions about the level of preparedness to implement change. In

order to achieve this a mixed method approach was adopted which focused on collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Creswell et al, 2003). The quantitative research methodology is the predominant data collection instrument for this current study, with a qualitative research method being used to support the quantitative findings. The complementarities between quantitative and qualitative increase the validity of findings when utilised in the research (Saunders et al., 2012).

#### 4.11.6 Justification for Selecting the Mixed Method Approach in this Study

According to Johnson and Turner (2003) the main reason for using mixed methods research is that multiple kinds of data should be collected with different strategies and methods in ways that reflect complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses, allowing a mixed methods study to provide insights not possible when only qualitative or quantitative data are collected. In other words, mixed methods research allows for the “opportunity to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, capitalise on inherent method strengths, and offset inevitable method biases” (Greene, 2007, p.xiii). Collis and Hussey (2003:77) echo the same idea by suggesting that: "A questionnaire survey providing quantitative data could be accompanied by a few in-depth interviews to provide qualitative insights and illuminations". However, several researchers state that quantitative and qualitative methods ought not to be mixed as they have vastly different underlying assumptions. In contrast, Caracelli and Greene (1997) acknowledge the value of mixed methods by determining three typical uses of a mixed methods study: (1) testing the agreement of findings obtained from different measuring instruments, (2)

clarifying and building on the results of one method with another method, and (3) demonstrating how the results from one method can impact subsequent methods or inferences drawn from the results. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2004:16) strongly advocate that “mixed methods has the potential of producing concrete results but can also bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research”.

Due to the complex nature of the research problem and the research questions set by this study, the use of a single method was deemed inadequate to deal with all the required methodological aspects. Therefore, it was necessary to combine the quantitative with the qualitative methods. The blending of both methods provided the researcher with the possibility to statistically analyse the numerical data whilst also recognising the complex perceptions and emotional factors that influence change initiatives.

In the context of the UAE, because the researcher is a high ranking employee within the MOI and because of cultural barriers, participants might be reluctant to participate in a research process that is purely qualitative or they may not provide honest answers for fear of repercussions and so the quantitative approach can guarantee anonymity to such participants.

#### 4.12 Research Sampling

A sample aims to gain information about the whole population by studying a finite part of a statistical population. In other words, sampling is the process of selecting a population size so that the sample characteristics can be generalised to the

population. Sampling involves both design choice and sample size decisions. Sampling is defined by Herbst and Coldwell (2004: 57) as; “The act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population, for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population.”

#### 4.12.1 Sampling Population

The term population refers to the whole set of entities while the term sample refers to a subset of those entities from which data is gathered. Sekaran (2003:265) defines the term population as “The entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate”. According to Robson (2002: 260) “A sample is a selection from a population.” Collis and Hussey (2003: 56) consider sample as “A subset of a population and should represent the main interests of the study.” Kumar (2011: 193) defines sampling as:

“the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group. A sample is a subgroup of the population you are interested in.”

It should be stressed that collecting data from an entire population does not automatically produce more significant results than collecting data from a sample which represents the research population (Saunders et al. 2007). According to Anderson (2007: 241) “the sampling distribution of  $x$  can be approximated by a normal distribution whenever the sample size is 30 or more”. Therefore the survey

will be statistically valid if 30 or more surveys are returned. In contrast, Cohen et al. (2000) stress that there is no exact number or percentage that can be universally prescribed to be adopted in all studies.

#### 4.12.2 Sampling Strategies

Sampling strategies or designs can be classified under three main categories (Kumar 2011: 198):

- 1) Random/probability sampling
- 2) Non-random/non-probability sampling
- 3) Mixed sampling

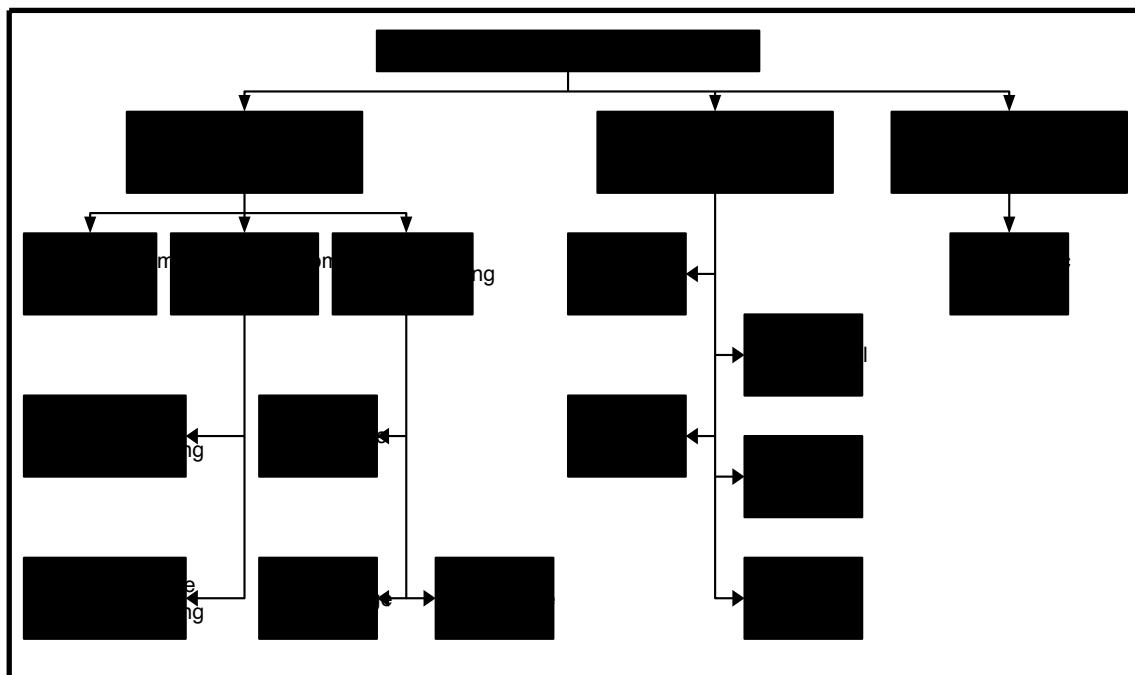
As regards random sampling, the probability of the selection of every case of the population is known, and equal for all cases (Saunders et al 2007). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) stress that with this type, each element or segment of the population has an equal chance of being selected in the sample. According to Saunders et al (2007) this type of sampling is more appropriate with survey and experimental research strategies. Saunders et al (2007: 208) claim that:

“Probability sampling is most commonly associated with survey-based research strategies where you need to make inferences from your sample about a population to answer your research question(s) or to meet your objectives.”

Although probability sampling, as compared to non-probability sampling, is relatively expensive, time consuming and complicated, it offers a high degree of representativeness (Robson 2002). Non-random sampling means that the probability of selection of some elements cannot be accurately determined – each sample unit or element does not have equal and independent chance of being selected in the study. In any case, a sample generally has advantages and disadvantages. The main advantages are that it saves time, involves lower costs and less human resources. On the other hand, the disadvantage is that the researcher does not find out the facts about the population’s characteristics which are of interest to the researcher but only estimates or predicts them. Therefore, the possibility of an error in the researcher’s estimation is not excluded. (Kumar, 1999).

The different types of sampling designs are illustrated in the following figure:

Figure 4.2: Types of Sampling



Source: (Kumar 2011: 198)

#### 4.12.2.1 Random/Probability Sampling

The strategy can be classified as a random/probability sampling only when the potential respondents (sampling units or elements) have equal and independent chance of being selected in the study. The three most common methods for randomisation are: (1) the fishbowl draw, (2) computer program, and (3) a table of randomly generated numbers. There are three common types of random sampling strategy or design:

- Simple random sampling (SRS): each respondent has equal and independent chance of selection.
- Stratified random sampling: the population is broken down into categories, and a random sample is selected from each category. The proportions of the sample sizes are the same as the proportion of each category to the whole. Its advantages are it produces more accurate results than simple random sampling and can show different tendencies within each category (e.g. men and women). It has no major disadvantages, hence it is widely used.
- Cluster sampling: is used when populations can be broken down into many different categories or clusters. Rather than taking a sample from each cluster, a random selection of clusters is chosen to represent the whole. Within each cluster, a random sample is taken.



#### 4.12.2.2 Non-random/non-probability sampling

This type of sample is used when the number of the sampling units or elements in the study population is either unknown or cannot be individually identified. Two common non-random sampling designs which are used in quantitative and qualitative research are:

- Quota Sampling: refers to the sample being selected on the basis of specific visible characteristics. For example, the researcher stands in the location where the study population is targeted and selects each unit, element or respondent that meets such characteristics. Its advantages are it is simpler to undertake than a stratified sample and sometimes a deliberately biased sample is desirable. The disadvantages are it is not a genuine random sample and it is likely to yield a biased result.
- Snowball sampling: is conducted when there is a very small population size. In this type of sampling, the researcher asks the initial participant to identify another potential participant who also meets the criteria of the research. The process continues until the predetermined number of the required samples has been achieved. The downside of using a snowball sample is that it is hardly representative of the population.

Table 4.15: Advantages and disadvantages of random and non-random sampling

Random sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Less prone to bias               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Allows estimation of magnitude of sampling error, from which the researcher can determine the statistical significance of changes/differences in indicators</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Requires that the researcher have a list of all sample elements</li> <li>• More time-consuming</li> <li>• More costly</li> <li>• No advantage when small numbers of elements are to be chosen</li> </ul>
Non - random sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More flexible</li> <li>• Less costly</li> <li>• Less time-consuming</li> <li>• Judgmentally representative samples may be preferred when small numbers of elements are to be chosen</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greater risk of bias</li> <li>• May not be possible to generalise to program target population</li> <li>• Subjectivity can make it difficult to measure changes in indicators over time</li> <li>• No way to assess precision or reliability of data</li> </ul>

Source: (Ritchie and Lewis, 2006)

#### 4.12.2.3 Mixed Sampling (Systematic Sampling Design)

Systematic sampling has been categorised as “mixed” sampling mainly because it includes the characteristics of both random and non-random sampling designs.

Here the sampling frame is divided into a number of segments called intervals. From the first segment or interval, one unit, element or respondent is selected randomly.

The selection of the other units from the other intervals depends entirely on the first selection. The procedure of mixed sampling consists of 5 steps: (1) prepare a list of all the units or elements in the study population (sampling frame); (2) determine the

sample size; (3) calculate the interval width (total population/ sample size); (4) using the simple random sampling (SRS) technique select a unit from the first interval; (5) select the same order element from each subsequent interval. If a different element from each interval is selected randomly by using SRS, in this case the sampling process under this design can be classified as probability sampling design.

#### 4.12.3 Sampling in Quantitative vs. Qualitative Research

Sampling in quantitative and qualitative research is governed by different considerations (Kumar, 2011):

##### 4.12.3.1 Quantitative Research:

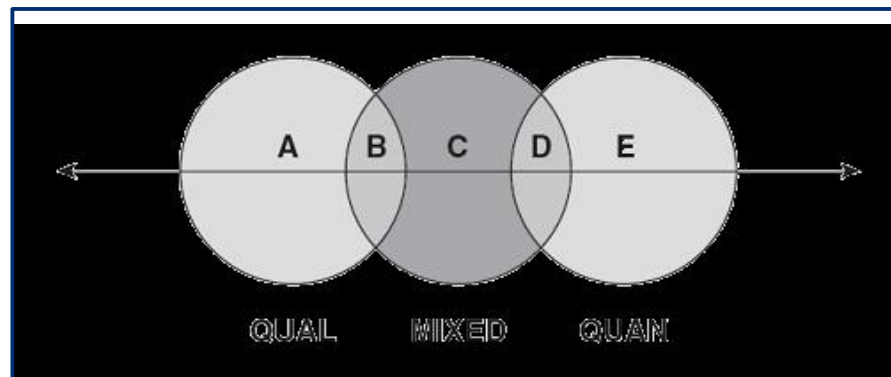
- 1) Unbiased is the main consideration in selecting a sample from the study population.
- 2) The main purpose of sampling is to make inferences about the group from which the sample has been selected.
- 3) The size of the sample is predetermined to achieve the required level of accuracy and reliability.
- 4) Randomisation is the basis for selecting the potential respondents.
- 5) A mix of random and non-random samplings can be used in quantitative research.

##### 4.12.3.2 Qualitative Research:

- 1) The ease in accessing the potential respondents is an important consideration in the selection process.
- 2) The researcher is the one who judges that the selected respondent has good knowledge about the phenomenon being studied and his/her participation in the research will add value.

- 3) The main purpose is to gain in-depth knowledge about the phenomenon (situation, event, behaviour etc.) in question.
- 4) The size of the sample is not predetermined. The researcher continues to target more respondents and stops when he/she reaches a point of data saturation at which he/she feels that the incremental value of the additional data is negligible. The saturation point is subjective because it is the researcher who decides when this point has been reached.
- 5) Qualitative research suggests it is somewhat biased because the selection of the sample is based on how much the selected respondents know about the phenomenon being studied. Only non-random (non-probability) samplings are used in qualitative research.

Figure 4.3 Purposive Mixed Probability Sampling Continuum



Source: (Teddlie, 2005)

Note: Zone A consists of totally qualitative (QUAL) research with purposive sampling, whereas Zone E consists of totally quantitative (QUAN) research with probability sampling. Zone B represents primarily QUAL research, with some QUAN components. Zone D represents primarily QUAN research, with some QUAL components. Zone C represents totally integrated mixed methods (MM) research and sampling. The arrow represents the purposive-mixed-probability sampling continuum. Movement toward the middle of the continuum indicates a greater integration of research methods and sampling. Movement away from the centre (and toward either end) indicates that research methods and sampling (QUAN and QUAL) are more separated or distinct.

#### 4.12.4 Costs and Benefits of Sampling

The use of a sample is not only important but also an efficient way to collect the required data because of the following reasons:

- 1) It is almost impracticable, and may be impossible, for the researcher to collect data from the entire population.
- 2) The cost of collecting data from the whole population would most likely be very high even if it is do-able.
- 3) The researchers normally do not have the luxury of time to collect data from the whole population due to time constraints and tight deadlines. (Saunders et al. 2007)

#### 4.13 Research Methods

The study will be using a mixed method approach. There are many different methods for collecting data. The common methods of data collection are observation, questionnaire, and interviews (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). Jankowicz (2000:209) defines a research method as “A systematic and orderly approach taken towards the collection and analysis of data so that information can be obtained from this data.”

##### 4.13.1 Observation

Qualitative researchers rely on four primary methods for collecting information: (1) participating in the setting, (2) observing directly, (3) interviewing in depth, and (4) analysing documents. According to Kumar (1999: 105) “Observation is a purposeful,

systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place.” Marshall and Rossman (2011: 139) refer to observation as a term which: “captures a variety of activities that range from hanging around in the setting, getting to know people, and learning the routines to using strict time sampling to record actions and interactions and using a checklist to tick off pre-established actions.”

Observation involves the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours, and artefacts. The observation technique has advantages as well as disadvantages. Data can be directly collected without asking people about their views, feelings or attitudes; it is a good substitute when other instruments cannot be used and when respondents are unable or unwilling to give information. However, the disadvantages of observation are: it is difficult with large group studies; it cannot provide information about past, future or unpredictable events; it cannot address opinions or attitudes directly; it could be time consuming; quantitative data cannot be obtained, and it is vulnerable to observer’s bias (Sarantakos, 1998).

#### 4.13.2 Questionnaire Survey

The survey provides a quantitative explanation of opinions, attitudes, problems etc., by studying a sample from a specific population. On the basis of the results, the researcher makes generalisations about that population.

#### 4.13.2.1 Definitions of Survey and Questionnaire

The terms survey and questionnaire are often used interchangeably. These terms are also defined using similar and overlapping meanings. For instance Jankowicz (2000: 222) suggests:

“Surveys are particularly useful when you want to contact relatively large numbers of people to obtain data on the same issue or issues, often by posing the same questions to all”

In the same vein, Sekaran (2000: 233) describes a questionnaire as “A pre-formulated written set of questions in which respondents record their answers.” Collis and Hussey (2003:173) echo the same meaning “A questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions, chosen after considerable testing, with a view to eliciting reliable responses from a chosen sample”. According to Payne and Payne (2004:186) questionnaires are: “The printed sets of questions to be answered by respondents, either through face-to-face interviews or self-completion, as a tested, structured, clearly presented and systematic means of collecting data”.

A questionnaire survey is the most widely used technique for gathering primary data concerning the respondents' attitude, views, opinions, perceptions, expectations, etc., in business and management research (Saunders et al., 2000; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). A questionnaire is not appropriate to exploratory or other research types that involve answering open-ended questions (Saunders et al. 2007); it works best with standardised questions (Robson 2002). It

is mainly a quantitative method using closed questions (positivistic approach). However, according to Collis and Hussey (2003) some questionnaires can be qualitative by providing open-ended questions (phenomenological approach). A questionnaire is a highly structured data collection method and it is an efficient data collection technique when the researcher knows the required data for answering the research questions and how to measure the research variables (Saunders et al. 2003).

#### 4.13.2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaire

Sarantakos (1998), Gilham (2002); and Creswell (2003) identify a number of advantages and disadvantages for questionnaires as summarised in the following table.

Table 4.16: Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaire

Advantages	Disadvantages
<p>Questionnaires are easier to organise and arrange.</p> <p>Questionnaires encourage pre-coded answers.</p> <p>Questionnaire is suitable to respondents who do not need to think how to express their ideas.</p> <p>Low cost in time and money.</p> <p>Easy to get information from a lot of people quickly and efficiently.</p> <p>Respondents can complete the questionnaire when it suits them.</p>	<p>Tick appropriate boxes questions may restrict and frustrate respondents.</p> <p>Pre- coded questions can bias the findings.</p> <p>Questionnaires give little chance for the researcher to check the truthfulness of answers.</p> <p>Rectifying poor questionnaire result in a substantial negative damage on the progress of the research.</p> <p>Normally questionnaires are associated with low response rate.</p> <p>Lack of motivating respondents to answer the questionnaire.</p>



Analysis of answers to close-ended questions tends to be more objective.	Problems of data quality (completeness and accuracy).
Questionnaires may be simply sent unannounced to the respondents.	Misunderstandings difficult to correct.
Respondents under less pressure for immediate response.	Lack of control over order and context of answering questions.
Respondents' anonymity and information confidentiality.	The researcher does not get information other than the written answers.
Questionnaire provides reliable data for testing a hypothesis.	It is assumed that the targeted respondents have the required answers.
Standardisation of questions helps to achieve economies of scale.	Standardisation does not secure complete answer.

Source: (Sarantakos, 1998; Gilham, 2002 and Creswell 2003)

#### 4.13.2.3 Questionnaire Design

The first question that should be addressed when designing questionnaire is what is the information that should be collected to answer the research questions? A questionnaire design deals with the preparation of the questions in the context of the questionnaire. The questionnaire design requires that the questions should be listed in a logical order (Sarantakos 1998). According to Robson (2003) it is important that the questions are formulated in such a way as to answer the questions and achieve the objectives of the research.

A good design encourages cooperation of respondents and gets them interested in answering the questions. The questions should be specific and clear so that respondents do not spend too much time or exert a lot of effort to understand and

answer the questions. Personal questions, which could evoke respondents' resistance and lack of cooperation, should be avoided totally.

The sound design of the questions and structure of the questionnaire are very important to achieve the internal validity and reliability of the collected data (Saunders et al., 2007). Internal validity refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it intended to measure. Collis and Hussey (2003) state that the responses to research questions may turn out to be highly reliable but the results will be worthless if the questions do not measure what the researcher intended them to measure - the inevitable result will be low validity. In this regard, Foddy (1994:17) stresses that:

“The question must be understood by the respondent in the way intended by the researcher and the answer given by the respondents must be understood by the researcher in the way intended by the respondent.”

The questions in this research are formulated in such a way as to get the required data as efficiently as possible. Closed questions are used in designing the questionnaire because of time constraints of the targeted respondents. In fact, closed questions which provide a number of alternative answers and options, are quicker and easier to answer. In addition, these types of questions are easy to process, analyse and compare (Sekran 2003). However, because of forcing respondents to choose between predetermined alternatives or options, lack of spontaneity and expression cannot be ruled out.

Open-ended questions do not offer alternatives in terms of answering the questions; they are easy to ask and provide participants elbow room to give opinions (Sekran 2003). The disadvantages of open-ended questions lie in the fact that they are difficult to answer and analyse (Hussey and Hussey 1997).

#### 4.13.2.4 Language and Wording of the Questionnaire

The language and the wording of the questionnaire should be appropriate to gauge respondents' attitudes, perceptions, and feelings. Sekaran (2003) and Moore (2006) highlight the following ground rules for the wording of questionnaires:

- 1) Simple language: jargon and technical terms should be avoided as much as possible.
- 2) Short questions: questions should be short and direct because long and indirect questions increase the possibility of the question being misunderstood.
- 3) Double-barrelled questions: asking questions which have sub parts (more than one question at one time) leads to confusion and ambiguity.
- 4) Leading questions: phrasing questions in such a way that they induce the respondents to give responses that the researcher would want them to give would result in unreliable responses.
- 5) Biased questions: biased questions which make one response more likely than another, regardless of the respondent's opinion, should be avoided.

- 6) Negative questions: negative questions may confuse the participants especially when respondents are asked to indicate whether they agree or disagree with a particular statement.
- 7) Ambiguous questions: ambiguous wording should be avoided so that all respondents understand the questions in the same way.
- 8) The order and flow of questions: the questionnaire should lead respondents to move in answering questions of a general nature to those that are more specific, and from questions that are relatively easy to answer to those that are progressively more difficult.

The above directives were considered in formulating the language and the wording of the questionnaire of this study.

#### 4.13.2.5 Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire of this study was designed to collect numerical data with the MOI in the UAE to find out the level of readiness and how change initiatives are managed.

Regardless of whether the questionnaire is administered personally or by mail it has to be constructed according to certain standards and principles .... It has to include three main elements .... the covering letter, the instructions, and the main body ” Sarantakos (1998: 225).

For the purpose of this study the questionnaire consists of five main sections:

- Section (A) provides demographic information
- Section (B) gauges opinions regarding the change management initiatives at the MOI.

- Section (C) gauges opinions regarding the readiness and understanding of change at the MOI.
- Section (D) gauges opinions regarding the implementing of change at the MOI.
- Section (E) gauges opinions regarding the resistance to organisational change at the MOI.

#### 4.13.2.6 Types of Questions

The type of questions refers to the way in which the questions are presented in the questionnaire, whether the question is open-ended or closed (Sekaran, 2003). An open-ended question is where each respondent can answer the question in any way they choose. Denscombe (2003:155) defines open-ended questions as “those that leave the respondent to decide the wording of the answer and the length of the answer”. On the other hand, a closed-ended question is where respondents are asked a question and required to choose their answer from a number of predetermined alternatives (Moore, 2006). According to Denscombe (2003:156) closed-ended questions:

“Structure the answers by allowing only answers which fit into categories that have been established in advance by the researcher.”

Each type of question (open-ended and closed) has both advantages and disadvantages. Collis and Hussey (2003) indicate that the open-ended questions allow the respondents to give their opinions as precisely as possible in their own

words. The information gathered reflects the full richness and complexity of the views held by the respondent. Open-ended questions are usually used in studies that use a qualitative methodology. In exploratory research this type of question can be useful because the researcher is unsure of the response. In addition, they can be used when the researcher requires detailed answers from respondents. However, there are some disadvantages of using open-ended questions which should be considered in formulating the questionnaire. They demand more effort on the part of the respondents, which might reduce their willingness to take part in the research. This type of question tends to favour specific type of respondents, who are able to organise and express their thoughts and ideas quickly and spontaneously. While open-ended questions provide valuable information, they leave the researcher with data which are quite raw and require a lot of time-consuming analysis before they can be used as useful information.

Closed-ended questions are very convenient for collecting factual data. Closed questions are helpful for collecting a large number of data, simple for the respondent to complete and easy to analyse (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In addition, the answers can be compared across respondents. However, it is noted that since respondents must make a choice to answer the question, even though it may not be appropriate, frustration may arise because respondents cannot give their opinions as they would prefer (Denscombe 2003). There is less scope for respondents to supply answers which reflect facts or true feelings on a topic if the facts or opinions do not exactly fit into the range of options supplied in the questionnaire. Therefore, when close-ended questions are designed, the researcher should make sure that all the likely answers

are provided to choose from. Although a few open-ended questions were used in the questionnaire of his study, close-ended questions are predominant.

#### 4.13.2.7 Scaling Techniques

The common rating scales include: (1) Thurstone's Method of Equal-Appearing Intervals, (2) Guttman's Scalogram Analysis, (3) Likert's Method of Summated Ratings, and (4) Osgood's Semantic Differential Technique (Cano and Brewer, 2002).

“When compared with the Thurstone method of equal appearing intervals, or Guttman's scalogram approach, Likert's model proves not only more efficient in terms of time and resource expenditure, but also more effective in developing scales of high reliability (in terms of both internal consistency and temporal stability)” Cano and Brewer (2002:286).

The Likert scale is a method designed to measure people's attitudes. Bryman (2008: 146) indicates that: “The Likert scale is essentially a multiple-indicator or multiple-item measure of a set of attitudes relating to a particular area. The goal of the Likert scale is to measure intensity of feelings about the area in question”.

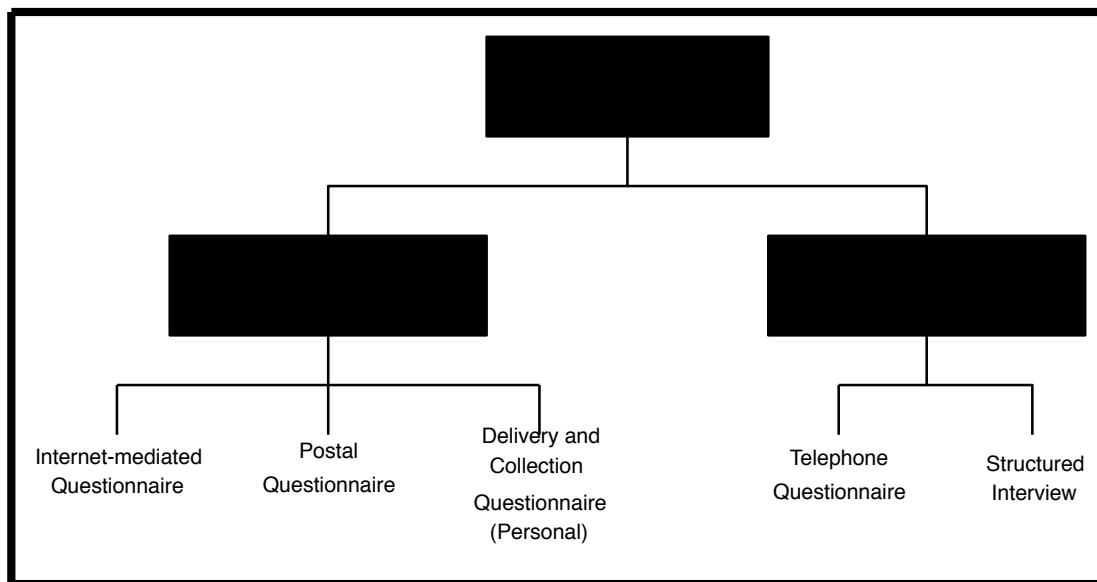
The Likert scale has many advantages such as: it is very popular among social scientists, being relatively easy to construct; allows multiple viewpoints on the same topic; and it is a good scaling technique for testing the internal reliability. It is believed that the Likert scale is more reliable than other scales (Sarantakos 1998).

All items using a nominal, ordinal, Likert or ratio scale are considered closed. Hence, the most common approach for giving answers to close-ended questions is the Likert rating scale, in which the researcher asks the respondents to rate their answers (Sekaran, 2003). Since the five-point scale is the basis for answering most of the close-ended questions in the questionnaire of this study, the Likert scale was chosen as the preferred method for collecting the required numerical data.

#### 4.13.2.8 Questionnaire Administration

The questionnaire can be self-administered. Figure 4.4 shows the types of questionnaire.

Figure 4.4: Types of Questionnaires



Source: (Saunders et al. 2007:357)



Self-administered questionnaires are very popular. They are relatively easy to administer and flexible in terms of collecting data under a variety of different circumstances. In self-administered questionnaires the respondent him/herself writes the answers on the form. The questionnaires can be administered either by internet, post mail or personal delivery. Interviewer-administered questionnaires, on the other hand, are a data collection technique where the interviewer himself writes the answers through telephone or structured interview with respondents.

The personal questionnaire means the questionnaire is hand delivered to the respondents and the researcher collects it back after it is completed by the respondent. Another way of personally administering the questionnaire is when the researcher is able to assemble some groups to respond to the questionnaire at the workplace. Following this way of questionnaire administration technique requires specific steps to be followed according to Saunders et al. (2007):

- 1) Ensure that all questionnaires and covering letters are printed and a collection box is ready.
- 2) Contact respondents by internal post or telephone advising them to attend a meeting or one of a series of meetings to be held.
- 3) At the meeting(s) hand out the questionnaire with a covering letter to each respondent.
- 4) Introduce the questionnaire and stress its anonymous and confidential nature.

- 5) Ensure that respondents place their completed questionnaire in a collection box before they leave the meeting.

Sekaran (2003) outlines the main advantages of this technique as follows:

- 1) The researcher can collect all the completed responses within a short period of time.
- 2) If the respondents have any doubts or ambiguity on any question it could be clarified on the spot.
- 3) The personally administered questionnaire affords the opportunity to introduce the research topic and motivate the respondents to offer their frank answers to a researcher.
- 4) Administering questionnaires to a large numbers of individuals at the same time is less expensive and consumes less time than interviewing.
- 5) It does not require as many skills to administer the questionnaire as conducting interviews.

The postal questionnaire can be conducted by the researcher who sends the questionnaire to the respondent and then the respondent completes it and returns it to the researcher. The main advantages of mail questionnaires are the ability to reach respondents in widely dispersed locations; they are reasonably inexpensive; and easy to administer (Oppenheim 2003). The disadvantages are: there is no opportunity to explain questions; it lacks the opportunity to check on incomplete questionnaires (Oppenheim 2003); low response rates, which may cause serious

problems in terms of unacceptable reduction in the sample size (Saunders et al. 2007).

The internet mediated questionnaires are usually administered in one of two ways: via email or via a website. The email questionnaire involves mailing the questionnaire to respondents, who complete it and mail it back to the researcher, while, via a website, the questionnaires can be advertised by email on the internet and respondents are invited to access a website to fill in an online questionnaire.

The personal interview questionnaire implies a direct face-to-face conversation between the interviewer and the respondent. The interviewer asks the questions and records the respondent's answers. On the other hand, the telephone interview means the conversation between the researcher and the respondent occurs over the phone (Jankowicz 2000)

#### 4.13.2.9 Questionnaire Delivery and Response

The researcher conducted the administration process of the questionnaire by meeting key figures in each MOI department personally and requesting them to distribute the questionnaire randomly to their staff. Suitable arrangements were put in place and followed to collect the questionnaires once they were completed by respondents.

#### 4.14 Interviews

The interview is the most widely employed method for data collection in qualitative research (Bryman 2004). The main purpose of the interview is to collect valid and reliable data which are relevant to the questions and the objectives of the research. Interview takes more of the form of dialogue and it allows the researcher and the respondent to move back and forth in time to analyse the past, interpret the present and predict the future.

##### 4.14.1 Definition of Interview

According to Saunders et al. (2003) an interview means a purposeful discussion between two or more people. "Every step of an interview brings new information and opens windows into the experiences of the people you meet" (Rubin and Rubin, 1995:1). Marchall and Rossman (1989: 82) state that: "An interview is a method of data collection that may be described as an interaction involving the interviewer and the interviewee, the purpose of which is to obtain valid and reliable information."

O'Leary (2004:162) defines an interview as "a method of data collection that involves researchers asking respondents basically open-ended questions."

##### 4.14.2 Types of Interviews

There are three main types of interviews: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (Sarantakos 1998). Structured interviews use pre-

established questions, which are asked in a predetermined order. They are called formal or standardised interviews. They are like questionnaires read by the researcher. As Jankowicz (2007: 320) points out: “Every structured interview follows a written interview guide - a document which looks very much like a questionnaire, and provides item sequence details, steering instructions, items, alternatives and recording instructions.” This type of interview requires a strict adherence to a set of predetermined questions. Structured interviews are mostly employed in quantitative research (Sarantakos 1998).

Semi-structured interviews are non-standardised interviews. The interviewer has a list of questions which may vary from one interview to another – questions can be added or deleted - depending on the organisational context and the interview condition (Bryman 2004). This type of interview may be employed in both qualitative and quantitative research. Semi-structured interviews can be described as a flexible method for collecting data which starts with some defined questioning, which gradually moves into a more conversational style of interview during which questions are answered in an order more natural to the flow of conversation.

Unstructured interviews are sometimes called in-depth interviews. The interviewer has no predetermined list of questions, but has only a list of themes as an interview guide and the questions are informal (Bryman 2004). A phenomenological (qualitative) approach suggests unstructured questions (open-ended questions) to explore an answer in more depth. The structure of the unstructured interviews is flexible and it is used mostly in qualitative research (Sarantakos 1998). In fact, this

type of interview aims to draw out information about attitudes, opinions and beliefs around particular themes, ideas and issues without using predetermined questions.

#### 4.14.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interviews

Sarantakos (1998) summarises clearly the advantages and disadvantages of interviews, illustrated in the following table.

Table 4.17. Advantages and disadvantages of interviews

Advantages	Disadvantages
It is associated with a high response rate.	It is more expensive and time consuming when there is a large number of respondents to be interviewed.
The researcher has a good opportunity to explain the purpose of the research in more detail, provide explanations and clarifications as deemed necessary, and handle any difficulties and misunderstanding in an efficient way.	It is inconvenient compared to questionnaires.
The researcher has a great deal of control on the conditions under which the questions are answered.	It offers less anonymity.
It secures that the required data will be collected according to the specific conditions.	Generally speaking, people prefer not to talk about some sensitive issues, although they may be willing to write about them. Under such conditions the interview tends to be ineffective in terms of collecting the required data.
	The interview may be affected by the researcher's mood which could result in getting biased responses from the interviewees.

Source: (adapted from Sarantakos 1998)

#### 4.14.4 Conducting Interviews

Interviews can be conducted either face-to-face, by telephone or computer-assisted. Structured interviews may be conducted either face-to-face or using the telephone depending on the level of complexity of the themes involved, the duration of interview, the convenience of both interviewee and interviewer, and the geographical area (Sekaran 2003).

Face-to-face interviews have many advantages and disadvantages. The main advantages are: the researcher can amend the questions as necessary, clarify doubts, explain questions in more details and provide nonverbal explanations. The main disadvantages are: it is expensive when a large number of respondents in different locations are involved, and respondents normally feel less anonymity for their responses (Sekaran 2003).

A telephone interview allows the researcher to reach a large number of people in a short period of time. It reduces any discomfort that some respondents may feel in face-to-face interview. It gives quick results, it is inexpensive, and reduces bias (Sarantakos 1998). The disadvantages of telephone interview are: it is associated with a high rejection rate; the researcher cannot determine whether the interviewee was part of the sample; it is limited in covering the target population when some of them may not have a telephone; and it is impossible to understand the nonverbal expressions (Sekaran 2003).

In this research, semi-structured interviews were used as a second data collection instrument to support the questionnaire so that better understanding of the research issues is achieved. These interviews allowed space for discussion and encouraged participants to raise and elaborate on important related issues. From this perspective, the conducted interviews complemented the questionnaire in terms of collecting the required non-numeric data to answer the questions of this study.

Interviewees were selected on the basis of “Expert Sampling”. The same themes of the questionnaire were covered and a specific interview guide was used in such interviews. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher explained to the interviewee the objective of the interview and the interviewee was informed that all the answers would be treated with a high level of confidentiality and used only for the purpose of the current study. Notes were taken to record the answers during the interviews. The answers were organised in such a way as to simplify the analysis process.

#### 4.14.5 Interview Data Analysis

It is important to use the right technique to analyse the outcomes of the interviews in order to corroborate the findings of the questionnaire. Content analysis represents a formal approach to qualitative data analysis where data is classified into different coding units which are normally pre-constructed by the researcher (Collis and Hussey, 2003). It is a detailed and systematic analysis and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify and understand patterns, themes and meanings. Regardless of where it is used, content analysis is mainly a coding



and interpreting process. Patton (1990) points out that interpretation is about making inference, developing insights, refining understandings and drawing conclusions. Content analysis is “Any technique for making inference by systematic and objectivity identifying special characteristics of messages” (Berg 2007: 306). Jankowicz (2000) points out that data gathered from interviews are well suited to content analysis in which the categories reflect the major perspectives arising in the interviews.

“In content analysis, researchers examine artefacts of social communication. Typically, these are written documents or transcriptions of recorded verbal communications” (Berg,2007: 306).

Typically, “content analysis is performed on various forms of human communications; this may include various permutations of written documents, photographs, motion pictures, and audiotapes,” (Berg and Lune 2012: 350). In this context, photographs, videotape or any items that can be made into text are amenable to content analysis. Content analysis can be achieved by seven elements in written messages: words, themes, paragraphs, items, concepts, characters, and semantics (Berg 2007).

The main advantage of the content analysis technique is that it is useful when analysing data collected by interview and it is a main technique for semi-structured interviews (Jankowicz 2000). The main weakness of content analysis lies in the fact that it is limited to examining already recorded or written messages (Berg 2007).

The data collected by the semi-structured interviews in this study were analysed by using the concept of the content analysis technique. To support the findings from the questionnaires, a series of 12 interviews were conducted, selecting leaders from different positions within the MOI departments. Semi-structured interviews were summarised and categorised under four main themes. The answers from different key figures in the MOI (UAE), were grouped on the basis of four themes of the semi-structure interviews. Content analysis was used manually rather than using NVIVO software for technical and logistical reasons.

#### 4.15 Reliability, Validity and Generalisability

Credibility of the research can be assessed on the basis of three important criteria – reliability, validity and generalisability.

##### 4.15.1 Reliability

It is extremely important to assess critically the extent to which the selected data collection method is reliable and valid. Reliability is the degree to which the finding is independent of accidental circumstances of the research, and validity is the degree to which the finding is interpreted in a correct way (Kirk and Miller, 1986). The measurement is considered reliable if, when repeated under the same conditions with the same subjects, it produces the same results.

“Reliability refers to the purity and consistency of a measure ... to the probability of obtaining the same results again if the measures were to be duplicated” Oppenheim (1992: 144).

Reliability according to Bell (1993:64) is “the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions”. Reliability refers to “the ability to obtain consistent results in successive measurements of the same phenomenon” (Jacob, 1994:363). Reliability is the consistency of the data collection method. Consistency and repeatability are key words in determining the reliability. According to Sekaran (2003: 207) “Reliability is established by testing for both consistency and stability”. He argues that consistency indicates how well the items measuring a concept hang together as a set. Stability indicates the ability of a measure to remain the same over time. A good level of reliability according to Denscombe (2003:300) is achieved when:

“The research instrument produces the same data time after time on each occasion that it is used, and that any variation in results obtained through using the instrument is due entirely to variations in the thing being measured”.

Reliability, according to Payne and Payne (2004: 195), is the “property of a measuring device which yields consistent measurements... provided the basic conditions remain the same. O’Leary (2004:56-57) states that reliability occurs when:

“The extent to which a measure, procedure or instrument provides the same result on repeated trials....There is some sense of uniformity or standardisation in what is being measured, and that methods need to consistently capture what is being explored.

Most researchers use a test of internal reliability known as Cronbach's Alpha. Sekaran (2003) argues that the Cronbach's Alpha is an adequate test of reliability. Pallant (2007) states that Cronbach's Alpha test is one of the most commonly used to test internal reliability. The Cronbach's Alpha test is employed to refine the instrument and test its reliability and construction. Cronbach's Alpha takes a value between 1 denoting perfect internal reliability and 0 denoting no internal reliability. There is no definite agreement on an accurate score for Cronbach's Alpha. Rosnow and Rosenthal (2002) suggest 0.70 as acceptable and 0.80 or above as the preferable level, although a minimal score of 0.6 is viewed as 'good' (Bryman, 2008).

#### 4.15.2 Validity

Validity is the degree to which an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. However, it is important to note that "if an item is unreliable, then it must... lack validity, but a reliable item is not [necessarily]... valid" (Bell, 1993:65). Validity according to Denscombe (2003:301) means that "the data and the methods are right". According to O'Leary (2004:61) validity "indicates that the conclusions you have drawn are trustworthy". According to Payne and Payne (2004:233) validity is "the capacity of research techniques to encapsulate the characteristics of the concepts being studied, and so properly to measure what the methods were intended to measure". Validity is the extent to which the research instruments accurately measure what in the first place they were intended to measure. In other words, validity is the ability of the measurement tool to assess what it is supposed to measure. The quality of the conclusions of an empirical study

is dependent on the quality of the data. Validity can also be explained as the strength of the conclusions and findings of a research study.

The validity of the questionnaire in this study was obtained from the steps that were followed in the preparation and testing of the questionnaire as explained through the previous sections and later on under the pilot study.

#### 4.15.3 Generalisability

Generalisability refers to the extent to which the findings of a research study are applicable to other settings. In other words, it is the extent to which research findings can be credibly applied to a wider setting than the research setting. The degree of representativeness of the sample determines the extent to which the findings of a study can be generalised. In this context Sarantakos (2005: 98) states that:

“In social research, generalisability ... reflects the extent to which a study is able to generalise its findings from the sample to the whole population. Obviously, the higher the generalisability, the higher the value of the study”.

Saunders et al. (2009: 158) indicate that “generalisability is sometimes referred to as external validity”. Yin (2009: 43) makes some distinctions, in understanding generalisability, between quantitative and qualitative studies:

“Survey research relies on statistical generalisation, whereas case studies (as with experiments) rely on analytical generalisation. In analytical generalisation,

the investigator is striving to generalise a particular set of results to some broader theory”.

Fiegen (2010) points out that validity relates to the extent of measurement and its degree of accuracy; in other words, does the measurement measure what it is supposed to measure? Thus, for a sociological methodology to be reasonable, it has to be both valid and reliable.

#### 4.16 Ethical considerations

According to Payne and Payne (2004: 66) ethical practice lies at the heart of social research and is:

“A moral stance that involves conducting research to achieve not just high professional standards of technical procedures, but also respect and protection for the people actively consenting to be studied.”

Saunders et al (2009) define research ethics as the correctness of the researcher’s behaviour in relation to the rights of the people who become the subject of the research study or are affected by it. Trochim (2006) describes the different principles of ethical research to ensure researchers adhere to ethical practice, stating that voluntary participation requires that people are not coerced into participating, that there is a notion of informed consent which means that prospective participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved and they must give their consent to participate. Bryman (2008) emphasises that research should be undertaken after obtaining the required approval of the supervising institution in

order to protect the targeted participants. Thus ethical issues are an important dimension and an integral part of research. "All research has ethical dimensions" (Punch, 2006:56). Grinnell and Unrau (2011) advise that ethical considerations are an important consideration for any research activity, especially when undertaking data collection.

For the purpose of this study, ethical approval has been granted by the Research Ethics Committee (REC) before collecting the required data. The common principles of ethics which include privacy of participants, voluntary participation, consent of participants, maintenance of confidentiality and avoidance of negative reactions (embarrassment, discomfort, pain etc.) were strictly adhered to in this study, throughout the process of collecting the required data via the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews.

In view of the high level of work pressure, employees at the MOI tend to be hesitant over releasing information given the nature of the job. The questionnaire was designed on the basis of specific ethical principles as listed below:

- 1) The length of the questionnaire was kept as short as possible to make sure that employees did not spend too much time in answering the questions.
- 2) The questions were simple, precise and clear to avoid disturbance to routine.
- 3) Questions which involve releasing personal or confidential information were avoided.

- 4) The most appropriate/efficient communication channels between the researcher and managers of key departments for distributing and collecting the questionnaires, were established right from the beginning.
- 5) Enough time was given to the respondents to give their answers and return the completed questionnaires without exposing them to any kind of discomfort, distress, inconvenience, etc., as a result of a tight deadline.
- 6) Semi-structured interviews were scheduled and held in accordance with the convenience of the participants who had the final say in determining the date, time and venue. Hence, disturbance to routine was minimised to the lowest level possible.

In addition to the above principles, the respondents were assured that the maximum level of confidentiality would be maintained through the following procedures:

- 1) All data would be consolidated to make sure that no specific reference is made to anyone.
- 2) When real examples or cases are used, the actual names of the concerned employees would not be revealed and the relevant documents would be kept confidential.

It is also worth noting here that this study does not hold nor maintain any personal data (personal addresses, postcodes, faxes, emails or telephone numbers). Participants were requested to answer normal questions through the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews. They were free to give their answers and had the full right to withdraw from the study at any time without giving any reason.



#### 4.17 Pilot Study

The pilot study helps to examine the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire before conducting the study on a large scale. Through this process, the wording, content and flow of the questions are pre-tested. Collecting the right data at this stage gives a positive indication that the questions were well written and understood by the pilot sample and the eventual participants will have no problem in completing and returning the questionnaire. In fact, piloting the questionnaire is required to lessen response bias due to poor questionnaire design. Oppenheim (1992) states that:

“The pilot study can help us not only with the wording of questions but also with procedural matters such as the design of a letter of introduction, the ordering of question sequences and the reduction of non-response rates”.

Testing the questionnaire can be formally conducted by piloting it on a small number of respondents or at least informally by consulting friends and colleagues. Collis and Hussey (2003:175) point out that “At the very least, have colleagues or friends read through it and play the role of respondents, even if they know little about the subject”. Gathering constructive feedback and comments through the pilot study from the participants will not only help to improve the internal validity of the questionnaire but rather it will enhance the quality of the main study (Borg and Gall, 1989).

“Questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights.

In fact, every aspect of a survey has to be tried out beforehand to make sure that it works as intended” Oppenheim (2005: 47).

For the purpose of this study a pilot study was initially conducted involving 50 employees from different MOI departments. Cronbach’s Alpha was computed for each questionnaire theme. The first dimension (change management initiatives) reported a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.848; the second dimension (readiness and understanding change) reported a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.918; the reliability coefficient for the implementing change dimension reported a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.854; finally, the reliability coefficient for the resistance to organisational change dimension reported a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.841. Therefore, conducting the statistical tests on the collected data is deemed to be reliable. The Cronbach’s Alpha ranged from 0.841 to 0.918. This indicates that the results of this analysis exceed the minimal score of 0.6 (Bryman, 2008), and the acceptable level of 0.70 (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 2002). They are a good indicator of the reliability of the questionnaire.

During the pilot study, most of the feedback and suggestions from the participants were positive and encouraging except about the length of the questionnaire. Their feedback was taken on board and the relevant parts of the questionnaire were amended and shortcomings were addressed to avoid confusion and linguistic ambiguity to ensure that the target respondents, in the full study, do not spend too much time in answering the questionnaire.

The main purpose of the amendments was to ensure that the final version of the questionnaire will help to answer the research questions. In addition to the administration of the questionnaire on a small scale basis through the pilot study, interviews were conducted with six MOI leaders in order to examine the level of readiness for implementing change initiatives. Analysis of the collected data was carried out by using such statistical tools as Descriptive Analysis, t-Test, One-way Anova, and Post Hoc Test (Tukey). The initial findings regarding the success rate and impact of the organisational change initiatives within the MOI UAE public sector will be explained in the next chapter.

#### 4.18 Summary of the chapter

The research philosophy underpinning this study has been selected, based on the nature of the problem and the questions this study wishes to address, as being a predominantly positivist paradigm. However, for the purpose of reliability a mixed method approach has been adopted using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Surveys and semi-structure interviews are deemed to be appropriate data collection instruments because they fit with the objectives and questions of this research in order to collect the required numeric and non-numeric data.

Stratified random sampling, and expert sampling are selected in this study. The required ethical principles have been adhered to, to ensure that this study is conducted in accordance with the Research Ethics Committee of LJMU. A pilot study has been conducted to test the reliability of the questionnaire and to examine

the practicality of the selected research methods in terms of achieving the objectives, and answering the questions of this study. The positive results of the pilot study form the basis and the way forward for the next chapters through which full analysis of the collected numerical and non-numerical data will be conducted by using the relevant statistical tools that are available through SPSS.

The following chapter presents and interprets the numerical and non-numerical data collected through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

## Chapter Five

### Data Analysis

#### 5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of both data from the questionnaire (quantitative) and the interviews (qualitative). The results of the questionnaire will be presented in the first part of the chapter while the second part of this chapter aims to present the findings from both the questionnaire and the interviews. The questionnaire was distributed to employees in different departments at the MOI. The questionnaire was divided into five main sections: Section (A) provides demographic information: Section (B) gauges opinions regarding the Change Management Initiatives at the MOI; Section (C) gauges opinions regarding the Readiness and Understanding of Change at the MOI; Section (D) gauges opinions regarding Implementing Change at the MOI; finally, section (E) gauges opinions regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at the MOI.

##### 5.1.1 Background of the respondents

600 questionnaires were circulated to the target respondents. 414 questionnaires were suitable for data analysis with a 69% response rate; 54 were invalid and not returned and 132 were discarded because they contained contradictory responses and were unusable (see Table 5.1). The questionnaire responses were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software, and then

the results of the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were classified in tables, which assists with the discussion of these findings and results.

Table 5.1 Sample Size

Type	Frequencies	Rate
Total number of questionnaires not returned	54	9%
Total number of questionnaires with contradictory responses	132	22%
Total number of questionnaires suitable for data analysis	414	69%
Total number of copies of questionnaires distributed	600	100%

#### 5.1.2 Data collection instrument reliability

Testing the reliability of data aims to measure the level of consistency and stability by which the instrument gauges the concept and helps to assess the rigour of a measure. The internal consistency of the questionnaire that was used to collect data was computed by using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient.

Table 5.2: Cronbach's Alpha results for dimensions of study

No	Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
1	Change Management Initiatives	0.848	16
2	Readiness and Understanding Change	0.918	12
3	Implementing Change	0.854	11
4	Resistance to Organisational Change	0.841	14
All Items		0.936	53

Table 5.2 shows that the Alpha value for the whole questionnaire was 0.936 which indicates that the questionnaire is highly reliable and acceptable since the satisfactory value is above 0.70. Also, Cronbach's Alpha was computed for each of the questionnaire domains or categories: the first dimension (Change Management Initiatives) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.848; the second dimension (Readiness and Understanding Change) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.918; whilst the reliability coefficient for the third dimension (Implementing Change) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.854; finally, the reliability coefficient for the fourth dimension (Resistance to Organisational Change) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.841. Therefore, conducting the statistical tests on the collected data is deemed to be reliable. The Cronbach's Alpha ranged from 0.841 to 0.918 which indicates that the questionnaire domains are highly reliable.

### 5.1.3 Descriptive statistics and sample characteristics

Describing sample characteristics is very important in social science research, because it provides both the researcher and the reader with information about the research setting, deepens the understanding of the study context, and helps to show research participants' responses in a questionnaire survey. Thus, after entering all the questionnaires into the SPSS, a frequency test was conducted in order to identify the distribution of different categories of respondents according to the sample's demographic characteristics as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Descriptive of Demographic Variables

Factors	Classification	Freq.	Percentage
Gender	Males	371	89.6
	Females	43	10.4
Age Group	Younger than 30	132	31.9
	30 – 39	184	44.4
	40 years or older	98	23.7
Experience	Less than (LT) 3 years	72	17.4
	3 – LT 7	121	29.2
	7 – LT 11	66	15.9
	11 – LT 15	71	17.1
	15 or More	84	20.3
Rank	Colonel or above	22	5.3
	Captain to Lieutenant Colonel	123	29.7
	Lieutenant or First Lieutenant	72	17.4
	Non-officer rank	197	47.6
Qualification	Secondary education or below	165	39.9
	Diploma or high diploma	71	17.1
	Bachelor degree	125	30.2
	Postgraduate (MA/MSc, Phil/ PhD, DBA )	53	12.8



Table 5.3 shows how different factors (gender, age, experience, rank and qualification) are distributed in detail. The sample characteristics are discussed in the order they appeared in the questionnaire.

#### 5.1.3.1 Sample distribution by gender

Table 5.3 reveals the distribution of respondents according to their gender; 10.4% of the sample was females and 89.6% was males. This big difference is due to the nature of work in the police and might also be due to other factors such as culture.

#### 5.1.3.2 Sample distribution by age group

Table 5.3 reveals the distribution of respondents according to their age group. 31.9% of the sample were younger than 30 years old, 44.4% of them were between 30 and 40 years old, and 23.7% of the sample were 40 years old and above. This sample distribution according to age indicated that the sample is representative of the whole population that the sample was selected from.

#### 5.1.3.3 Sample distribution by experience

Table 5.3 reveals the distribution of respondents according to their experience. 17.4% of the sample had less than 3 years' experience, 29.2% of them had more than 3 but less than 7 years' experience, 15.9% of them had between 7 and 11 years' experience, 17.1% between 11 and 15 years' experience, and finally, 20.3% of the sample had 15 years' experience or more.

#### 5.1.3.4 Sample distribution by rank

Table 5.3 reveals the distribution of respondents according to their military rank: 5.3% of them are Colonels or above, 29.7% are ranked Captains to Lieutenant Colonels, 17.4% are Lieutenants or first Lieutenants, and finally 47.6% are Non-officer rank.

#### 5.1.3.5 Sample distribution by qualification

Table 5.3 reveals the distribution of respondents according to their qualifications. 39.9% of the sample reached secondary level or below, 17.1% of them have a higher diploma or diploma, 30.2% of them have a bachelor degree and finally 12.8% have a postgraduate degree (MA/MSc, MPhil/ PhD, DBA).

The above percentages suggest that the sample is representative of the population that was selected with respect to all demographic variables.

## 5.2 Data Analysis

The data was collected by a questionnaire which employed the Likert scale to gauge levels of agreement. The questionnaire offered five potential choices (strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neutral = 3, disagree = 2, strongly disagree = 1). The sum of all responses of each item was computed and divided by 5 to calculate the standard average of the responses and the standard deviation was computed. The general rule is that if the average of any item is higher than the standard average (3), then this item has a positive correlation. The correlation increases when the average is closer to the number (5) which is related to strongly agree. The item has a negative

correlation if the average is below the standard average (3), and the negative correlation increases as the average is closer to (1) which is related to strongly disagree.

### 5.2.1 Answering the research questions

To answer the first research question that stated: “what are the standards of change management from the sample perspectives?” the averages and standard deviations were computed from the sample responses in each of the change management domains (Change Management Initiatives, Readiness and Understanding Change, Implementing Change and Resistance to Organisational Change) as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Standards of Change Management

Dimension	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Rank
Initiatives					Third
Understanding Change					First
					Fourth
Organisational Change					Second

Table 5.4 demonstrates that Readiness and Understanding Change had the highest positive correlation with an average of 3.85, followed by Resistance to Organisational Change with an average of 3.84. Change Management Initiatives was third with an average of 3.81, and in final place was Implementing Change which had an average of 3.54.

### 5.2.2 What measures can be taken to prepare staff for change?

To answer the second research question:” What measures can be taken to prepare staff for change?”, the averages and standard deviation of participants’ responses were computed for each item of the “Change Management Initiative” domain as shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Change Management Initiatives

No	Items	Mean	S.D	Level
1	executives for changes that I want to implement.			Mid
2	department and I let other departments deal with the impacts as they choose.			Mid
3	organisation, so that everyone understands the positive impact of a change project.			High
	will work.			High
5	and values as important elements of a change project.			High
	to continue to perform the best quality			Mid
7	declare victory and move onto the next project.			High
8	organisational structure when planning a change project.			High
	when planning a change project			High
	right away and make it happen.			Mid

11	members about what is the reason behind the need for change.			High
	before I decide if any training is necessary			High
13	is needed, the rest of the stakeholders will usually follow.			Mid
14	when the organisation has not previously managed change successfully			High
15	When implementing a change project, I set achievable, short-term targets that, once accomplished, will motivate people to persist and keep trying.			High
16	might not be necessary, it often helps to "mix things up a bit."			High
Change Management Initiatives		3.81	0.492	High

Table 5.5 shows that the respondents' attitude towards change management initiatives was high with a record of 3.81 which is higher than the standard average 3. Also, the averages of the Change Management Initiative items are higher than the standard average.

Item 6 has the lowest average, 3.39, from the Change Management Initiative items domain that stated: "When a change is happening I expect people to continue to perform the best quality". Item 2 that stated "I decide on a plan for change for my department and I let other departments deal with the impacts as they choose" has an average that is close to the lowest value at 3.42.

Item 1 that stated “I usually receive good support from senior executives for changes that I want to implement” has an average of 3.46, while Item 10 that stated “If I think something must be changed, I start right away and make it happen” has an average that was higher at 3.58. Item 13, “If key individuals are convinced that change is needed, the rest of the stakeholders will usually follow” has an average of 3.66.

Item 5 has the highest average of 4.29 from the Change Management Initiative domain that stated “I try to understand my organisation's culture and values as important elements of a change project”. Item 11 that stated “To get support from my team, I talk with team members about what is reason behind the need for change” average was next to the highest average value at 4.16. Item 14 that stated “It is harder to manage change effectively when the organisation has not previously managed change successfully” was next with an average of 4.11. Finally, item 15 that stated “When implementing a change project, I set achievable, short-term targets that, once accomplished, will motivate people to persist and keep trying” was next with an average 4.00. The computed standard deviations indicated that there are no huge deviations in the sample responses.

### 5.2.3 To what extent is the MOI leadership able and prepared to manage change?

To answer the third research question that stated: “To what extent is the MOI leadership able and prepared to manage change?”, the averages and standard deviation of participants’ responses were computed for each item of the “Readiness and Understanding Change” domain as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Readiness and Understanding Change

No	Items	Mean	S.D	Level
	was necessary			High
	to implementation			High
	made clear			High
	was debated before it really started	2.931		High
	change			High
	for the change			High
	would have to make once the change was underway			High
	made clear			High
	information is transparent			High
	are going			High
				High
	to contribute effectively to the change			High
Readiness and Understanding Change		3.85	0.687	High

Table 5.6 shows that the participants' attitudes towards Readiness and Understanding Change were high. The average of all responses was 3.85 which is higher than the standard average value of 3. Also, it can be noted that the averages of the items related to the Readiness and Understanding Change domain are higher than the standard average value of 3.

Item number 7 has the lowest average, 3.65, from the Readiness and Understanding Change items domain that stated: “Leaders prepared staff beforehand for adjustments they would have to make once the change was underway”. Item 6, “The management prepared well and had a good support for the change” is second lowest at 3.68. Item 12 that stated “There is a high level of confidence in the ability of staff to contribute effectively to the change” is slightly higher again with an average of 3.71

Item 2 has the highest average 4.02 from the Readiness and Understanding Change domain that stated “Effectively communicated the vision for the change prior to implementation”. Item 4 that stated “Consultation with employees took place the change was debated before we really started” is second highest with an average of 3.99. Item 3 that stated “The urgency of the change prior to implementation was made clear” is third with an average of 3.96. Item 8 that stated “The vision and the mission objectives of the MOI are made clear” is next with an average of 3.94 and finally, Item 1 that stated “It was clearly explained to all employees why the change was necessary” was next with an average of 3.90.

#### 5.2.4 What are the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within the MOI?

To answer the fourth research question that stated: “What are the current problems and challenges impeding the implementation of change within MOI?”, the averages and standard deviation of participants’ responses were computed for each item of the “Implementing Change” domain as shown in Table 5.7.



Table 5.7 Implementing Change

No	Items	Mean	S.D	Level
1	how actually things were done “in the old days” prior to the change.		1.017	Mid
2	consequences resulting from the change implementation.		0.875	Mid
3	of the change implementation on people in the department.		0.774	Mid
	change implementation.		0.834	Mid
	change.			Mid
	the implementation.		1.095	Mid
	change implementation was going.		1.118	Mid
8	communicated progress of the change implementation		1.010	Mid
	had more trouble with the change implementation.		0.963	Mid
	model for subordinates during implementation.			Mid
	implementation			Mid
Implementing Change		3.54	0.617	Mid

Table 5.7 shows that the participants’ attitudes towards implementing change were reasonably high. The average of all responses is 3.68 which is higher than the standard average value of 3. Also, it can be noted that all the averages of the items that related to the Implementing Change domain are higher than the standard average value of 3.

Item number 8 has the lowest average, 3.32, from Implementing Change items domain that stated: "Management carefully monitored and communicated progress of the change implementation." Item 7 that stated "Management provided regular feedback on how the change implementation was going" has an average marginally higher than the lowest value 3.33. Item 6 "Management provided resources needed to support the implementation" has the third lowest average value of 3.41. This is followed by item 9 that stated "Management gave individual attention to those who had more trouble with the change implementation" with an average of 3.42. Item 1 that stated "Management was sensitive to traditional practices, how actually things were done "in the old days" prior to the change" has an average fairly close to that of the lowest value at 3.43.

Item 5 has the highest average of 3.78 from the Implementing Change domain that stated "Management empowered people to implement the change". Item 10 that stated "Management embraced change and was a role model for subordinates during implementation" is second highest with an average of 3.73. Item 3 that stated "Management made an effort to minimise the impact of the change implementation on people in the department" is next with an average of 3.66. Item 11 that stated "Celebrated short term wins during change implementation" was next with an average 3.64, followed by Item 4 that stated "Management helped people deal with the pain of change implementation" with an average of 3.63.

5.2.5 What are the main sources of resistance for leadership, which impede the implementation of change?

To answer the fifth research question that stated: “What are the main sources of resistance for leadership, which impede the implementation of change?” the averages and standard deviation of participants’ responses were computed for each item of the “Resistance to Organisational Change” domain as shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Resistance to Organisational Change

No	Items	Mean	S.D	Level
				High
				High
				High
				High
	success			High
				High
	the change			High
	it fails in my area			High
				High
				High
	doing rather than implement a major change			High
	an area in which I work			High
	in which I work			High
	do my job to be more efficient			High
	Resistance to Organisational Change	3.84	0.635	High

Table 5.8 shows that the participants' attitudes towards resistance to organisational change were significant. The average of all responses was (3.84) which is higher than the standard average value 3. It can be noticed that the averages of the items related to the Resistance to Organisational Change domain are higher than the standard average value of 3.

Item number 13 that stated: "I will accept any changes to the programme or area in which I work" with 3.66 has the lowest average from the Resistance to Organisational Change items domain. Item 1 that stated "My willingness to work harder because of the change" has the second to lowest average at 3.69. Item 14 that stated "There are many things I need to change about the way I do my job to be more efficient" has an average close to the lowest value at 3.70. Item 7, "My willingness to change the way I work because of the change" has an average value of 3.72.

Item 5 of the Resistance to Organisational Change domain stated "My willingness to find ways to make the change success" has the highest average at 4.17. Item 2 that stated "My willingness to help solve departmental problems" was second highest with an average of 4.04. Item 4 that stated "My willingness to contribute with new ideas" is third with an average value of 4.00, while item 9 that stated "My willingness to train or learn new things" has an average of 3.93. The standard deviations indicated that there are no huge deviations in the sample responses.

## 5.3 Presentation of Findings

### 5.3.1 Inferential statistics

The main idea of statistical inference is to take a random sample from a population and then to use the information from the sample to make inferences about particular population characteristics such as the mean (measure of central tendency) and the standard deviation (measure of spread). Thus, an important consideration for those planning and interpreting sampling results, is the degree to which sample estimates, such as the sample mean, will agree with the corresponding population characteristic. Also the variability in a sampling distribution can be reduced by increasing the sample size, and in large samples, many sampling distributions can be approximated with a normal distribution. In this study, two important techniques will be used to analyse our data: the t-test and the one way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

### 5.4 t-test for Two Independent Samples

Two independent sample t-tests will be used to highlight the differences in the means of males and females over each dimension of study: (Change Management Initiatives, Readiness and Understanding Change, Implementing Change and Resistance to Organisational Change). The output consists of two major parts. The group statistics (presented in Appendix 1) provides the sample size (N), means, standard deviations and the standard errors of the mean for each dimension of

study, and is differentiating between males and females. The independent samples test, (presented in Appendix 2) is split into two parts. The first part provides the Levene's Test for equality of variances. If the significance level (sig.) is greater than 0.05 then it should be assumed the group variances are equal and the first row of t-test results should be used, otherwise the second row of t-test results is used. In this study, all dimension significance levels are bigger than 0.05, which denotes that males and females have the same variance in each dimension, so the first row of t-test results is used.

The second part of the independent sample t-test provides us with F value, t value, degrees of freedom (df), and the two tailed level of significance (sig.) which is used to test the equality of means for males and females. If the significance level (sig.) is greater than 0.05 then it is assumed the group means are equal.

#### 5.4.1 t-test Results – Gender with all Dimension of Study

The following results are based on the data collected by the questionnaire designed to gauge the opinion of the whole population (MOI employees) on each dimension of study differentiating between males and females. The findings (see Appendix 2) indicate that:

- 1) Both males and females have similar opinions about Change Management Initiatives (sig. = 0.850). where the males mean = 3.8078 and the females mean = 3.8228

- 2) Both males and females have similar opinions about Readiness and Understanding Change (sig. = 0.796). where the males mean = 3.8443 and the females mean = 3.8730
- 3) Both males and females have similar opinions about Implementing Change (sig. = 0.979) where the males mean = 3.5407 and the females mean = 3.5433
- 4) Both males and females have similar opinions about Resistance to Organisational Change (sig. = 0.084). where the males mean = 3.8236 and the females mean = 4.006

## 5.5 One way ANOVA

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a hypothesis-testing technique used to test the equality of two or more population (or treatment) means by examining the variances of samples that are taken. ANOVA distinguishes whether the differences between the samples are simply due to random error (sampling errors) or whether there are systematic treatment effects that cause the mean in one group to differ from the mean in another.

Most of the time ANOVA is used to compare the equality of three or more means; however, when the means from two samples are compared using ANOVA it is equivalent to using a t-test to compare the means of independent samples. ANOVA is based on comparing the variance (or variation) between the data samples to variation within each particular sample. If the between variation is much larger than the within variation, the means of different samples will not be equal. If the between

and within variations are approximately the same size, then there will be no significant difference between sample means. If the ANOVA test shows that the result is significant, then a follow-up test (known as post hoc multiple comparisons) needs to be performed to assess which group means are significantly different this is not implying that all the group means are different, but at least two of them.

There are at least two types of follow-up tests to determine whether to assume equal variances. If equal variances are assumed, Tukey or R-E-G-W Q is used, otherwise Dunnett's C is used. Indeed, there are a number of statistics to choose from regarding the SPSS menu. Through these statistics, which pairs of group means are different can be determined.

The following results are based on the data collected by the questionnaire designed to gauge the opinion of the whole population (MOI employees) on each dimension of study separately by each group of the following factors: age, experience, rank and qualification.

#### 5.5.1 ANOVA Test Results - Age Group with Change Management Initiatives at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.000) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 3). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 4) revealed that regarding the Change Management Initiatives at MOI the age group 40 years old or more (mean = 3.9926) was statistically significantly (p = 0.016 ) higher than the 30 - 39 years age group (mean



= 3.8274) and the age group 40 years old or more (mean = 3.9926) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) higher than the 20 - 29 years age group (mean = 3.6481) Also the age group 30 - 39 (mean = 3.8274) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.003$ ) higher than the 20 - 29 years age group (mean = 3.6481) as shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: ANOVA test - Change Management Initiatives

Change Management Initiatives				
Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
20 -29	132	3.6481		
30 - 39	184		3.8274	
40 yrs or more	98			3.9926
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

### 5.5.2 ANOVA Test Results – Age Group with Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.000) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 5). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 6) revealed that regarding the Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI the age group 40 years old or more (mean = 4.0146) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) higher than the 20 - 29 years age group (mean 3.6477) and the age group 30 - 39 (mean = 3.9012) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.003$ ) higher than the 20 -29 years age group (mean = 3.6477) However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p = 0.371$ ) between the age group 40 years or more and the age group 30 – 39

regarding the Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI as shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: ANOVA test - with Readiness and Understanding Change

Readiness and Understanding Change			
Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
20 -29	132	3.6477	
30 – 39	184		3.9012
40 yrs or more	98		4.0146
Sig.		1.000	.367

### 5.5.3 ANOVA Test Results – Age Group with Implementing Change at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.240) between all groups of age as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 7) regarding the Implementing Change at MOI (i.e. all age groups (20 – 29, 30 – 39 and 40 years or more with means 3.4687, 3.5631 and 3.5968 respectively) have similar opinions about Implementing Change at MOI).

### 5.5.4 ANOVA Test Results – Age Group with Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.000) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 8). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 9) revealed that regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI the age group 40 years old or more (mean = 4.0747) was statistically significantly (p = 0.00) lower than the 20 - 29 years age group (mean = 3.5835) and

the age group 30 - 39 (mean = 3.9088) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) lower than the 20 - 29 years age group (mean = 3.5835).

However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p = 0.102$ ) between the age group 40 years or more and the age group 30 – 39 regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI as shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: ANOVA test - Age Group with Resistance to Organisational Change

Resistance to Organisational Change			
Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
20 -29	132	3.5835	
30 – 39	184		3.9088
40 yrs or more	98		4.0647
Sig.		1.000	.100

#### 5.5.5 ANOVA Test Results – Experience with Change Management Initiatives at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.001) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 10). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 11) revealed that regarding the Change Management Initiatives at MOI, the employees who have 11 – 15 years of experience (mean = 3.93368) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.001$ ) higher than the employees who have 3 - 7 years of experience (mean = 3.6543) and the employees who have 15 years of experience or more (mean = 3.8953) was statistically significantly ( $p =$

0.004) higher than the employees who have 3 - 7 years of experience (mean = 3.6543). However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between all other groups of experience as shown in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: ANOVA test - Experience with Change Management Initiatives

Change Management Initiatives			
Experience	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Less than 3 yrs	72	3.8178	3.8178
3 yrs to Less than 7 yrs	121	3.6543	
11 yrs to Less than 15 yrs	71		3.9368
7 yrs to Less than 11 yrs	66	3.8379	3.8379
15 yrs or More	84		3.8953
Sig.		.120	.530

#### 5.5.6 ANOVA Test Results – Experience with Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.054) between all groups of experience as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 12) regarding the

Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI (i.e. all groups of experience: less than 3 years' experience, 3 – 7 years' experience, 7 – 11 years' experience, 11 – 15 years' experience and 15 years' experience or more with means 3.7963, 3.7528, 3.7671, 3.9723 and 3.9842 respectively) have similar opinions about Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI.

#### 5.5.7 ANOVA Test Results – Experience with Implementing Change at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.691) between all groups of experience as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 13) regarding the Implementing Change at MOI (i.e. all groups of experience: less than 3 years' experience, 3 – 7 years' experience, 7 – 11 years' experience, 11 – 15 years' experience and 15 years' experience or more with means 3.5227, 3.5213, 3.489, 3.6331 and 3.5481 respectively) have similar opinions about Implementing Change at MOI.

#### 5.5.8 ANOVA Test Results – Experience with Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.049) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 14). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 15) revealed that regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI, the employees who have 15 years' experience or more (mean = 3.9581) was statistically significantly (p = 0.048 ) lower than the employees who have 3 - 7 years' experience (mean = 3.7111). However, the test

also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between all other groups of experience as shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: ANOVA test - Experience with Resistance to Organisational Change

Resistance to Organisational Change		
Experience	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Less than 3 yrs.	72	3.9209
3 yrs. to Less than 7 yrs.	121	3.7111
7 yrs. to Less than 11 yrs.	66	3.8079
11 yrs. to Less than 15 yrs.	71	3.8792
15 yrs. or More	84	3.9581
Sig.		.102

#### 5.5.9 ANOVA Test Results – Rank with Change Management Initiatives at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.00) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (appendix 16). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (appendix 17) revealed that regarding the Change Management Initiatives at MOI, the employees with rank Colonel or above (mean = 3.9411) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.012$ ) higher than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5796) and the employees with rank Captain to Lieutenant Colonel (mean = 3.8840) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) higher than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5796). Also, the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5796) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.001$ ) higher than the non-officer rank employees

(mean = 3.8320). However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between all other groups of rank as shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: ANOVA test - Rank with Change Management Initiatives

Change Management Initiatives			
Rank	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Non-officer rank	197		3.8320
Lieutenant or First Lieutenant	72	3.5796	
Captain to Lieutenant Colonel	23		3.8840
Colonel or above	22		3.9411
Sig.		1.000	.634

#### 5.5.10 ANOVA Test Results – Rank with Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.00) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 18). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 19) revealed that regarding the Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI, the employees with rank Captain to Lieutenant Colonel (mean = 3.9129) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) higher than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5058) and the non-officer rank employees (mean = 3.9249) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.00$ ) higher than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5058).

However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between all other groups of rank as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: ANOVA test - Rank with Readiness and Understanding Change

Readiness and Understanding Change			
Rank	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Lieutenant or First Lieutenant	72	3.5058	
Colonel or above	22		3.9022
Captain to Lieutenant Colonel	23		3.9129
Non-officer rank	197		3.9249
Sig.		1.000	.998

#### 5.5.11 ANOVA Test Results – Rank with Implementing Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.043) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 20). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 21) revealed that regarding the Implementing Change at MOI, the non-officer rank employees (mean = 3.6156) was statistically significantly ( $p = 0.027$ ) higher than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.3786). However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between all other groups of rank as shown in Table 5.16.



Table 5.16: ANOVA test - Rank with Implementing Change

Implementing Change		
Rank	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Lieutenant or First lieutenant	72	3.3786
Colonel or above	22	3.4876
Captain to Lieutenant Colonel	123	3.5261
Non-officer rank	197	3.6156
Sig.		.178

#### 5.5.12 ANOVA Test Results – Rank with Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.00) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 22). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 23) revealed that regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI, the employees with rank Captain to Lieutenant Colonel (mean = 4.0321) was statistically significantly ( $p$  = 0.00) lower than the employees with rank Lieutenant or First Lieutenant (mean = 3.5886) and the Captain to Lieutenant Colonel (mean = 4.0321) was statistically significantly ( $p$  = 0.008) lower than the non-officer rank employees (mean = 3.8054). However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences ( $p$  > 0.05) between all other groups of rank as shown in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: ANOVA test - Rank with Resistance to Organisational Change

Resistance to Organisational Change			
Rank	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Lieutenant or First Lieutenant	72	3.5886	
Non-officer rank	197	3.8054	3.8054
Colonel or above	22		3.9362
Captain to Lieutenant Colonel	123		4.0321
Sig.		.257	.220

#### 5.5.13 ANOVA Test Results – Qualification with Change Management Initiatives at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.424) between all groups of qualification as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 24) regarding the Change Management Initiatives at MOI (i.e. all groups of qualification: High School certificate or less, Diploma or Higher Diploma, Bachelor degree, and Postgraduate with means 3.8555, 3.7542, 3.7795, and 3.810 respectively) have similar opinions about the Change Management Initiatives at MOI.

#### 5.5.14 ANOVA Test Results – Qualification with Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.119) between all groups of qualification as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 25) regarding the Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI (i.e. all groups of qualification: High School or less, Diploma or High Diploma, Bachelor degree, and Postgraduate with

means 3.9374, 3.8088, 3.8130, and 3.6987 respectively) have similar opinions about the Readiness and Understanding Change at MOI.

#### 5.5.15 ANOVA Test Results – Qualification with Implementing Change at MOI

There was a statistically significant difference (p-value = 0.026) between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 26). The multiple comparisons by Tukey post-hoc test (Appendix 27) revealed that regarding the Implementing Change at MOI, the employees with High School or less qualification (mean = 3.5949) was statistically significantly (p = 0.015) higher than the employees with a postgraduate qualification (mean = 3.3053) However, the test also shows that there were no statistically significant differences (p > 0.05) between all other permutations of qualification as shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: ANOVA test - Qualification with Implementing Change

Implementing Change			
Level of Education	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Postgraduate	53	3.3053	
Bachelor or Less	125		3.5513
Diploma or HDip	71		3.5735
HS or Less	165		3.5949
Sig.		1.000	.967

#### 5.5.16 ANOVA Test Results – Qualification with Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI

There was no statistically significant difference ( $p$ -value = 0.308) between all groups of qualification as determined by one-way ANOVA (Appendix 28) regarding the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI (i.e. all groups of qualification: High School or less, Diploma or Higher Diploma, Bachelor degree, and Postgraduate with means 3.8272, 3.7952, 3.8236, and 3.9938 respectively) have similar opinions about the Resistance to Organisational Change at MOI.

#### 5.6 Qualitative Findings

To support the findings from the questionnaires, a series of 20 interviews were conducted, selecting leaders from different positions within the MOI departments. The interviews focused on the four dimensions of the study that emerged from the literature review and the questionnaire. The main objective of conducting qualitative interviews is to understand and gain insight into a particular phenomenon being investigated, in this case change readiness in the MOI. The purpose in this section is to find out more about the issues raised by the results of the questionnaire survey in more depth.

In this study, interviews were conducted in order to gain opinions on issues that could not be properly elicited purely through a quantitative strategy. This section includes the objectives of the interviews, the key outcomes of the interviews, the profile of the interviewees and the findings of the interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with leaders holding different positions in the

Management Departments of the MOI used for the study. This instrument was most suitable for the respondents, to elicit detailed responses which would otherwise not be captured in questionnaires and also convenient for respondents who, due to their busy schedules, were reluctant to fill in questionnaires. Thus, the following themes were introduced by the researcher to the interviewees to ensure that the respondents understood the questions being asked and the aims of the research. This prompted a discussion between the researcher and the respondents on the importance of the study. The following areas were outlined for investigation:

The following table shows the themes of the interviews conducted with MOI leaders related to change management

Table 5.19: Change management interview themes for MOI leaders

	Items of themes
Theme 1	Have you been involved in any previous change experience (e.g. restructuring the organisation, introducing a new scheme, a new service, or technology change)?
Theme 2	Are you aware of the federal government change agenda and mission objectives for bringing about change at the MOI?
Theme 3	Have you introduced any changes recently in your department?
Theme 4	Has change worked successfully for you in the past or what were the main obstacles?

Analysis of the responses of the sample related to themes shown in table 5.19 reveals that most leaders in the Ministry of Interior have practical experience in change management and have been previously involved in some change initiative experiments in this area. In particular they are informed and aware of the federal government's plan for change where there have been two main obstacles on implementing change in the past: first, understanding the reasons for the change from all parties involved; second, some employees that resist change in general.

Table 5.20: Themes of the interviews conducted with MOI leaders related to change readiness

	Items of themes
Theme 1	Change readiness is the ability to continuously initiate and respond to change in order to minimise risk and maximise performance. Is your department ready for change? Do you know the level of your staff readiness to engage with the change?
Theme 2	What are the pressures facing the MOI leadership at the moment, as the Arab world is going through leadership change – do you have any concerns about your level of readiness and preparedness for change?
Theme 3	Do employees know what steps will be taken to move from where you are now to where you want to be?
Theme 4	Is there any effective system in place for monitoring the change progress?
Theme 5	Are leaders working as facilitators helping others on their team to learn how to lead change?

By soliciting the opinions of the leaders about the themes shown in Table 5.20, most leaders in the Ministry of Interior feel they are they are ready for change but there

are some difficulties related to the lack of the concept of a culture of change among staff. Moreover, despite the availability of a system to measure progress in the process of change through annual development plans and quality assessments, and identifying opportunities for continuous improvement, there is no budget for staff training and development.

Table 5.21: Themes of the interviews conducted with MOI leaders related to managing resistance to change

	Items of themes
Theme 1	Many people are afraid of change and managing change is overcoming resistance, and promoting acceptance and belief in the change. Do you agree that change involves changing the way that employees and management work?
Theme 2	Are there any barriers to change within the MOI and how often do you face resistance to change?
Theme 3	How do you deal with resistance to change and how do you overcome this resistance to change?
Theme 4	Do you agree that to be in a better position to plan proactively for the stages of change, and for the effect that change has on the MOI, it is necessary to understand how people react to change?

After analysing the responses of the leaders to the themes listed in Table 5.21, the results show that most agreed that high costs, convincing officials and lack of budget for change are the biggest difficulties that hamper the process of change in the Ministry of Interior. They also agreed that the process of persuading employees of the benefits of change is the most successful way to overcome resistance to change

Table 5.22: Themes of the interviews conducted with MOI leaders related to leaders as facilitators of change

	Items of themes
Theme 1	Has the organisation provided its employees with information about the need and necessity of the change?
Theme 2	Has the current change been forced on you or do you approve and endorse the government change initiatives?
Theme 3	Is the current management culture ready to deal with any change?
Theme 4	Is your department paying attention to effective staff training programmes to cope with change?
Theme 5	Do you see yourself as the main facilitator and /or advocator for the change?

By analysing the responses of participants related to themes shown in Table 5.22. it was found that the leaders in the Ministry of Interior have varied opinions on the information that the Ministry of Interior provided to their employees about the importance of change and the need for it. The leaders also have varied opinions on the satisfaction levels with the current change and training for a culture of dealing with change in the current administration.



Interviews were conducted with a small number of personnel representing five different general directorates (departments) at the MOI, based on their expertise and experience, who were able to provide broader and more in-depth information relating to the themes of leaders as facilitators of change throughout the entire organisation. The opportunity for personnel to discuss issues relating to the roles of leaders in a private one-to-one encounter with the researcher was thought to be conducive to the objective of obtaining honest responses and to highlight aspects of leadership that might not otherwise surface in the questionnaire.

### 5.7 Summary of the findings of the semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interviews findings appear to support and sustain the findings of the questionnaires and revealed that the MOI change initiatives and readiness for change are reasonably adequate. However, contradictory views between the two set of respondents: employees and management at the MOI are quite interesting as they both seemed to view reality differently.

## Chapter Six

### Discussion of Findings

In this chapter the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis are discussed and interpreted. The data were collected and then processed in line with the research objectives and questions set in Chapter One.

Everyone agrees that change management is important. However, in practice it is a challenge that requires competent leadership and engaged employees. Moreover, change is not something that senior managers plan and then pass their instructions down the line; change is a participative approach. It is the responsibility of every member of staff to be engaged in the change process for the benefit of organisational improvement. From the results of the survey, there is a general view held by the respondents that change initiatives were well managed.

The respondents who have been involved and experienced the different change plans that the MOI has initiated, stated that in terms of the barriers to managing and implementing change, they did not perceive many major incidents of resentment either implicitly or explicitly that impeded the change efforts launched by the MOI. They agreed that they faced some difficulties during the change process, such as poor understanding of the change project by the workforce and ineffective communication of the change strategy to the workforce. In addition, the employees were unprepared and did not have enough information and training about the

change concept. As one line manager explained: “My experience with undergoing change was positive and successful despite some difficulties, which we addressed through meetings and dialogue with the key stakeholders about the benefits from the change to achieve and deliver service improvement.” Similarly, a civilian female employee confirmed that, she hasn't participated in change experiences but, she witnessed a lot of successful change efforts.

These reticent reactions and lack of open criticism by the employees are understandable because of the nature of the job; cultural values have a strong influence on the Arab mind-set, with expectations to show respect for the decision-makers while the sensitive environment of the MOI dictates that employees do not ask too many questions: ‘just follow orders’. In defence of the MOI leadership, some change actions are initiated under pressure or orders from a variety of internal and external sources beyond the scope and control of the MOI leaders themselves. This finding is in line with the literature which suggests that different types of change require different approaches, but fundamentally management support and commitment before and during the change process is necessary. Employees must also be given the opportunity and be informed in order to prepare themselves physically and psychologically for change.

Regarding the readiness for change, the respondents confirmed that their departments and staff are constantly prepared for change. The results from the survey have identified that there is a clear requirement for the organisation to establish suitable measures and systems, additional to those already in place for existing employees. However, most respondents claimed that there are no serious

issues that make them worry about the change initiatives. In the view of some managers, staff are made aware of and are informed about the change initiatives and the process of change. In contrast, other respondents presented conflicting answers and disagreed, suggesting the decision-makers did not always warn them about the change and therefore there was no readiness for change. Although it is natural for a big institution such as the MOI to have employees that show dislike and discontent over change or express opposition and reluctance to embrace change, albeit covertly, to remain effective, the MOI needs to do better and leaders must fundamentally enhance the way they manage and lead change initiatives where everything and everybody in the MOI is involved in the change process for continuous improvement. They must use all means possible to communicate the new vision and strategies. Admittedly, some of the MOI departments have underestimated the importance of managing change effectively.

Regarding the issue of the role of leaders in initiating and leading change, in ensuring engagement of all concerned by making employees aware of the nature and motivation for change through clear change agenda and actions, employees indicated that the MOI leadership managed change effectively, as over 60% were engaged. They all appear to echo the same sentiment that the MOI leaders have been visible, approachable, supportive and motivating their staff during the change. One employee said middle managers facilitated the change and helped the employees understand the reasons for the change and how to adapt to it. A similar view was repeated by another manager who declared that his department and his colleagues are ready to implement change but there is pressure facing the MOI

although he preferred not to talk about it. Another manager confirmed there are sensitive issues related to security but stresses optimistically that this does not affect the management of operations and the change agenda will be managed and implemented on schedule. This is consistent with the literature as Bass (1985) claims that leaders and change are closely interconnected by suggesting that leaders must motivate change through the articulation of a compelling vision for any major change initiative. Leaders at the MOI have the trust and confidence of the MOI staff and use their power base to intervene and change organisational culture. As one leader at the MOI put it, he trusts the MOI is ready for change despite the fact that a lot of effort needs to be made to improve both the departments' and employees' performance through a long term change culture, clear and well thought out strategic plans, staff training workshops, continuous quality improvement and providing a five star service. However one respondent contradicted this view saying that the MOI employees had no idea and no prior information about all the change plans within the MOI. He said that the MOI leadership did not even consult them, let alone involve them in any change plans that they had to undergo.

The lesson learnt is that managing change successfully is not about bringing in a consultancy change management toolkit; it is essentially about setting a clear strategy for creating a change-ready culture by engaging everyone in the organisation. The term change management is certainly not a panacea and will not solve all the problems of an organisation. Nevertheless, managed and applied with thought and vision, it can make a difference to individual, team and organisation performance.

In close association with change management is resistance to change and how leaders cope with barriers to change. The findings reveal that the MOI as an organisation and its leadership are committed to change and are continuously seeking to upgrade its management practices as the only way forward. However, the fast changing economic, social and developmental pace experienced in the UAE calls for a new approach within the MOI. Change projects, require the involvement and co-operation of all those who are going to be affected by it. One of the biggest challenges of leading successful change is dealing with employee opposition and resistance to change

It is worth noting, that the researcher's position as an officer in the MOI may have had an element of influence in the sense that the researcher is a manager of some of the people being surveyed. Therefore, there is a perceived limitation in terms of employees withholding information or being hesitant to tell the truth in an effort to be positive about the change initiatives. Clearly, most interviewees were constructive and supportive of the leadership role in disseminating information about change and that there is no apparent disapproval or discontent. Everything is running smoothly and everyone is happy with everything seems to be the tune repeated by most respondents. But indirectly, preparing, training and staff development for continual updating and improvement of service delivery in several MOI departments are ineffective and need urgent solutions. There is evidence that a clear staff training strategy reinforcing or acquiring new knowledge or skills is yet to be developed and put effectively into practice to lead successful change in line with the government vision of 2021. The results from the interviews are not in full

agreement with the questionnaire findings in terms of the existence of conflicting views from both employees and management. This demonstrates the challenge of obtaining a full and accurate picture about the change efforts at the MOI from the sample which needs to cover many other variables for comprehensive research findings.

The key findings that emerged from the interviews with the MOI leaders show they are in agreement about the importance and benefits of change but some leaders are sceptic and have given honest perceptions of their experience with change efforts at the MOI. They pointed out that change is often chaotic, unsettling and unpredictable, because the rationale and the purpose for change is not explained and advertised in line with the MOI strategy. Some argued that change initiatives appear to be burdensome and purely bureaucratic measures. Others have rejected the suggestion that preparation and information before change are provided and stress that often not enough information is given by leaders.

## 6.1 Summary of the chapter

To sum up, many countries of the Middle East are experiencing turbulent change, uncertainty and disorder, mainly resulting from their leaders' refusals to change with the times as they are content with the status quo while stifling and repressing their people for decades. In the meantime, the UAE has diligently been working for four decades to transform the social, economic and demographic landscape through resolute change initiatives for the wellbeing of the UAE citizens. The UAE leaders

have realised that today's world is changing rapidly and the traditional ways of working and doing business are no longer sustainable for the future.

The majority of respondents say that the MOI has real-change leaders who achieve successful results because they care about the UAE and about their employees, are open and honest and are committed to moving the MOI institution to the level set by the government vision 2021. Some respondents, however, argue that there are occasions where MOI leaders have acted alone and decided to initiate change without assessing the level of readiness in terms of training and capabilities. However, the MOI leaders contend that taking unilateral change actions at times are justified because of the sense of urgency and because of the sensitive nature of the project or the task at hand to achieve the desired outcomes of a peaceful life, sustainable freedom and the pursuit of happiness for all the UAE citizens.

Despite the fact that the MOI has undertaken many cases of change management over the years, there is a lack of formal and official guidelines on how change can be successfully managed which has led to inconsistent approaches meaning some have been successful, others not so.



## Chapter Seven

### Conclusions and Recommendations

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to synthesise the key findings and draw conclusions from these findings by highlighting trends or themes that have emerged to provide answers to the thesis research questions. It will also make links to the literature in order to ascertain whether these findings are consistent with previous studies and to bring to light the key research evidence about what leads to successful change. It will make recommendations and identify the theoretical and policy implications of the study with respect to the overall research area of change management and readiness for change. It will discuss the study limitations and signpost areas for future research.

Change management is a topic of interest in the current socio-political and economic climate in the Middle East and in particular the UAE. While, the political and socio-economic wave of change sweeping the Middle East is characterised by emphasis on short term reactive fixes rather than long term change strategy, the UAE has been undergoing more complex and faster change than ever before and it is imperative for public institutions such as the MOI to improve the way they operate in order to keep up with the pace of change in the country. If the MOI is to remain competitive in this fast-paced environment, it must change through regular reality

checks and adapt the way it works to changing conditions. Given the complex nature of today's UAE and the Middle East, effective change management is becoming more pertinent than ever. This study argues that sustainable improvement and progress can be achieved through effective readiness for change and engaging in innovative change measures to achieve the vision and mission objectives set by the country. One change strategy or approach does not fit all situations, and the different context in which change initiative is made, influences the change process adopted. The broad review of the literature has revealed that there is no single approach to change management—what works or fits best depends on the organisational business and cultural environment.

There is no doubt that most change theories and models have certain characteristics in common. However, despite the significant interest in change management by both academics and the business world, a universally agreed definition of change has been beyond reach. This is due to the complex nature of change management which is not a distinct discipline with rigorous and defined boundaries. As Burnes (2004) points out, change management has roots in a number of social science disciplines and traditions. In addition, previous research draws a gloomy picture stating that most attempts to implement change in different organisational settings are either only partially successful, or unsuccessful.

The rationale and the need for change initiatives arise both proactively and reactively for a variety of reasons. Proactive change initiatives involve anticipating, preventing and addressing the issues as they emerge, seeking continuous improvement of services in order to enhance the ease and effectiveness of service

delivery. In contrast, reactive change initiatives imply addressing existing problems through measures to solve the errors accordingly. There is also a consensus in the literature that organisations do not actually change but people do. This in line with Kegan and Lahey's thinking (2009:319): "Neither change in mind-set nor change in behaviour alone leads to transformation, but each must be employed to bring about the other".

In addition, change management research is again divided about the pace and rate of change. Some contend that organisations that are constantly changing and tinkering will not be able to enhance their productivity or performance. Others suggest that change should be embedded as a routine activity thus becoming a natural part of day to day operations (By, 2005).

Key management literature on organisational change is also polarised. Some authors strongly believe that change can be successfully implemented if managers follow a clear set of management tools. They faithfully prescribe concepts such as 'empowerment', 'mission statements', 'shared values' and 'open communication' as magic formulae to effective change management. Others take the view that the majority of change initiatives and models have ended in failure or have had little practical relevance and value and often do not live up to their promises. There is a constant reminder in the change management literature that the failure rate of change schemes varies between 60 to 70 percent. This figure has been wrongly or rightly cited since the 1970's to the present. There is no concrete evidence to support that 70% of change efforts end in failure, and the best figure or best information is only as good as its evidence. The suggestion therefore, seems to be

that any change plan comes with a caveat that no change plan can deliver promising outcomes with certainty. In defence of change management, this study argues that if change management attempts have failed to achieve their purpose, it is due to misunderstanding change processes or ill planned and ill prepared change strategies. Firstly, change cannot be imposed. It is not about working to someone else's agenda or addressing someone else's problem i.e. it is not something that senior managers plan and then pass their instructions down the line. In addition a change plan or model cannot be imported nor planned externally.

In summary the extant literature on change management and readiness for change covers plenty of ground and provides a range of theories, models and empirical studies by prominent authors in the field. Although there is some common ground or consensus amongst authors, the range of different and frequently proposed change models or theories are overlapping, but each has its own jargon. The common thread is the general understanding that change should not be a blueprint but rather it should be about using a holistic approach which involves everyone including management support. The change process is intrinsically complex and multipurpose, and organisations that are planning to undertake or contemplate change, would thus benefit from these many insights and studies published in the literature. However, each change management study and each change model is suitable for a particular environment and is shaped by context. A change model is not necessarily interchangeable or exportable and must be 'homemade' by an organisation and justified by its advantages, benefits and whether it is fit for purpose. Not all change models and theories are suitable and applicable to the MOI

organisational culture. Each organisation has its own characteristics and specificities. For instance, in the MOI in the UAE, change management is a continuous activity aimed at adapting and dealing with constant social and political changes to ensure security and prosperity for everyone in the UAE, be they Emirati citizens or foreigners. The broad change management debate helped this study in getting a sense of the broader change context. Although the MOI leaders proactively plan for periodic effective improvements to the organisation's processes and service delivery, there is still room for improvement in several areas.

There is no doubt that in the UAE change has and continues to be on top of the government agenda as the whole country is witnessing constant change and unprecedented events and achievements in all walks of life. In fact, the pace of change has never been greater than in the UAE which is constantly striving for the breath-taking projects, embracing 'the sky is the limit' outlook as illustrated by the tallest building, the biggest shopping mall, the biggest airport, the biggest hotel, etc. If the efficiency of change is measured by the degree to which the goals of change efforts have been achieved, then the UAE is the land which embodies the success of the most extraordinary change story. In the words of Aristotle: "We are what we repeatedly do. Excellence then is not an act, but a habit". For the UAE excellence has been a habit and part of life for over a decade. It has recently launched the 2021 Vision of Excellence to deliver quality service fit for the 21st century. but employees within the MOI need to see how they fit into that vision. They must be pro-active, anticipate change, embrace it and make things happen.

## 7.2 Summary of key findings

The key findings of this study have been achieved in line with the underpinning research questions and objectives. Current academic output within the area of change management and readiness for change revealed a fragmented and divergent range of opinions. Based on the literature review, the nature of the problem and the research questions this study is addressing, a mixed methods approach was adopted involving a quantitative survey and also a number of semi structured interviews. The rationale for combining quantitative and qualitative data collection methods was to achieve holistic understanding of how change is managed within the MOI (UAE) and to assess the level of readiness for implementing change initiatives.

What practical strategic plans and measures can be taken to prepare staff for change within the MOI?

Building capacity for change is an important part of a constant process. The majority of the respondents stated that the organisation possesses readiness for organisational change mechanisms. Participants revealed that employees were generally briefed and prepared for any change initiative, though a minority disagreed stressing that the organisation did not have a process in place that facilitated organisational change. They indicated that the need and rationale for change and the expected impact of change was not explained. There was lack of collective support for change throughout the organisation, and emphasising active employee participation in the change efforts was overlooked. This discrepancy indicates that,

at times, the MOI change efforts have been planned from the top and have failed to bring about the desired results. Respondents and management agree that favourable conditions toward change should be created by selling the change, and enhancing the trust between employees and the organisation. The results of this research showed that communication has a direct impact on the progress and success of the change initiatives. Respondents stressed the importance of clear communication channels, before and during the change. Some respondents voiced their concern, albeit implicitly, that during the change process initiated by the MOI, communication by middle management is inadequate. There is plenty of room for improvement of communication in terms of time, quality and quantity which will have a positive impact on the success of change.

What are the main obstacles of driving change and the sources of resistance for leadership which impede the implementation of change?

Initiating change without consulting or engaging employees or understanding how individuals react and experience change often leads to resistance to change. Management must realise that the successful outcome of the initiated change plan depends on the employees' commitment within the organisation. Within the MOI, respondents highlighted that increased rates of change occurring in today's UAE environment make the change initiatives within the MOI often a routine activity, but they stressed it is not so much the change initiatives that create uncertainty, anxiety and disruption but 'how we intend to change things'. In addition, one of the main obstacles during initiating and leading change is illustrated by the red tape within the MOI due to organisational and management culture. This often involves multiple

levels of hierarchy with a tradition of a top-down chain of command. The findings also revealed that, in order to deal successfully with challenges and barriers during the change process, it is important to start by getting the basics right, in particular addressing areas such as clear communication and evaluation of the level of readiness for change.

Leaders as facilitators of change: is the current management culture ready to deal with and manage change?

The majority of participants asserted that change efforts require strong leadership. Employee expectations and aspirations are to look up to the MOI leaders who should act by example, inspiring others to achieve success by encouraging them to be proactive, innovative and take the initiative, a leader that motivates employees to change working practices to enhance performance. Participants also indicated that it was also important for leaders to create the right climate for change through delegating and sharing leadership responsibilities across the MOI departments and by developing the appropriate culture for change, in which generating innovative ideas is encouraged and sustained. The findings clearly indicate that the majority of MOI employees agree that their leaders are approachable and welcome and seek employee feedback. This contradicts a commonly held view suggesting the MOI is an institution dominated by the old-fashioned "follow me" type of leadership where the employees cannot afford to be critical of their leaders for fear of retaliation.



Change readiness is the ability to continuously initiate and respond to change in order to minimise risk and maximise performance. Is your department ready for change? Do you know the level of your staff readiness to engage with the change?

The more prepared an organisation is to change, the more likely it is to succeed.

The majority of respondents revealed that change within the MOI is an inevitable occurrence, thus as one participant said, 'we are always expecting it and are prepared for it'. Preparing, prioritising and debating the change plans that need to be implemented is essential for the success of the change. Nearly two-thirds of respondents revealed that line managers are taking time to be more interactive and receptive to employees. Respondents stated that the conditions and resources are prepared and put in place when the change process is launched and that a clear vision and objectives for the intended change are announced by the MOI management. The motivation and attitudes of employees to participate in making the change work is generally high. But this kind of rhetoric is not always credible and sincere because there is a number of respondents who are not positive about their managers' communication effectiveness and the way change is managed.

'Sometimes we think the management is just going through the motions by consulting us because we never hear anything from them. There is no follow up...So, I'm not sure what our views are really accomplishing. The impression we get is that the management seems mainly to be focused on achieving targets'. Thus qualitative and quantitative differences in responses regarding resistance to change have been demonstrated in this research. This further supports the view that most people resist change to a degree; it is a plausible human reaction but at what level

this expression of resistance becomes a concern remains to be explored by future research. This is also consistent with the literature which suggests that individuals may resist change in different ways. This is particularly true in the UAE where most people do not overtly express strong objections and rarely enter into confrontations with management.

Leaders inspire people in the department to embrace the change. Leaders know what they are doing and where they are going.

Respondents generally stated that their leaders communicate a clear and convincing vision for change. They believe leaders explain the rationale for change and set the priorities effectively, so that those who implement change understand what they need to do. In their view, leaders at the MOI lead by example and lead with a sense of responsibility and urgency and have the ability to generate commitment to change. They act promptly to support the full process of change from generating ideas to developing and launching the change project. Yet this is only partly true as there is little evidence of these attributes based on the researcher's personal experience. There is an attempt at engaging employees to become active participants in the change process, but the usual constraints that reinforce the way change has been traditionally introduced still persist especially in some departments. Counterproductive measures which slow the pace of change need to be minimised such as untimely, not well thought out and force fitting change efforts. A few respondents suggested that the approach to several problems that emerged is the very systematic, top-down method, dictating the change process in relative isolation, without seeking input from the stakeholders involved in the change. The

MOI needs to understand and accept the dissatisfaction that exists amongst some employees at different levels by providing a vision, fresh and innovative leadership insights, best practice and a competitive work environment through clear reward schemes to lead and implement change.

### 7.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, findings from the two data collection methods, questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, were not always complementary but captured different perspectives of change efforts initiated so far by the MOI (UAE). It can be argued that both these conflicting and complementary findings were needed to capture nuances and to inform decision-makers and raise their awareness. These findings are useful because they clearly reveal that individuals react and cope with change differently and that there will always be some criticism or an expression of discontent during the change process. The findings also suggest that there are no simple universal change models that can be adequately smoothly implemented in the MOI. Regarding readiness for change, the findings revealed, in general, that employee job satisfaction is high. The study found that employees are motivated and supportive of change rather than showing resistance mainly because of the current incentives and rewards schemes provided by the MOI. This finding also implies that change readiness serves as a facilitator in the face of uncertainty and anxiety associated with change. However, managers revealed that they encountered some challenges in the process of leading change, as well as in the way that they dealt with those challenges.

The general consensus amongst respondents is that the key to sustaining future prosperity and stability in the UAE lies in transparency and equal opportunity for all Emiratis in order to prevent similar social unrest from engulfing the UAE which would threaten and undermine the security not just of the UAE, but of the whole region.

Amongst the change efforts taking place in the UAE, is the 'Emiratisation' vision, which has been making the headlines again after a modest success rate. The revival of this policy is understandable because in essence it is characterised by positive discrimination; in other words, it favours Emiratis over expatriates by providing job opportunities for UAE nationals and promotes national interests first. The UAE, which has managed till now to avoid the political unrest that has hit other parts of the Middle East, is focused on increasing the number of its nationals at work to reduce unemployment and the number of expatriates. The political turmoil in the Middle East has been triggered mainly by youth unemployment and lack of economic opportunities.

Another change project that was launched in the UAE can be illustrated by the Emirates Foundation Kafa'at Programme (kafa'at is an Arabic term for talent) in order to encourage Emirati talent to develop career pathways to the private sector. Kafa'at was initiated by Sheikha Lubna bint Khalid Al Qasimi, Minister of Development and International Co-operation, during the foundation's quarterly Social Investment Forum. The programme includes Kafa'at Leadership Camp which is part of the Kafa'at Youth Leadership Project. The camp targets university students, to help young Emiratis achieve their career aspirations within the public sector.

The findings of this study stipulate that organisational change is a continuous process and goes beyond “quick-fix” top down prescriptions for employees to follow. Change efforts must be closely linked to the complex environment of the organisation. The findings also reveal that change within the MOI is sometimes imposed on employees and management by external factors; as a result everyone must adjust and do the best they can with little or no objection.

#### 7.4 Recommendations

Organisations today operate in unpredictable and complex environments where change is constant, and this is never more so than in the UAE. Based on the research findings and the broad change management debate, the following recommendations are offered for the key stakeholders for the successful implementation of change initiatives, and to overcome any challenges and minimise employee resistance to change, alleviating anxiety and apprehension for some during the change process. To remain competitive and effective, the MOI needs to create a work environment that fosters creativity, harmony and teamwork, where change for the purpose of continuous improvement is understood and embraced by employees and supported by management. As Charles Darwin said, "It's not the strongest species that survive, nor the most intelligent, but the most responsive to change."

This study recommends:

- Instead of aiming at one particular drastic change, it is worth considering multiple periods of change with different magnitudes and assessing the impact across different departments
- Setting and identifying the short- and long-term departmental targets by engaging senior staff and by clearly determining the scope of the proposed change and the rationale for this change
- Enhancing and upgrading the communication channels with the employees to determine the way forward
- Learning about employees' mind-sets and individual preferences on how change could be addressed then employees might be more responsive and productive
- Organising an open debate about resistance to change, finding out whether employees and middle management understand the need for change, agree with the change, and trust their leadership to be able to drive them through the change successfully
- Motivating employees during the change process by providing clear incentives and reward schemes
- Planning the change by assessing the level of readiness in terms of resources and by determining the specific time allowed for each phase of the change schedule
- Developing staff training programmes for both managers and employees to improve their performance, providing clear job specifications, deciding with employees the activities and methods they are required to achieve

- Establishing cross-department cooperation and collaboration among MOI staff
- Identifying the problems related to staff discontent and grievances that might hinder achievement of the change effort and the MOI mission objectives
- Monitoring the implementation of the change efforts by engaging staff in the decision making process and by evaluating the progress of expected objectives and outcomes, through regular meetings
- Recognising and rewarding staff according to their achievements and commitment during and after the change project. It is very important to put reward and recognition systems in place to motivate and inspire employees to work in new ways and adopt the change culture
- Leadership development: as change facilitators - the MOI must enhance the leadership skills of existing and potential leaders to lead change by putting in place a clear framework of coaching and mentoring.
- Organisational strengthening: in this age of uncertainty it is advisable that the MOI is fully prepared to face adversity by consolidating its infrastructure and its human capital through organisational development, change management and organisational learning to be fully capable and effective in fulfilling its role because continual learning is essential for sustaining capacity change.

Finally the MOI must be open to plural views and not operate on a single and unilateral decision in order to be able to manage and have more options for a successful change. There is a need for a change management project team within the MOI as in today's complex world, organisational change initiatives are more and more being run as projects, adopting the use of lean project management tools and processes to manage organisational changes.

### 7.5 Limitations of the study

It is commonly acknowledged that any research by its very nature is limited and this study is no exception. This research has achieved the purpose and objectives set in Chapter One, which are mainly focused on evaluating the level of readiness when managing change within the public sector in the UAE, the case of the Ministry of Interior (MOI). However, during the process of conducting this research, several constraints were encountered. These are summarised as follows:

The sample population was located within the MOI headquarters and in-depth data were limited due to the fact they were collected from departments in Abu Dhabi only, thereby reducing the variability of the findings.

Research is focused only in the context of the UAE, the case of the Ministry of Interior (MOI). It would be better if the research context is expanded and extended to include other sectors or GCC countries, to identify successful change drivers and disseminate the knowledge and experience obtained by this study.



The questionnaire used for this study was translated from English into Arabic. The Arabic version constitutes another potential limitation of this study which stems from the inevitable loss of meaning in the translation process. Although due care was taken to minimise the loss of meaning by checking its accuracy with translation experts, something is always lost in translation, especially between Arabic and English as these two languages operate on different thought processing levels.

The researcher is not entirely independent of the study, having taken an active role in the management of change within the MOI. The researcher believes that the study findings may have been different if employees had potentially felt more comfortable so that they could be more open and critical of how change efforts were managed, and provide further comprehensive suggestions for improvement in the future. The researcher is a high ranking officer for the MOI and since all of the participants of the survey and interviews are existing employees of the MOI, the researcher at times had some misgivings as to whether respondents were genuine and honest with their answers or simply tried to be positive to please the researcher rather than being critical for fear of repercussions. During the interview sessions, the researcher had to coax some of the participants to provide deeper insights about change initiatives and preparedness for managing change. Some of the participants felt uneasy providing feedback on questions relating to organisational culture and change readiness despite assurances of anonymity and confidentiality of the information in this research. Thus there was a possibility of bias from both researcher and respondents during the interviews. To overcome this risk, the researcher conducted a pilot study of the interview questions, enabling him to

reduce the bias and to adopt a neutral stance while conducting the interviews. Triangulation of the interview findings with the questionnaire provided another important tool to avoid bias.

Finally, another limitation was time constraints and challenging family obligations that often interfered with the research task. In many cases this is a common limitation. With greater time available it would have been possible to collect and analyse larger sets of data. A more expanded scope of the data would potentially provide deeper and broader insights into MOI change efforts and readiness for change.

## 7.6 Contribution to Knowledge

Although this study has been built on previous works related to change management and readiness for change which have provided a solid platform, it has made an original contribution by addressing the gaps and by extending the literature within the under-researched area of change management in the Middle East and the findings are expected to lead to wider implications beyond the direct research context of the MOI in the UAE to other GCC countries. This study made a theoretical contribution by expanding and enriching the review of the general body of relevant literature, which further broadens the scope of best practice of successful change initiatives thus contributing to knowledge and understanding in the relevant field. Many of the key findings of this study are in line with the mainstream literature concerning readiness and resistance to change. The findings of this study support what other key authors such as Kotter (1996) and Kanter (1989) have stated. However,

this study fills in the missing information in change management regarding the Middle East and in particular the UAE, in the sense that the research findings have contributed to the change management debate and improved the understanding of it. It provides an alternative explanation for change initiatives that are well documented and widely cited in the literature and, in some instances, it contradicts some of the literature for lack of concrete empirical evidence.

The vast literature contains many studies with a limited and overlapping number of ideas that are borrowed from international publications which tend to promote general approaches to change without concrete evidence and empirical data to support their applicability and practicality in the UAE business and political environment.

This study makes also a practical contribution to knowledge as the key findings of this research add to the body of knowledge concerning change management approaches in government organisations, by using the MOI in the UAE as a case study. It also provides fresh insights into how a government sector in a developing country with a different organisational setting and different employee mind set manages and implements change. This study encourages decision makers who aim to introduce organisational change to prepare the climate for change and to ensure that employees are engaged, understand and willing to accept, implement and sustain organisational change. Although the findings are context specific to the organisation under consideration, namely the MOI, the researcher believes that the outcomes and findings of the study would be useful for others undertaking change management.

In terms of methodological contribution, this study adopts a mixed methods approach, as it uses both quantitative and qualitative data from a sample of management employees within the MOI, using semi-structured interviews and questionnaire.

### 7.7 Areas for further research

This study examined change initiatives within the MOI and assessed the level of readiness. Despite the useful insights and practical implications provided by this study, further research is necessary to gain a better understanding of how to manage and lead change successfully in a complex organisational setting such as different sectors and organisations within the UAE. It would be beyond the scope of this study to address all the issues and perspectives associated with the area of change management and readiness for change. Therefore, there are many change management angles that deserve further investigation particularly on how change can be managed, based on the findings of this study, in often turbulent cultural and organisational settings such as the Middle East. Several areas where information is lacking were highlighted in the literature review. Whilst some of these were addressed by the research in this thesis, others remain. In particular, there is a lack of studies on the impact on employees undergoing change.

Another change management area that has received little attention is how expatriates view change initiatives in order to gauge their perceptions and feelings of undergoing change and how they are affected by the change. The UAE, like

many GCC countries, has over 80% of its population made up of foreigners who are often affected by change strategies. This, too, is a worthwhile research target.

The methodological perspectives selected by this study can be replicated and could be conducted and data collected in a variety of environments for comparison, for instance in other GCC countries.

The literature review revealed that no research on the topic of change management has been conducted within the Ministry of Interior (UAE). This research is the first attempt to identify the main issues related to change drivers and change processes, such as evaluating to what extent the MOI employees have been prepared for change and whether the change initiatives implemented so far have been successful. The findings of this study provided fresh insights into how the MOI has managed change and what the weaknesses are that need addressing in the future, requiring greater awareness of the need for change management and readiness for change to be put on the MOI agenda. It would be useful to use a larger sample and evaluate and follow up the many change projects that the MOI has conducted.

Future research should examine the rate of success of change efforts initiated by the MOI. It should find answers to questions such as: did the initiated change take place? What worked well and what did not? What were the key constraints? How did employees react and feel about the change process?

Future research should investigate how the MOI is going to align with the UAE 2021 vision for change and integrate this into the MOI strategy. The challenge is to make change management part of the MOI strategy, and not an add-on that is managed and led independently. The UAE vision of the future is more than just a blue print or an ambition. It an insight into what and where the UAE wants to be in the future. The MOI leaders must contribute, keeping up with the pace of change in the UAE to transform and translate the government vision into reality.

There is also a need for conducting research in a wider application of change management. The MOI must consider in the near future setting up a Change Management Office whose role is to identify, plan and prepare areas that are in need of change within the MOI and train employees on how to manage and lead change. The MOI must prepare training programmes aimed at developing staff capabilities and competencies on how to deal with change. It is suggested that future research will seek to examine the role of organisational change processes, as well as the importance of information and debate regarding change readiness.

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## Appendices

- 1) Questionnaire
- 2) Interview Themes

## Appendix 1

### Questionnaire

Dear participant

I am currently undertaking research as part of a PhD at Liverpool Business School at John Moores University, UK. Title of my Research is: Managing change: An investigation into readiness for change within the public sector in the UAE, the case of the Ministry of Interior (MOI)

The following questionnaire aims to survey and gauge the views and perceptions of the employee at the MOI UAE about change management. It will assess the degree of readiness for change and what are the challenges and constraints that are hindering the implementation of change.

#### Section A: Participant profile

Q1. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

Q2. What is your age group?

- 20-29 years old
- 30-39 years old
- 40-49 years old
- 50-59 years old
- 60 years old or over

Q3. In which department are you currently working?

- General Directorate of Punitive Reformatory Establishments
- General Directorate of Finance and Logistics
- General Inspector's Office.
- Police College.
- General Secretariat of the Minister's Office.
- General Directorate of Human Resources.
- General Directorate of Electronic Services and Communication.
- General Directorate of Civil Defence
- General Directorate of Residence and Foreigners Affairs
- Police Head Quarters (Abu Dhabi, Sharjah, Ajman, Um Alqiween, Ras Al Khima and Fujairah).
- Other (please specify.....)

Q4. How long have you been working in your department?

- Under two years
- Three to five years
- Seven to ten years
- Over ten years

Q5. What is your position /rank?

- General manager
- Senior manager
- Higher police officer
- Senior Administration staff
- Employee

Q5. What is your highest level of education?

- Elementary education
- Secondary education(junior college or similar)
- Vocational training
- Further education (special diploma or similar)
- Undergraduate (BA/BSc or similar)
- Postgraduate (MA/MSc, Phil/ PhD, DBA )
- Others ( please specify)

## B: Change management initiatives

Please Tick one option in each case

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I usually receive good support from senior executives for changes that I want to implement.					
I decide on a plan for change for my department and team, and I let other departments deal with the impacts as they choose.					
I communicate successes throughout the organisation, so that everyone understands the positive impact of a change project.					
If the change makes financial and operational sense, then it will work.					
I try to understand my organisation's culture and values as important elements of a change project.					
When change is happening, I expect people to continue to perform at 100 percent.					
Once I am successful with a change project, I declare victory and move onto the next project.					
I consider things like the impact on people and organisational structure when planning a change project.					
If I think something must be changed, I start right away and make it happen..					
To get backing and support from my team, I talk with team members about what is reason behind the need for change.					
I let people get comfortable with changes before I decide if any training is necessary					
If key individuals are convinced that change is needed, the rest of the stakeholders will usually follow.					
It is harder to manage change effectively when the organisation has not previously managed change successfully					
When implementing a change project, I set achievable, short-term targets that, once accomplished, will motivate people to persist and keep trying.					
Change is as good as a rest, so even though it might not be necessary, it often helps to "mix things up a bit."					



C: Readiness and understanding change

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.	It was clearly explained to all employees why the change was necessary.					
	Effectively communicated the vision for the change prior to implementation.					
	The urgency of the change prior to implementation was made clear.					
4.	Consultation with employees took place - the change was debated before we really started.					
5.	Leaders inspired people in the department to embrace the change.					
6.	The management prepared well and had a good support for the change.					
7.	Leaders prepared staff beforehand for adjustments they would have to make once the change was underway.					
8.	The vision and the mission objectives of the MOI are made clear					
9.	Communication channels are facilitated and flow of information is transparent					
10.	Your leaders know what they are doing and where they are going.					
11.	Overall the current management system is open to change					
	There is a high level of confidence in the ability and availability of staff to contribute effectively to the change					

## D Implementing change

Please tick one option in each case

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Management was sensitive to traditional practices, how actually things were done “in the old days” prior to the change.					
1. Management was fair in addressing any negative consequences resulting from the change implementation.					
1. Management made an effort to minimise the impact of the change implementation on people in the department.					
Management helped people deal with the pain of change implementation					
1. Management empowered people to implement the change					
2. Management provided resources needed to support the implementation.					
3. Management provided regular feedback on how the change implementation was going.					
Management carefully monitored and communicated progress of the change implementation					
4. Management gave individual attention to those who had more trouble with the change implementation.					
1. Management embraced change and was a role model for subordinates during implementation.					
Celebrated short term wins during change implementation					

## E: Resistance to Organisational Change

Please tick one option in each case

Statement	Very unlikely	unlikely	Neither/ Neutral	Likely	Very likely
My willingness to work harder because of the change is					
My willingness to help solve the department problems is					
My willingness to participate in the change programme is					
My willingness to contribute with new ideas is					
My willingness to find ways to make the change fail is					
My willingness to do things in a new or creative way is					
My willingness to change the way I work because of the change is					
My willingness to take responsibility for the change if it fails in my area is					
My willingness to train or learn new things is					
My willingness to support change is					
My willingness to improve what we are currently doing rather than implement a major change is					
I look forward to be involved in changing the programme or area in which I work					
I will resist any changes to the programme or area in which I work					
There is nothing I need to change about the way I do my job to be more efficient					
The programme or area in which I work functions well and does not have any aspects that need changing					

Thank you for taking the time to fill in the questionnaire.

## Appendix 2

### INTERVIEW Themes and Questions

Theme one: Change experience

- Q1 Have you been involved in any previous change experience (e.g. restructuring the organisation, introducing a new scheme, a new service, or technology change)?
- Q2 Are you aware of the federal government change agenda and mission objectives for bringing about change at the MOI?
- Q3 Have you introduced any changes recently in your department?  
Is this change similar to or different from past change at the MOI?
- Q4 Has change worked successfully for you in past or what were the main obstacles?

Theme Two Change readiness

- Q1 Change readiness is the ability to continuously initiate and respond to change in order to minimise risk and maximise performance. Is your department ready for change? Do you know the level of your staff readiness to engage with the change?
- Q2 What are the pressures facing the MOI leadership at the moment, as the Arab world is going through leadership change –do you have any concerns about your level of readiness and preparedness for change?
- Q3 What measures or mechanisms have you prepared to deliver the change necessary to respond to the challenges facing the MOI?

- Q4 Is there a clear map of governance arrangements for the change?
- Q5 Do employees know what steps will be taken to move from where you are now to where you want to be?
- Q6 Is there an effective system in place for monitoring the change progress?
- Q7 Are employees prepared to assume responsibility for the successful direction and execution of the change?
- Q8 Are leaders working as facilitators helping others on their team to learn how to lead change?
- Q9 Have the potential threats from the Arab Spring been assessed and strategies put in place to mitigate the risks?

### Theme three Managing Resistance to Change

- Q1 Many people are afraid of change and managing change is overcoming resistance, and promoting acceptance and belief in the change. Do you agree that change involves changing the way that employees and management work?
- Q2 Are there any barriers to change within the MOI and how often do you face resistance to change? How do you deal with resistance to change and how do you overcome this resistance to change?
- Q3 Do you agree that to be in a better position to plan proactively for the stages of change, and for the effect that change has on the MOI it is necessary to understand how people react to change?.
- Q4 Do you agree that in order to avoid or reduce resistance to change readiness for the change is required?

#### Theme four Leaders as facilitators of change

- Q1 Has the organisation provided its employees with information about the need and necessity of the change?
- Q2 Has the current change been forced on you or do you approve and endorse the government change initiatives?
- Q3 Is the current management culture ready to deal with any change?
- Q4 Is your department paying attention for effective staff training programmes to cope with change?
- Q5 Do you see yourself as the main facilitator and/or advocator for the change?