

**Leadership styles and strategy implementation in the Department of
Trade and Industry (dti)**

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements in respect of the Doctoral Degree

Philosophiae Doctor (Business Administration)

in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
at the University of the Free State Business School

November 2017

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DECLARATION

1. "I Thirnavellie Reddy, Student Number: 2015315449 declare that the Doctoral degree research thesis that I herewith submit for the PhD in Business Administration qualification at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education."
2. "In the event of a written agreement between the University and the student, the written agreement must be submitted in lieu of the declaration by the student."

Thirnavellie Reddy

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Signature

____/____/____
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my parents for their support and for always being there for me during this journey. I am grateful and blessed to have them as my parents. I love you. I know I have made you proud.

A very special thanks goes out to Dr Tumo Kele for his support and assistance in ensuring that I completed this study despite the odds and challenges. Without your intervention this study would not have been a reality. I am sincerely grateful to you for believing in me and assisting me whenever I needed your support.

A special thanks goes out to my promoter Dr Christoffel Hendriks for his guidance, suggestions and advice and to Dr Marien Graham for her expertise and help in the statistical aspects of this research.

To the staff at the UFS Business School especially Ms Edna Cox who has always been supportive and helpful as well as to my dti colleagues who supported me in this study, a big thank you to all of you.

To all my friends and family whom I have not mentioned, but had faith in me and was there for me during this journey, thank you for your support and encouragement.

Love you all !!!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
TABLE OF CONTENTS	III
LIST OF TABLES	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES	XIII
ABSTRACT	XVII
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 OVERVIEW	1
1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH.....	2
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	3
1.4 PURPOSE STATEMENT	4
1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS (RQ).....	4
1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	5
1.7 AIM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH.....	6
1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	6
1.9 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS	7
1.9.1 <i>Limitations</i>	7
1.9.2 <i>Delimitations</i>	7
1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.11 LAYOUT OF THE STUDY	9
1.12 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	10
1.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY	10
CHAPTER TWO	11
STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 STRATEGY AS PART OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT DEFINED AND EXPLAINED	12
2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGY.....	13
2.4 AN EXPLANATION OF STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	15
2.5 STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION IN ORGANISATIONS	17
2.6 STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION VERSUS STRATEGY EXECUTION	18
2.7 IMPORTANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION.....	19

2.8	EXISTING RESEARCH ON STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION.....	21
2.8.1	<i>The factors approach in strategy implementation</i>	22
2.8.2	<i>The process approach in strategy implementation</i>	23
2.9	STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION PROBLEMS	29
2.10	STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION DRIVERS	35
2.11	THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	40
2.12	STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE	41
2.13	CHAPTER SUMMARY	49
CHAPTER THREE	51
LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	51
3.1	INTRODUCTION	51
3.2	LEADERSHIP DEFINED	52
3.3	LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT	54
3.4	LEADERSHIP THEORIES	54
3.4.1	<i>New genre leadership theories</i>	54
3.4.1.1	<i>Visionary leadership theory</i>	55
3.4.1.2	<i>Charismatic leadership theory</i>	55
3.4.1.3	<i>Transformational leadership theory</i>	57
3.4.2	<i>Emerging leadership theories</i>	59
3.4.2.1	<i>Complexity theory</i>	60
3.4.2.2	<i>Shared leadership theory</i>	60
3.4.2.3	<i>Social network theory</i>	60
3.4.2.4	<i>Upper echelon theory</i>	61
3.4.2.5	<i>Top management theory</i>	62
3.5	LEADERSHIP AND STRATEGY	63
3.6	LEADERSHIP ACTIONS AND STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	65
3.6.1	<i>Determining strategic direction</i>	65
3.6.2	<i>Establishing balanced organisational controls</i>	66
3.6.3	<i>Effectively managing the organisation's resource portfolio</i>	66
3.6.4	<i>Sustaining an effective organisational culture</i>	67
3.6.5	<i>Emphasising ethical practices</i>	68
3.7	LEADERSHIP STYLES AS PART OF STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	69
3.7.1	<i>Transformational leadership</i>	72
3.7.1.1	<i>Transformational leadership and exploration of core competencies</i>	74
3.7.2	<i>Transactional leadership</i>	75
3.7.2.1	<i>Transactional leadership and exploitation of core competencies</i>	77
3.7.3	<i>Laissez-faire leadership</i>	79

3.8	LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.....	80
3.9	SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE CONTEXT.....	83
3.9.1	<i>Powers, role and functions of National Government.....</i>	<i>85</i>
3.10	STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION SUCCESS.....	87
3.10.1	<i>Perceptions of strategy implementation.....</i>	<i>87</i>
3.10.2	<i>Performance targets of business units/ divisions against business plan.....</i>	<i>88</i>
3.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	90
CHAPTER FOUR.....		91
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....		91
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	91
4.2	RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY.....	92
4.3	RESEARCH APPROACH.....	93
4.4	RESEARCH STRATEGY.....	93
4.5	RESEARCH CHOICE.....	95
4.5.1	<i>The nature of mixed method research.....</i>	<i>95</i>
4.5.2	<i>Rationale for selecting a mixed method study.....</i>	<i>95</i>
4.5.3	<i>Selecting a mixed methods strategy of inquiry.....</i>	<i>96</i>
4.6	TIME HORIZONS.....	99
4.7	RESEARCH METHODS (TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES).....	100
4.8	MIXED METHOD SAMPLING PROCEDURE.....	100
4.9	SAMPLE FRAME AND SIZE.....	101
4.10	STUDY AREA.....	102
4.11	MIXED METHOD DATA COLLECTION AND DATA ANALYSIS.....	102
4.11.1	<i>Mixed method data collection.....</i>	<i>103</i>
4.11.2	<i>Mixed method data analysis.....</i>	<i>106</i>
4.11.3	<i>Interpretation of quantitative and qualitative results.....</i>	<i>110</i>
4.12	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	111
4.13	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	111
CHAPTER FIVE.....		112
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS.....		112
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	112
5.2.	QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS (PHASE 1 - SURVEY RESULTS).....	112
5.2.1	<i>Cronbach's alpha.....</i>	<i>112</i>
5.2.2	<i>Demographic data.....</i>	<i>113</i>
5.2.3	<i>Frequency distributions of Likert-type questions.....</i>	<i>117</i>
5.2.4	<i>Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).....</i>	<i>117</i>

5.2.5	<i>Leadership styles</i>	118
5.2.6	<i>Exploration and exploitation of core competencies</i>	131
5.2.7	<i>Strategy implementation</i>	137
5.2.8	<i>Drivers for strategy implementation</i>	142
5.2.9	<i>Problems and obstacles to strategy implementation</i>	145
5.3	PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS FROM PHASE 1 TO INFORM PHASE 2	152
5.4	QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS (PHASE 2 - INTERVIEW RESULTS)	155
5.4.1	<i>Leadership styles</i>	156
5.4.2	<i>Exploration and exploitation of core competencies</i>	159
5.4.3	<i>Drivers for strategy implementation</i>	161
5.4.4	<i>Problems and obstacles in or with strategy implementation</i>	163
5.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY	164
CHAPTER SIX		166
INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION		166
6.1	INTRODUCTION	166
6.2	INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 1: ON COMPLETION OF THE FORMULATION OF THEIR STRATEGIC PLANS, TO WHAT EXTENT DO SENIOR MANAGERS PERCEIVE THEIR LEADERSHIP STYLES TO CONTRIBUTE TO STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION?	166
6.3	INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 2: TO WHAT EXTENT DO SENIOR MANAGERS PERCEIVE THEIR LEADERSHIP STYLE TO INFLUENCE THE EXPLORATION AND EXPLOITATION OF CORE COMPETENCIES TO ACHIEVE STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION?	170
6.4	INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS THAT SENIOR MANAGERS PERCEIVE MIGHT HELP THEM TO ACHIEVE STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION?	172
6.5	INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WHAT FACTORS DO SENIOR MANAGERS PERCEIVE TO IMPEDE OR CONTINUE TO IMPEDE THEIR PROGRESS TOWARDS STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION?	175
6.6	DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	177
6.7	IMPLICATIONS FOR SENIOR MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE	178
6.8	LIMITATIONS	179
6.9	DELIMITATIONS	179
6.10	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	180
6.11	CONCLUSION	180
REFERENCES		182
APPENDIX A: APPROVAL LETTER TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH AT THE DTI		200
APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (PHASE 1)		201

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (PHASE 2)	202
APPENDIX D: QUANTITATIVE SURVEY (PHASE 1)	203
APPENDIX E: QUALITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE (PHASE 2)	208
APPENDIX F: CRONBACH ALPHA VALUES	209
APPENDIX G: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR ALL LIKERT-TYPE QUESTIONS	210
APPENDIX H: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA)	257
APPENDIX I: CALCULATION FOR THE WEIGHTED MEANS	269
APPENDIX J: DETAILED EXPLANATION ON THE GENERATION OF THE HISTOGRAMS...	270

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Problems in strategy implementation.....	29
Table 2.2: Drivers of strategy implementation	35
Table 3.1: Spheres of the South African Government System	84
Table 3.2: Example of reporting a service delivery outcome in the South African public service	90
Table 5.1: Frequency distribution of age categories.....	113
Table 5.2: Frequency distribution of gender	114
Table 5.3: Frequency distribution of divisions.....	114
Table 5.4: Frequency distribution of current job title.....	115
Table 5.5: Frequency distribution of highest academic qualification	115
Table 5.6: Frequency distribution of completed years involved in leadership and strategy implementation in any organization.....	116
Table 5.7: Frequency distribution of the dominant public sector strategy	116
Table 5.8: Percentage and mean responses for transformational leadership	119
Table 5.9: Spearman correlations between Q6, Q7 and Q8 for transformational leadership style	120
Table 5.10: SPSS output showing Spearman correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transformational leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. leaders' job satisfaction).....	122
Table 5.11: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transformational leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o service delivery outcomes).....	122
Table 5.12: Percentage and mean responses for transactional leadership	123
Table 5.13: Spearman correlations between Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23 for transactional leadership	124
Table 5.14: SPSS output showing Spearman correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transactional leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o leaders' job satisfaction).....	126
Table 5.15: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transactional leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. service delivery outcomes).....	126
Table 5.16: Percentage and mean responses for Laissez-faire leadership	127
Table 5.17: Spearman correlations between Q28 and Q29 for Laissez-faire leadership	128
Table 5.18: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the	

hypothesis on laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. of leaders' job satisfaction)	129
Table 5.19: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. service delivery outcomes)	130
Table 5.20: Percentage and mean responses for exploration of core competencies	131
Table 5.21: Spearman correlations between Questions Q13, Q14 and Q15 for exploration of core competencies	132
Table 5.22: SPSS output for hypothesis on transformational leadership and the exploration of core competencies	134
Table 5.23: Percentage and mean responses for exploitation of core competencies	135
Table 5.24: Spearman correlations between questions Q24 and Q25 for exploration of core competencies	136
Table 5.25: SPSS output for the hypothesis testing on transactional leadership and the exploitation of core competencies	137
Table 5.26: Percentage and mean responses for strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	138
Table 5.27: Spearman correlations between questions Q30 and Q31 for strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	139
Table 5.28: Percentage and mean responses for service delivery outcomes	140
Table 5.29: Spearman correlations between questions Q32 to Q36 for service delivery outcomes	141
Table 5.30: Percentage and mean responses of drivers for strategy implementation	143
Table 5.31: Spearman correlations between questions Q38 to Q43 of drivers for strategy implementation	143
Table 5.32: Percentage and mean responses for problems with strategy implementation .	146
Table 5.33: Spearman correlations between Questions Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55 for problems with strategy implementation.....	147
Table 5.34: Percentage and mean responses for obstacles to strategy implementation	149
Table 5.35: Spearman correlations between Questions Q57 and Q59 to Q67 for obstacles experienced with strategy implementation	150
Table F1: Cronbach Alpha	209
Table G1: I talk about my most important values and beliefs (Q1)	210
Table G2: I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (Q2).....	210
Table G3: I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (Q3)	211
Table G4: I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission (Q4).....	212
Table G5: I talk optimistically about the future (Q5).....	212
Table G6: I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (Q6)	213

Table G7: I articulate a compelling vision of the future (Q7)	214
Table G8: I express confidence that goals will be achieved (Q8)	214
Table G9: I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate (Q9).....	215
Table G10: I seek differing perspectives when solving problems (Q10)	216
Table G11: I get others to look at problems from many angles (Q11)	216
Table G12: I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (Q12).....	217
Table G13: I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies (Q13).....	218
Table G14: I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies (Q14).....	218
Table G15: I encourage employees to be creative and innovative (Q15)	219
Table G16: I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort (Q16).....	220
Table G17: I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (Q17)	220
Table G18: I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (Q18)	221
Table G19: I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Q19)	222
Table G20: I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards (Q20)	222
Table G21: I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (Q21)	223
Table G22: I keep track of all mistakes (Q22)	224
Table G23: I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (Q23)	224
Table G24: I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively (Q24)	225
Table G25: I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit (Q25)	226
Table G26: I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked (Q26)	226
Table G27: I am absent when needed (Q27)	227
Table G28: I avoid making decisions (Q28)	228
Table G29: I delay to responding to urgent questions (Q29)	228
Table G30: I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q30)	230
Table G31: I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q31).....	230
Table G32: The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable (Q32).....	231
Table G33: I always achieve my business plan targets (Q33)	232
Table G34: I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time (Q34)	232
Table G35: I encourage training and development of skills sets required (Q35).....	233

Table G36: I am always within my allocated budget (Q36).....	234
Table G37: The structure of the organization (Q37)	235
Table G38: Leadership of the organization (Q37)	235
Table G39: The allocation of resources in the organisation (Q39).....	236
Table G40: The performance management system (Q40)	237
Table G41: Training and development in the organisation (Q41)	237
Table G42: Effective strategic planning processes (Q42).....	238
Table G43: We have precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43).....	239
Table G44: We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives (Q44) ..	239
Table G45: Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit (Q45)	240
Table G46: Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit (Q46).....	241
Table G47: Upward and downward communication of the organisations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate (Q47)	241
Table G48: Implementation decisions takes too long to make (Q48).....	243
Table G49: Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (Q49)	243
Table G50: Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement (Q50)	244
Table G51: The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51)	245
Table G52: Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process (Q52)	245
Table G53: Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on (Q53)	246
Table G54: We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation (Q53).....	247
Table G55: We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service (Q55)	247
Table G56: Poor or vague strategy (Q56)	249
Table G57: Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts (Q57).....	249
Table G58: Insufficient financial resources to implement strategy (Q57)	250
Table G59: Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure (Q59).....	251
Table G60: Inability to generate buy in or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (Q60)	251
Table G61: Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation (Q61).....	252

Table G62: Lack of feelings of ownership of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees (Q62)	253
Table G63: Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63)	253
Table G64: Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation (Q64).....	254
Table G65: Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions (Q65).....	255
Table G66: Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (Q66)	255
Table G67: Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67).....	256
Table H1: Missing data analysis.....	257
Table H2: Statistics for CFA and their corresponding acceptable levels	260
Table H3: Theoretical factors and corresponding items	260
Table H4: Summary of the statistics of the complete theoretical model.....	263
Table H5: Standardized regression weights for the complete theoretical model.....	264
Table H6: Summary of the statistics of the final model.....	268

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: A framework for implementing strategies in organisations.....	28
Figure 3.1: The Place of Strategy in Leadership	63
Figure 4.1: The research process "onion"	91
Figure 4.2: Decision choices for determining a mixed strategy of inquiry	97
Figure 4.3: Explanatory sequential design strategy of inquiry.....	98
Figure 4.4: Explanatory Sequential Design Model (QUAN emphasized)	99
Figure 5.1: Overall overview of transformational leadership	121
Figure 5.2: Overall overview of transactional leadership	125
Figure 5.3: Overall overview of Laissez-Faire leadership	128
Figure 5.4: A summary of the items for exploration of core competencies.....	133
Figure 5.5: A summary of the items for exploitation of core competencies	136
Figure 5.6: A summary of the items of the leaders' job satisfaction for strategy implementation.....	139
Figure 5.7: A summary of the items for service delivery outcomes.....	141
Figure 5.8: A summary of the items for drivers of strategy implementation	144
Figure 5.9: A summary of the items for problems to strategy implementation	148
Figure 5.10: A summary of the items for obstacles to strategy implementation	151
Figure G1: I talk about my most important values and beliefs (Q1)	210
Figure G2: I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (Q2)	211
Figure G3: I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (Q3)	211
Figure G4: I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission (Q4)	212
Figure G5: I talk optimistically about the future (Q5).....	213
Figure G6: I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (Q6)	213
Figure G7: I articulate a compelling vision of the future (Q7).....	214
Figure G8: I express confidence that goals will be achieved (Q8)	215
Figure G9: I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate (Q9).....	215
Figure G10: I seek differing perspectives when solving problems (Q10)	216
Figure G11: I get others to look at problems from many angles (Q11)	217
Figure G12: I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (Q12)	217
Figure G13: I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies (Q13).....	218
Figure G14: I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies (Q14).....	219
Figure G15: I encourage employees to be creative and innovative (Q15)	219
Figure G16: I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort (Q16).....	220
Figure G17: I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (Q17).....	221

Figure G18: I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (Q18)	221
Figure G19: I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Q19)	222
Figure G20: I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards (Q20)	223
Figure G21: I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (Q21)	223
Figure G22: I keep track of all mistakes (Q22)	224
Figure G23: I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (Q23).....	225
Figure G24: I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively (Q24)	225
Figure G25: I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit (Q25).....	226
Figure G 26:I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked (Q26)	227
Figure G27: I am absent when needed (Q27)	227
Figure G28: I avoid making decisions (Q28)	228
Figure G29: I delay to responding to urgent questions (Q29)	229
Figure G30: I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q30).....	230
Figure G31: I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q31)	231
Figure G32: The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable (Q32).....	231
Figure G33: I always achieve my business plan targets (Q33).....	232
Figure G34: I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time (Q34)	233
Figure G35: I encourage training and development of skills sets required (Q35).....	233
Figure G36: I am always within my allocated budget (Q36).....	234
Figure G37: The structure of the organization (Q37)	235
Figure G38: Leadership of the organization (Q38)	236
Figure G39: The allocation of resources in the organisation (Q39).....	236
Figure G40: The performance management system (Q40)	237
Figure G41: Training and development in the organisation (Q41)	238
Figure G42: Effective strategic planning processes (Q42).....	238
Figure G43: We have precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43)	239
Figure G44: We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives (Q44) .	240
Figure G45: Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit (Q45)	240
Figure G46: Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit (Q46).....	241

Figure G47: Upward and downward communication of the organisations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate (Q47)	242
Figure G48: Implementation decisions takes too long to make (Q48)	243
Figure G49: Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (Q49)	244
Figure G50: Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement (Q50)	244
Figure G51: The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51)	245
Figure G52: Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process (Q52)	246
Figure G53: Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on (Q53)	246
Figure G54: We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation (Q54)	247
Figure G55: We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service (Q55)	248
Figure G56: Poor or vague strategy (Q56)	249
Figure G57: Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts (Q57)	250
Figure G58: Insufficient financial resources to implement strategy (Q58)	250
Figure G59: Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure (Q59)	251
Figure G60: Inability to generate buy in or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (Q60).....	252
Figure G61: Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation (Q61).....	252
Figure G62: Lack of feelings of ownership of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees (Q62)	253
Figure G63: Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63)	254
Figure G64: Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation (Q64).....	254
Figure G65: Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions (Q65).....	255
Figure G66: Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (Q66).....	256
Figure G67: Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67)	256
Figure H1: CFA for the complete theoretical model.....	261

Figure H2: CFA for the final model.....	266
Figure J1: Automatically generated histogram in SPSS	272
Figure J2: Manually manipulated histogram in SPSS.....	273
Figure J3: Histogram created in Excel	274

ABSTRACT

Many organisations formulate great and unique strategies, but those strategies fail at implementation, hindering their success. Strategy implementation literature indicates that the failure rate in strategy implementation efforts is between 50% and 80%, and most failures emanate from strategy formulation (Rajasekar, 2014:169). Although strategy implementation research has attracted a significant amount of interest, the literature still remains highly uneven and dispersed throughout the overall and specific management domains, with minimal orderly research of any of the key areas pertaining to implementation success (Elbanna, Andrews and Pollanen, 2016; Elbanna, Thanos and Colak, 2014; Bossidy and Charan, 2011). Leadership and strategic management elements have been shown to become ubiquitous over the last two decades with strategy implementation becoming a critical issue for organisational success. If senior managers in the public service are to anticipate and lead successful strategy implementation adroitly to address their service delivery requirements, then there is a need to understand the extent to which their leadership styles determine the success of strategy implementation.

This study sets out to explain the relationship between the role of leadership styles as part of strategy implementation by exploring transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles at the Department of Trade and Industry (the dti) in South Africa. The aim of the study was to determine how the leadership styles of senior managers contribute to the success or failure of strategy implementation in the dti.

An explanatory sequential mixed method research design was employed in this study comprising of two phases: Phase 1 was a quantitative study followed by Phase 2, a qualitative study. Phase 1 investigated the leadership styles of senior managers to determine the effectiveness of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles as well as the interaction of these leadership styles on the leveraging of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.

Phase 2 involved conducting interviews on selected senior managers and this was followed by survey responses from Phase 1 to gain more insight and a deeper level of understanding on the role of their leadership styles and strategy implementations. Interviews were undertaken through face to face meetings with a sample of nine senior managers. The analysis and results of the quantitative and qualitative study are presented separately followed by a discussion on the interpretation of the analysis, with recommendations for consideration.

The findings of this study showed that senior managers who portrayed transformational and transactional leadership styles had a positive influence on strategy implementation and senior managers who portrayed a laissez-faire leadership style had a negative effect on strategy implementation. This indicates that a positive relationship exists between transformational and

transactional leadership styles and strategy implementation and a negative relationship exists between the laissez-faire leadership style and strategy implementation. In addition, transformational leadership had a positive influence on the exploration of core competencies while transactional leadership had a positive influence on the exploitation of core competencies.

It is therefore recommended that leadership styles be developed through leadership programmes, identifying leadership skills and recognising leadership strengths relevant for strategy implementation. It is also recommended that senior managers identify core competencies and lead core competency engagements as well as strengthen all forms of communication channels during the strategy implementation process. In addition, it is also recommended that senior managers provide the necessary leadership to drive the strategy implementation process and that they lead the process of change to achieve strategy implementation. Where concerns arise, this could be eliminated through a change management process. This study suggests that leadership styles are important for strategy implementation in any organisation and that they can be developed.

Keywords: strategy implementation, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, exploitation, exploration, public service.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Chapter 1 introduces the focus of the study and provides an overview, the background, problem statement, rationale for the study, research questions, aims, objectives, limitations, delimitations, importance and benefits of the study as well as the layout of the study. According to Coulson-Thomas (2013:33) managing the execution of strategy is an important part of management's responsibility, while Håkonsson, Burton, Obel and Lauridsen, (2012:182) indicate that is the core of the firm's activities. The success and failure of strategies are connected mostly to how they are implemented (Brinkshröder, 2014; Waweru, 2011). Many organisations formulate great and unique strategies, but those great strategies fail at implementation, hindering the success of many organisations (Rajasekar, 2014). However, the road to successful strategy implementation is full of potholes that must be negotiated (Hrebiniak, 2006:12). Research indicates that fewer than 50% of strategies formulated, are implemented (Chege, Mwenda and Wachira, 2015, Shah and Sid Nair, 2014; Azhar, Ikram, Rashid and Saqib, 2013; Mintzberg, 1994) and most failures in implementation have emanated from strategy formulation. Limited attention has been given to this area of strategic management with the strategy implementation literature remaining highly disjointed and spread with little investigation into the main topics, and this has been observed both in the general and specialised management disciplines (Elbanna, Andrews and Pollanen, 2016; Elbanna, Thanos and Colak, 2014; Bossidy and Charan, 2011). Elbanna *et al.* (2016) indicate that many researchers experience difficulties in the subject due to a lack of a successful body of literature on which to base new work. Empirical research shows that most of the challenges are caused by poor implementation or behavioural problems in the organisation (Brinkshröder, 2014). However, to be successful in strategy implementation requires undertaking tasks to support success rather than to prevent problems from taking place (Reid, Brown, McNemey and Perri, 2014:31-39).

In general this study focuses on complementing academically rigorous research and its practical applicability to a bureaucratic research setting of a South African public service entity. However, the fundamental premise for this study is based on a contingent view of leadership in which the success of strategy implementation relies on different leadership styles. In this respect the Burns (1978) typology has been selected for this study, because strategy implementation at certain times will rely on transactional leadership style and at other times it could benefit more from a transformational leadership style. In addition the Burns (1978) typology will be complemented with Bass's (1985) Full Range Leadership Model of

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles to strategy implementation. Bass's (1985) Full Range Leadership Model is one of the most empirically studied theories of leadership (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramanian, 1996). Bass suggested that these three types of leadership styles form a continuum with transformational leaders being the most active and effective leadership style, while the laissez-faire leadership style is the least effective and transactional leadership style is a combination of both. The laissez-faire leadership style involves laziness, complacency, lack of commitment and there is an avoidance of responsibility. This leadership style is also considered anarchic and lacks leadership (Northouse, 2010; Bradford and Lippitt, 1945). In this study transformational and transactional leadership styles will be contrasted with laissez-faire leadership to determine if there is an absence of leadership.

1.2 Background of the research

The research setting for this study is the Department of Trade and Industry (the dti), a public service entity at the national level in South Africa. The dti is responsible for ensuring the achievement of specific outcomes as mandated in the electoral process through the signing of a delivery agreement called the "International Cooperation Trade and Security Cluster (ICTS) Delivery Agreement." This agreement is a service delivery charter that is negotiated and reflects the departments' commitment in the direct delivery process. This involves the dti's commitment to deliver on its mandate whilst ensuring that the department works together by undertaking activities effectively and producing outputs on time that have been mutually agreed so that specific outcomes are achieved. The delivery agreement is signed by the Minister of the department with the President of the country and is accompanied by a Program of Action (PoA). In the PoA the department details its strategic priorities, outputs, targets, indicators and the key activities necessary to achieve its outcomes. This process is reviewed annually to assess progress and is monitored and evaluated by the Minister in the Presidency responsible for Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME).

In order for the Department of Trade and Industry (the dti) to achieve its outcomes, this can only be realised through sound leadership, with well-designed and aligned departmental strategies and strategies that are implementable to ensure that the vision and objectives of the delivery agreement meet its strategic priorities. As a result senior managers at the Department of Trade and Industry are responsible for showing the way through their strategies, instilling shared values in pursuit of its vision, goals and its purpose as set out.

Therefore there is a critical need for senior managers who are responsible for strategy implementation to not only develop strategies for pursuing visions and attaining support for

those visions and strategies, but who also appreciate public service value and exhibit commitment to utilising them to implement strategy and service delivery outcomes (Poister, 2010:5253).

Given the possible factors contributing to the failure of strategy implementation, therefore examining the relationship between the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation at the dti will not only provide insight into role of leadership styles, but will also provide opportunity to gain a better understanding. This will also provide insight into the real challenges senior managers experience in achieving strategy implementation. Research indicates that strategy implementation is one of the most difficult tasks to accomplish in the strategic management process, even with the formulation of the best strategies through sophisticated processes, however it still often fails and this “happens during the implementation of the strategic plan” (Kazmi, 2008:1564). In the public service, strategic management is defined as “the appropriate integration of planning and implementation across an organisation in an on-going way to enhance the fulfilment of its mission, meeting of mandates, continuous learning and sustained creation of public value” (Bryson, Berry and Yang, 2010:495). According to the researchers, strategic management is seen as a common practice in the public sector, prompted by reforms at all levels of government.

1.3 Problem statement and rationale for the study

The strategic objectives at the Department of Trade and Industry (the dti) are to accelerate manufacturing growth through the promotion of industrial development, job creation, investment and exports as well as to strengthen its capacity to deliver on its mandate (dti Strategic Plan: 2015-2020). Within this context seven strategic programmes have been identified forming seven divisions with chief directorates and directorates. Each division, its chief directorates and directorates are all responsible for developing their own respective strategies to meet the strategic objectives of the dti. As a result many strategies are being formulated across divisions. The dti has strategic management processes in place and holds regular strategic planning sessions and workshops to assist divisions with strategy development and strategy implementation. Despite the many efforts and the significant investment made in strategic planning, time and resources, implementation of some strategies still remains a challenge in the dti. Most senior managers are able to successfully formulate their strategies yet not all are able to successfully implement their strategies. The dti Annual Performance Report (2014-2015) indicates that a total amount of R15,4 million was redirected between various divisions to meet its strategic objectives and 57% of its strategic objectives have still not been met. The progress on some of the dti’s strategic outcome oriented goals reflects “under achievement” or “are not implemented” (dti Annual Performance Report: 2014-

2015). Accordingly the Management Performance Assessment Tool (MPAT) released by the South African Presidency in September 2013, indicated that 80% of its national government departments have not complied with its strategic service-delivery requirements (MPAT Report, 2013). This problem will have a negative impact on the dti's commitment to produce agreed outputs for the achievement of specific strategic outcomes as set out in South Africa's Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) which is informed by the priorities of the country's electoral mandate.

Limited information exists as to why strategy implementation at the leadership level is still less understood and challenging to achieve. The need therefore arose to investigate the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation at the dti. This study has provided an opportunity to better understand how senior managers at the dti contribute to strategy implementation.

1.4 Purpose statement

The purpose of this study is to explain how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation and to understand why some have not yet managed to implement their strategies successfully. It is envisaged that through a better understanding of the role of leadership, the challenges and problems senior managers face in strategy implementation, more informed decisions can be taken. This entails giving attention to the topic of strategy implementation from a different perspective which describes the roles of different leadership styles, that is transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles, by seeking to better understand the relationship between the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation. This study will go beyond the strategy implementation-leadership style relationship and will also describe how the dimensions of strategy (i.e exploration and exploitation) of core competencies interact with the role of transactional and transformational leadership styles of senior managers at the dti to jointly lead to the success of strategy implementation.

1.5 Research questions (RQ)

In addressing the problem and purpose statement the following research questions will be investigated:

RQ1: On completion of the formulation of their strategic plans, to what extent do senior managers perceive their leadership styles to contribute to strategy implementation?

- RQ2:** To what extent do senior managers perceive their leadership style to influence the exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation?
- RQ3:** What are the most important factors that senior managers perceive might help them to achieve strategy implementation?
- RQ4:** What factors do senior managers perceive to impede or continue to impede their progress towards strategy implementation?

1.6 Research hypotheses

This study is set out to test the following research hypotheses:

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.
- H_{1a}:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation.
- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will have no effect on the exploration of core competencies.
- H_{1b}:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will positively influence the exploration of core competencies.
- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will have no influence on strategy implementation.
- H_{2a}:** Senior managers portraying a transactional leadership style will positively influence strategy implementation.
- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will have no effect on the exploitation of core competencies.
- H_{2b}:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.
- H₀:** Senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.
- H₃:** Senior managers portraying a laissez-faire leadership style will negatively influence strategy implementation.

1.7 Aim statement and objectives of the research

This study aims to investigate how the styles of leadership of senior managers contribute to strategy implementation at the dti.

In line with the research aim the objectives are:

- To investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation.
- To explore how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style contributing to the success of strategy implementation.
- To investigate the relationship between leadership styles in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.
- To explore how the leadership styles of senior managers at the dti explore and exploit core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.
- To identify factors that drive strategy implementation in the dti.
- To identify factors that impede strategy implementation in the dti.
- To make recommendations that will contribute to the successful achievement of strategy implementation in the dti.

1.8 Research Methodology

An explanatory sequential mixed method research design has been employed in this study comprising of two phases. The first phase involves a quantitative study, in which the results will be analysed and used to inform the second phase, which is the qualitative phase. The central premise for selecting this design is to better understand and find solutions for the research problem (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006). The population in this study includes all senior managers from Deputy Director Generals (DDG's), Chief Directors (CD's) and Directors in the dti. The reason for selecting the above senior managers is due to their roles, responsibilities, functions and positions in the department that give them a unique opportunity to view their leadership styles and strategic management activities. The minimum recommended sample size for this study required 116 senior managers to participate in the survey.

1.9 Limitations and delimitations

1.9.1 Limitations

All research undertaken faces limitations and this research is no exception. Herewith are some limitations that could be experienced in this study, firstly, the research will only take into consideration the role of leadership styles as a driver towards strategy implementation, other influencing drivers or variables may exist that could have influence, but will be isolated during the design of the experimental structure. Secondly, a low response and lack of confidence due to the sensitivity of information, as well as constraints in time could be expected from the target population. Thirdly, there is also a probability that senior level managers in the public service could delegate their subordinates to complete the questionnaires. Fourthly, the research is limited only to the South African Department of Trade & Industry, a public sector entity at the national level which could have an impact on the results being generalised.

1.9.2 Delimitations

Although it may be useful to understand the perceptions of middle and low level managers towards strategy implementation, these levels will not be handled in the present study. This study is confined to the examination of answers from the questionnaire that will be provided only to senior level managers, because it is the view that middle and low level managers are not involved in the initial strategy planning processes, as a result this group of managers are excluded. The main responsibility for sound leadership rests with senior managers in the organisation and with the Director General (DG) in particular in the public service.

1.10 Significance of the study

Elbanna *et al.* (2016:1037) indicated that future research should take into consideration the important determinants of strategy implementation. This study supports this call for future research and contributes to knowledge in two research domains namely leadership and strategy.

Firstly, from a leadership perspective, research indicates that poor leadership is a major obstacle to strategy implementation (Ćater and Pučko, 2010:223), but leadership is also a driver to strategy implementation (Azhar *et al.*, 2013; Ćater and Pučko, 2010; Hrebiniak, 2005). However, existing literature is silent about the role of leadership styles as part of strategy implementation. By adopting the style approach to leadership, this study will make a theoretical

contribution and extend knowledge on the role of leadership styles and explain how a leader's task behaviours and relational behaviours influence employees towards reaching goals. Stentz, Plano Clark and Matkin (2012:4) state that there is a focus on the actions of leaders targeted at strategy implementation. While most studies have focused predominantly on transformational and transactional leadership and the role of leaders in strategy formulation, little is known about the relationship of these leadership styles towards strategy implementation. Secondly, from a strategy perspective, Jansen, Vera and Crossan (2009:16) indicate that there is a need for research to explicitly connect the dimensions of strategy, that is exploration and exploitation, and test its link between transformational and transactional behaviours. While some scholars suggest top management may pursue exploration and exploitation concurrently, Volberda, Baden-Fuller and Van Den Bosch (2001:165) indicate that "top management explicitly manages the balance of exploitation and exploration by bringing in new competencies to some units while utilizing well-developed competencies in others". This study will fill a knowledge gap by merging the dimensions of strategy, that is, exploration and exploitation of core competencies within the context of leadership (transactional and transformational) to jointly lead to the achievement of strategy implementation. Leadership style has the ability to form an enabling environment that could encourage strategy implementation efforts to be successful (Radomska, 2015; Håkonsson, Burton, Obel and Lauridsen, 2012). Accordingly the research problem in this study seeks to find out, to what extent the role of leadership styles contributes to the achievement of strategy implementation. This study will further contribute to the debate on the role of transformational and transactional leadership styles and the discretion that senior managers may possess over the exploitation and exploration of core competencies to strategy implementation. This study will be of particular interest to senior managers in the dti who are faced with strategy implementation challenges, as this study will make a significant contribution by helping them to better understand the nature of strategy implementation and its importance to improving performance outcomes. In addition it will provide them with guiding principles to put into practice when dealing with leadership measures.

A methodological contribution of this study is that, most strategy implementation studies involved a proliferation of in-depth single and multiple case studies, although large surveys still predominate. Longitudinal studies are still rare, although gaining use as a method. (Hutzschenreuter and Kleindienst, 2006:702). This study attempts to combine qualitative and quantitative methods, adopting the explanatory sequential mixed methods design, by contributing to a mixed methods approach to explore the role of different leadership styles as part of strategy implementation.

This study is important to private and public organisations and persons interested in successful strategy implementation. This includes senior managers, strategists and policy formulators in organisations who should pay close attention to the nature of strategy implementation (Kohtämki, Kraus, Mäkelä and Rönkkö, 2012:172). This study is important to these groups, because of its potential contribution to: 1) better understand the importance of the role of leadership style in the strategy implementation process so that strategy implementation initiatives can be properly directed, 2) provide an effective foundation to support implementation planning interventions, 3) advance the importance of exercising different leadership styles required for strategy implementation, 4) identify the critical factors that support or impede successful strategy implementation, 5) provide guiding principles for senior managers to put into practice when dealing with leadership measures required to effect strategy implementation. If the role of leadership style in strategy implementation is ignored and neglected, organisations may find that their strategic plans may fail at implementation. Senior managers will agree that the style of leadership is critical to the achievement of strategy implementation and is beneficial to public and private organisations (Ćater and Pučko, 2010:208).

1.11 Layout of the study

Chapter 1 as explained above covered the introduction and problem statement of the study.

Chapter 2 focused on a comprehensive literature review and assessment on strategy implementation.

Chapter 3 focused on a comprehensive literature review on leadership and its relationship to strategy implementation.

Chapter 4 focused on the research methodology covering in detail the mixed method design, the selection process for participants in the qualitative and quantitative phases, and the process of data collection and analysis of the above phases.

Chapter 5 presents the data analysis and findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. A preliminary analysis of the quantitative results is also provided to inform the interview process of the qualitative phase, to gain more insight and a deeper level of understanding on the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation.

Chapter 6 is the final chapter which provides an interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative results to show how the qualitative findings helped to explain the quantitative results

by providing an in-depth understanding and insight into the quantitative results. This is then followed by a discussion of the findings and recommendations in which conclusions are drawn.

1.12 Definition of key terms

The following definitions will be used for the purposes of this research:

Strategy implementation

The concept of strategy implementation has not yet been universally defined or accepted. For the purpose of this study strategy implementation will be defined as “the communication, interpretation, adoption and enactment of strategic plans” (Andrews, Boyne, Law and Walker, 2011:644).

Public service

According to the South African Public Administration Management Act, 2014 (11 of 2014) a “**public service**” means all national departments, national government components, provincial departments which includes office of Premiers, provincial departments, provincial government components listed and its employees.

Senior manager

According to the South African Public Service Handbook (2003) a senior manager refers to employees who are on salary level 13 or higher and who form part of the Public Service Coordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC).

1.13 Chapter summary

Chapter 1 introduced the focus of the study by providing an overview, the background, problem statement, rationale for the study, research questions, aims, objectives, limitations, delimitations, importance and benefits of the study. This chapter concluded with the layout of the study and a definition of key terms that will be used throughout the study. The next chapter will examine the existing literature on strategy implementation. Discussions will be centred on the scope of strategy and the evolution of the strategic management practice which will lead to having a better understanding of strategy implementation in the context of providing a description, definition, importance, research, challenges, drivers and theoretical approaches of strategy implementation.

CHAPTER TWO

STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

2.1 Introduction

The best way to capture the state of strategy implementation is in the statement by (Okumus and Roper, 1998:14) who wrote “. . . great strategy, shame about the implementation”.

Research indicates that literature on strategy implementation remains highly disjointed and challenging throughout the general and specialised disciplines of management, with little being explored regarding the key themes, which have potential for success in strategy implementation (Elbanna *et al.*, 2016; Elbanna *et al.*, 2014; Bossidy and Charan, 2011; Noble, 1999). Strategy implementation is important in the strategic management process, and it is widely accepted that the nature of strategic planning includes strategy implementation and to implement strategy there must be strategy (Schaap, 2006:12-13). Strategies must be designed in a way to ensure that they are implementable or else the strategy itself and the planning process become meaningless. This could result in wasted expenditure, organisational objectives not being met, the success rate of strategy implementation being low and problems being experienced due to a weak strategy. In addition the implementation process tends to impact negatively on future planning activities and initiatives. Strategy implementation has been found to be critical and significant and should be given equal importance in the strategic planning process.

During the advent of the strategic management concept formal frameworks have been developed for dealing with strategy implementation, but with limited research (Pučko and Čater, 2008:307). Noble (1999:119) argues that strategy implementation lacks depth in the body of literature. To address the problems of strategy implementation some authors have called on researchers to explore and place more emphasis on the practical challenges of strategy implementation. A consistent and significant contributor to strategy implementation has been Kaplan and Norton (2008, 2005), who have made some unusual advancements in this field. They developed the balance scorecard framework and argued that the balance scorecard promotes efforts in systemising strategy implementation. They have published several recognised books on the balance scorecard. Their most sought after book called “Strategy Maps” is still being used as a globally recognised tool giving confidence to users as being sufficient enough to be adopted for effective strategy implementation (Norton and Kaplan (2008).

Hrebiniak (2005:4) in his research describes the planning/implementation relationship of strategy and points out that “still, it is obvious that the execution of strategy is not merely as clear and understood as the formulation of strategy. Much more is known about planning than doing, about strategy making than making strategy work.”

The limited research and scope of strategy implementation is also applicable to the context of this study. Currently there are no empirical studies that have been recorded to date for the South African public service, given that this sector in particular is paralysed by challenges with implementation in general and strategy implementation in specific.

This chapter examines existing literature on strategy implementation. Discussions are centred on the scope of strategy and the evolution of strategic management practice which leads to unveiling strategy implementation in the context of providing a description, definition, importance, research, challenges, drivers and theoretical approaches of strategy implementation.

2.2 Strategy as part of strategic management defined and explained

The idea of strategy originally emanated from the Greek word *strategos*, referring to an army general in command. This concept gained ground rapidly and was often applied to a skilful manager or general with talent and skills. It was sometimes applied to the power that occupied armies to destroy its opponents in order to create a united approach to universal governance (Gill, 2011:202).

In the fifties, members from the Harvard Business School introduced the strategy concept to organisational literature. Ever since, this has been associated with this area of literature. This view from Harvard on strategy has been and to date still is normative, treating strategy as a situational art through an imaginative lens by combining a number of multifaceted decisions (Snow and Hambrick, 1980:527-528). However, modern thinking around strategy and its application to business started with Alfred Chandler in the 1950's and 1960's who in contrast to the normative approach looked at strategy through a descriptive lens (Snow and Hambrick, 1980:527-528). Chandler (1962:13) defined strategy as “the determination of the long term goal and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals”.

According to Porter (1991:101) strategy involves competitive positioning in the market that is about being different and “choosing a different set of activities to deliver a unique mix of value” (Serfontein, 2010:11). “However the turbulence of today's business environment requires a

redefinition: strategy is not about position but about process – about developing processes to enable the exploitation of advantages” (Gary, 2001:1-2).

The challenging aspect of strategy involves thinking that is needed to develop a plan for times of uncertainty, ambiguity, complexity and volatility (Serfontein, 2010:12). Strategy reflects vision, purpose and core values (Gill, 2011:3). Understanding strategy in its simplest way is about how to get from where we are now to where we want to be. It is generally viewed as a posture and a plan where posture is about a fit or alignment between activities and an organisation’s structure and its environmental elements. On the other hand the common use of the word strategy or strategies basically refers to an organisation’s road map. Simply put it is considered as pursuing the organisation’s vision and purpose, the identification and exploitation of opportunities and the anticipation and response to risks (Gill, 2011:203).

2.3 Development of the concept of strategy

From the perspective of understanding the evolution of strategic management practice, a review of the strategic management literature demonstrates that this domain developed from conceptions to themes, theories, frameworks and models, to its practice in firms, organisations and industries. This was with the intention to develop an intellectual foundation to understand strategic management. Some of the key developments noted to date in strategic management represent “antecedents and earlier pioneers”; “institutional and transaction cost theory”; “evolutionary and ecological perspectives”; and “relational and alliances perspectives” (Hoskisson, Hitt, Wan and Yui, 1999:417-436).

Michael Porter, one of the leading scholars in strategy, significantly contributed to the strategy discipline, approaching it from a structural point of view. Porter (1979:21-38) in his seminal article “how competitive forces shape strategy” puts into context a framework to understand how industry is structured where he discusses the structural analysis of industries with the Five Forces Framework (FFF). This was seen as an important instrument to determine if an industry was attractive as well as its competitiveness. During this period the main aim for strategic management rested on the relationship between the firm and its environment. This view was supported by Ansoff (1991) in his school of thought, which was environment driven, emphasising that for strategy development it is important to regularly anticipate challenges that may occur in the environment ahead of time and to have strategic plans in place to address these challenges when they occur. This has resulted in differing views on strategy by scholars like Ansoff and Mintzberg which led to debates about their differing viewpoints. Mintzberg (1990a) heavily criticised the views of Ansoff by disagreeing with the notion that strategy emanates from planning and is reinforced through diagnostic tools. This critique

stemmed from the view that to rely on planning three fallacies can be encountered and these are, “events can be predicted, strategic thinking can be separated from operational management and hard data, analysis and techniques can produce novel strategies” (Ansoff, 1991:458).

Since the 1980's, research in strategy started once again to change direction by shifting from industry structure in terms of the unit of analysis to the firm's internal structure with respect to its resources and capabilities. Due to the shift in a firms' internal organisation, research was found to be moving in two areas, the first being in the direction of Transaction Cost Economics (TCE) and the second being on agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1989:64).

The reason for TCE's was to clarify the existence of firms, however from a strategy perspective, the contribution of TCE's held three views: Firstly, TCE offered a rational explanation to use multidivisional structures in large organisations. Secondly, it emphasized the connection between the multidivisional structure and the performance of the organisation, (e.g. Hoskisson *et al.*, 1991) and finally TCE's served to clarify how hybrid forms in organisations function (i.e. strategic alliances and joint ventures) serving as a conduit between the structure of the organisation and its markets (Williamson, 1991:275). Of recent TCE's have been used to justify international market entry choices. On the other hand, according to the agency theory, interests of shareholders and managers are different with regard to ownership and control in respect of present organisations. Managers in this situation focus by putting their own interests first whilst compromising shareholder interests. However, within the strategic management domain, the agency theory has found itself in areas such as diversification, innovation and governance (Eisenhardt, 1989:65).

In the 1990's focus shifted to evolutionary and ecological perspectives entailing themes on induced or autonomous strategic processes. The focus was on strategy making and centred on variation (decoupling of strategy); retention (role of top management) and selection (becoming immersed in different levels of management); the time perspective as well as the internal firm view of strategy. The internal view of strategy focused on semi-structures and links in time that was explored by emphasising the need for structured responsibilities and linking the different impacts of strategy over time through adaptation and alignment between the firm and its environment (Burgelman, 1991:239). Brown and Eisenhardt (1997:1-34) argued that the focus then shifted to the intra-organisational ecological perspective on strategy making emphasising the importance of continual adaptation and learning in a dynamic environment. Ruef (2000:658) presented the emergence of organisational forms through adaption and mutation from existing forms. Barnett and Hansen (1996:139-157) tested the Red Queen process in an attempt to understand the development of competitive forces as well as to find

out how they create adaptive and maladaptive organisations in terms of organisational learning.

The Red Queen is a model which emanates from the evolutionary theory and has a mutual causality effect a shared response considered as a reciprocal system of causality known in evolutionary theory. This theory is based on the assumption that when an organisation faces competition it is likely to respond to the competition. In addition the organisation's response to the competition is limited as it will need to first satisfy its local search and decision process. This response then results in a marginal increase in which the organisation faces competition by competitors creating further triggers to force a search and decision. This process is considered as an essential trigger to determine the success or future of competition in respect of competitive advantage (Barnett and Hansen, 1996:139-140).

Similarly, with the development of the resource-based theory on competitive advantage, the approach focused on the association between the firms' resources and its performance. (e.g. Furrer, Krug, Sudharshan and Thomas, 2004:104). From an analysis of the above mentioned theories on strategy, it shows that the interest in resource based theory as well as in business level-strategy has increased. This development has been echoed through terms used such as capabilities and alliances.

It can be concluded that the development of strategic management practice, since its inception from the 1960's to the 1990's, has been described by Hoskisson *et al.* (1999) and compared to the movement of a pendulum. The literature reviewed indicates that in strategic management, focus has shifted on industry structure from 1979 and late 1980's and returned to the internal resources of the firm in the 1990's. This demonstrates the pendulum effect of strategic management research (Hoskisson *et al.*, 1999). This development indicates that just like how a pendulum swings in and out so do firms, from an external perspective and back to the internal perspective like the metaphor used by Hoskisson *et al.* (1999:420) referred to as "the swings of a pendulum."

2.4 An explanation of strategy implementation

The implementation of strategy is key in strategic management for its wide acceptance in the nature of strategic planning which also includes strategy implementation, and to implement strategy there must be strategy (Schaap, 2012). The best strategies are meaningless if they cannot be implemented successfully (Brinkschröder, 2014). The effectiveness of strategic plans lies in the extent to which it is able to be implemented (Reid *et al.*, 2014; Shah and Sid Nair, 2014). In addition to this it can be said that it is more sensible to implement a simple and

basic strategy effectively than to destroy a world class strategy by a weak implementation process. Research indicates that less than 50% of strategies developed in fact fail at implementation and this is caused at the development stage of strategy (Chege *et al.*, 2015; Shah and Sid Nair, 2014; Azhar *et al.*, 2013; Mintzberg, 1994). This often results in wasteful expenditure, organisational objectives not being met, the success rate of strategy implementation being low and problems due to a weak strategy (Brinkschröder, 2014; Voola and O'Cass, 2010). These failures in the implementation process negatively impact on the future planning of activities and initiatives (Radomska, 2015:78).

Strategy implementation is considered critical to organisational success (Hrebiniak, 2005:3) and its significance should be elevated in the strategic planning process. During the advent of the strategic management concept, formal frameworks have been developed to deal with strategy implementation, but it has not yet attracted much research attention (Ćater and Pučko, 2010). The relationship between planning and implementation is well explained and articulated by the well-known strategy implementation guru Hrebiniak (2005:4) who is a leading author in strategy implementation, stated that “still, it is obvious that the execution of strategy is not merely as clear and well understood as the formulation of strategy. Much more is known about planning than doing, and about strategy making than making strategy work.” This indicates that not much progress has been made in the area of the strategy implementation process.

Generally both in practice and in academia there is a view that the implementation of strategy impacts organisational performance in a positive way (Brinkschröder, 2014; Hrebiniak, 2006) with strategy implementation being critical and essential to the success of organisations (Shah and Sid Nair, 2014; Brinkschröder, 2014). In organisations where strategies are a challenge to implement, successful strategy implementation places such organisations at an advantage to compete (Voola and O'Cass, 2010:248). The process of strategy is not solely dependent on the right strategy, but also on the successful implementation thereof (Coulson-Thomas, 2013).

The strategy implementation literature is sparse on studies on the impact, influence or relationship between the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation. Various studies have analysed the influence of transformational leadership styles on organisational performance through constructs such as entrepreneurship, innovation, culture, knowledge management, middle management, human capital and absorptive capacity (García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo and Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2012:1040). In addition strategy implementation studies have not examined the role of transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation; however most of these studies have followed the leader follower dyadic. Relatedly, the styles of leadership

are connected to measures that are effective, such as satisfied employees and improved fiscal performance (Lowe *et al.*, 1996).

Previous conceptual strategy implementation studies explored different leadership styles to strategy formulation and implementation (for example Hickson, Miller and Wilson, 2003; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). These models illustrated a range of leadership styles to strategy implementation in organisations; however they differ both in the variables that they consider, and the terms that they use. For example Hickson *et al.* (2003) used the terms planned and prioritised. Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984) examined and termed five (5) general leadership styles in strategy implementation, which they termed the commander model, the change model, the collaborative model, the cultural model and the crecive model. Thompson (2000:46-68) categorised leadership styles with a rational approach on the one hand and incremental approach on the other hand. A rational leadership style focuses on centralised control, which uses formal means and implementation are sequential activities. The incremental approach focuses on decentralising responsibilities with a looser distinction between formulation and implementation (Andrews, Boyne, and Walker, 2012). Håkonsson *et al.* (2012) examined how and when executive leadership style affects strategy implementation, through exploring two dimensions describing strategy, which is through exploration and exploitation. Within these two dimensions the Miles, Snow, Meyer and Coleman (1978:546-562) typology was applied which included four strategy types, that is the defender, reactor, prospector and analyser.

2.5 Strategy implementation in organisations

Strategy implementation has been defined from various perspectives and currently “there is no universally accepted definition of strategy implementation” (Li, Gouhui and Eppler, 2010: 4). The term has been synonymously used with the word “strategy execution”, however from the review of the literature the word strategy implementation has been widely used by most authors and researchers. Very few researchers have used the term strategy execution and in this study the researcher will adopt and use the term strategy implementation to describe this aspect of the research due to its widely accepted usage in the literature. According to Kaplan and Norton (2008:151) strategy execution is a matter of “alignment and execution of both strategic initiatives and process improvement programs. Hrebiniak and Joyce (1984:np) defined strategy implementation as a “series of interventions concerning organisational structures, key personnel, actions and control systems designed to control performance with respect to desired ends.” Floyd and Woolridge (1992:np) points out that “strategy implementation is the managerial interventions that align organisational action with strategic

intention.” (Andrew *et al.*, 2011:644) defined strategy implementation as “the communication, interpretation, adoption and enactment of strategic plans”.

Wheelen and Hunger (2006:214) emphasises that strategy implementation is “the totality of activities and choices (decisions) required for the execution of a strategy.” The authors describe strategy implementation as a systematic process or a logical set of connected activities ensuring that an organisations strategy works. On the other hand a study by Li *et al.* (2010:4-6) describes and identifies three perspectives of strategy implementation from a host of definitions that they have compiled. The first is the process perspective which views strategy implementation as a series of actions that is followed sequentially in steps. The second is the behavioural perspective that examines actions according to behaviours. The final perspective is the hybrid perspective which is a combination of the process and behavioural perspective.

From the numerous definitions very few researchers have defined strategy implementation from an external environment perspective. With the numerous definitions strategy implementation can be seen as a complex and dynamic process made up of decisions with a set of actions and involves putting an organisations strategy into practice and executing its plans to steer the organisation in the right direction. In this study strategy implementation in organisations has been defined as “the communication, interpretation, adoption and enactment of strategic plans” (Andrews *et al.*, 2011:644).

2.6 Strategy implementation versus strategy execution

The concepts of strategy implementation and strategy execution have been used interchangeably in the strategic management literature however, the researcher argues that they are two different concepts. To better understand the difference between strategy implementation and strategy execution, it is important to understand the meanings of execution and implementation. According to the Oxford dictionary (1994) “execution” involves performing or carrying out a plan, function or operation and “implementation” involves carrying out a decision.

The literature review indicates that strategy implementation involves a process in which policies and strategies are actioned and developed through procedures, budgets and programmes. Strategy implementation is considered successful when the organisation is able to meet its strategic and financial performance targets and is progressive in achieving management’s strategic vision (Thompson, Strickland, Gamble and Jain, 2010). This process can result in changes within the overall culture, structure, and/or management system of the entire organisation.

On the other hand strategy execution is “a systematic process of rigorously discussing how’s and what’s tenaciously following through and ensuring accountability” (Bossidy and Charan 2011:3). According to Thompson *et al.* (2010:4) strategy execution normally means putting the relevant skills in place and allocating resources to support critical activities identified by the strategic requirements. It also requires that policies and procedures are supportive of the strategic objectives. In all of this, systems must also support the critical strategic objectives. This include information and administration systems. Lastly, the organisational culture must be aligned with strategic priorities by insuring that rewards and incentives are tied to the achievement of strategic objectives.

Research indicates that 90% of organisations fail to execute their strategies successfully (Morgan, Malek and Levitt, 2008). Strategy execution is critical in building capable organisations and when the right implementation levers are used the development of the organisation becomes an important turning point (Crittenden and Crittenden, 2008:302). Execution is equally important as is strategy implementation within the strategic management discipline, at the same time recognising that it is an issue that is still challenging to address even to this day (Bossidy and Charan, 2011).

Hrebiniak (2005:5) argued that strategy implementation is difficult to achieve and if management wishes to develop best practiced execution skills they must be able to accept a new strategic mind-set. In addition to this debate, Martin (2010:64-71) argued that organisations often find themselves in an “execution trap”, that is the inability to execute a well-designed strategy. These studies are typical of the view of researchers, regarding the failure to implement strategies as mainly resulting from poor management of implementation, lack of communication, lack of commitment to the strategy and misalignment of the organisational structure and culture with the strategic objectives.

This study emphasises that strategy implementation and strategy execution are different, in that strategy implementation deals with making resources available and setting up plans for execution and strategy execution involves the enactment of plans and the utilisation of resources.

2.7 Importance and effectiveness of strategy implementation

The best strategies are meaningless if they cannot be implemented (Okumus, 2003). In addition to this it can be said that it is more sensible to implement a simple and basic strategy effectively than to destroy a world class strategy by a weak implementation process. To implement strategy effectively it must be action oriented to ensure that the organisations’

objectives, strategies and policies are put into action by developing procedures, setting policies and having a budget (Wheelen and Hunger, 2011:282). It has been found that fewer than half of all strategies drafted are not implemented (Mintzberg, 1994; Hambrick and Canella, 1989) and every failure of implementation is a failure in strategy formulation.

Although strategy implementation research is a neglected domain, few researchers have attempted developing frameworks (Miller, 1997; Okumus, 2001; Hrebiniak, 2005; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). Other researchers looked at implementation by evaluating individual factors that impact the implementation process by studying middle managers (Guth and MacMillan, 1986) or tactics used in implementation (Nutt 1986). In all these studies, researchers have found that the critical factor to effective strategy implementation lies in internal communication. Communication has been found to be an important theme for effective strategy implementation (Martin, 2010). Okumus (2003:877) viewed communication through a strategy implementation lens and defined it as “the mechanisms that send formal and informal messages about the new strategy.” It therefore becomes important to understand the strategic intent as well as the organisation’s strategy as this indicates that there is a need for appropriate and continuous communication. However it is also crucial to ensure that when a strategy is translated into action, the roles and responsibilities must be clearly communicated and understood. “Failing to communicate the organisation’s strategic direction to all the employees is likely to lead to misinterpretation of strategic intents, which might cause a strategy execution failure” (Salih and Doll, 2013:35).

In addition Thompson *et al.* (2010) identified eight critical tasks for successful implementation of strategy. They can be summarised as follows:

- i) “Building an organisation with competencies, capabilities, and resource strengths to implement strategy successfully”;
- ii) “Budgeting sufficient financial resources and people behind the drive for strategy implementation”;
- iii) “Instituting policies and procedures that facilitate rather than impede strategy implementation”;
- iv) “Adoption of best practices and moving for continuous improvement in how value chain activities are performed”;
- v) “Installing information and operating systems that enable company personnel to carry out their strategic roles proficiently”;
- vi) “Tying rewards directly to the achievement of strategic and financial targets and to good strategy implementation”;
- vii) “Instilling a corporate culture that promotes good strategy implementation”; and

- viii) “Exercising strong leadership to drive implementation forward, and continuously monitoring its details of implementation to achieve operating excellence as quick as possible”.

Thompson *et al.* (2010) indicate that the eight critical tasks depend on how well managers perform them as it has a decisive impact on whether the outcomes are a success or a colossal failure or something in between. However the authors suggest that in devising an action agenda for implementing strategy, the place for managers is to start with assessing and probing on what the organisation must do differently and better to carry out its strategy successfully and thereafter consideration must be taken to accurately make the necessary internal changes as quickly as possible.

2.8 Existing research on strategy implementation

There is clear evidence that the implementation of strategy plays an intrinsic part in the task of strategic management and is considered a dimension of this process. This indicates that strategy implementation is distinct and different from strategy formulation but cannot be separated from each other. Freedman, Tregoe and Ryan (2005:109) point out that in order to succeed in the facilitation of effective strategy implementation, top management teams must acknowledge the importance of strategy implementation when formulating strategy. Campbell and Garnett (2000:181) explain that strategy formulation and control that ignores problems associated with implementation runs the risk of being ineffective.

Research on strategy implementation indicates that it is a neglected area in strategy development and very few scholars have attempted to develop strategy implementation frameworks to broaden this area of strategic management (Okumus, 2001; Miller, 1997; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). Although some researchers looked at implementation by evaluating individual factors impacting the implementation process and studied the role of middle managers (Guth and MacMillan, 1986) as well as tactics used in implementation. It is still widely recognised that strategy Implementation is difficult to achieve and a number of hurdles confront and hamper the implementation of strategy (Blahová and Knápková, 2011:61).

From the existing literature researched, evidence shows that strategy implementation has been viewed from an eclectic approach in which authors have adopted different methods according to their setting and context. The literature reviewed also indicates that most of the strategy implementation research has been towards the execution process with limited focus on linking strategy implementation with strategic performance outcomes.

Two distinct strategy implementation approaches have been identified in the literature. The first approach has leaned towards factors and the second towards processes. These two approaches were further divided into sub-factors and sub-processes contextualised towards successful strategy implementation (Li *et al.*, 2010; Noble, 1999; Skivington and Daft, 1991). A common thread that runs between these two approaches is that strategy implementation is viewed through the lens of finding solutions to deal with either barriers, challenges or obstacles in order to achieve successful strategy implementation. Although much attention has been paid to the obvious aspects of implementation, little focus has been directed to the activities or processes related to strategy implementation.

2.8.1 The factors approach in strategy implementation

The factors approach has dominated the strategy implementation research with attempts to address issues related to success and failures. This approach has failed to look at how these factors interact with each other during implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006). Under the factors approach empirical research addressed specific factors and looked at a constellation of factors related to strategy implementation success or failure. The factors approach included structural factors (Hebriniak, 2006), interpersonal-behavioural factors (Nutt, 1986; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984) which also included barriers (Skivington and Daft, 1991; Hambrick and Cannella; 1989; Alexander, 1985).

Structural factors looked at organisational structure, strategy content, authority, incentive mechanisms, control and monitoring as key elements to successful implementation (Hrebiniak, 2005). These factors suggest a top down approach towards strategy implementation that involves top management, middle management and lower management (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984). Concerns have been centred on leadership in relation to organisational structure and alignment, considered important for achieving strategy implementation. The structural factors seem to have excluded the interaction of the human element.

Interpersonal factors involved top leadership concerns, strategic consensus building, organisational communication and resource allocation (Hambrick and Cannella, 1989). In this respect the focus of strategy implementation has been on power and influence of top level leaders where strategy implementation is driven and dictated by their approaches. The barriers which have consumed most of the strategy implementation literature, explored the obstacles that have impeded strategy implementation success and provided possible solutions to deal with them. These factors placed emphasis on the organisation, communication channels and on levels of motivation to enact the implementation process of strategies. It also involved having an understanding of the different individual behaviours and the assertiveness of

management to support the strategy implementation process. It further required top management and middle management to influence and adopt tactics to drive the strategy implementation process to success. Skivington and Daft (1991) suggested that with communication there is a need for a common understanding of information which is required to take place across all levels of the organisation. Currently communication takes place informally and horizontally in organizations which leads to misinterpretation of information, leaving individuals with different interpretations and understandings of information (Hrebiniak, 2006). It has been noted that interpersonal behavioural factors fail to provide answers to achieve the fit between structure and strategy, coordination and control and this could hamper implementation efforts and success.

On factors relating to barriers, the strategy implementation research focused mainly on identifying barriers through exploratory studies from different organisational contexts. The barriers approach focused on identifying potential problems and obstacles that have been inhibiting the achievement of successful strategy implementation. There has been a consistent repetition of the barriers and problems in most of the studies like Alexander (1985), Al Ghamdi (1998) and Hrebiniak (2006) with limited solutions to address the identified barriers pertinent to strategy implementation. This has led, even to date, with limited insights on how implementation contributes to organisational performance. It further lacks insights in relation to strategic management theories, which could influence how these barriers can be exacerbated to becoming effective and efficient.

2.8.2 The process approach in strategy implementation

The process approach viewed strategy implementation from the perspective of conceptualisations within the strategic management domain (Hutschenreuter and Kleindienst, 2006:698). In an attempt to find a distinction between strategy implementation and the strategy management process, some authors like Jarzabkowski (2008); Hrebiniak (2005) and Mintzberg (1987) expressed different views on strategy implementation and the strategic management process. Jarzabkowski (2008) and Hrebiniak (2005) viewed strategy implementation as an important decision making factor. On the other hand Mintzberg (1978) combined formulation and implementation arguing that they include different actions and decisions in the strategic management process. The literature reviewed indicates that strategy implementation has been viewed from two perspectives. The first being as part of the wider strategic management process and the second as being an issue of process types. The assumption of whether strategy implementation falls under the strategic management process or under process types is still unclear, as it presents a contradiction in the literature among other contradictions to formulation versus content versus process. In the process approach the

main focus areas included the rational process, the incremental/emergent process (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993; Mintzberg and Waters, 1985) and the contingency process approach (Hart, 1992; Jarzabkowski, 2008) as discussed next.

In the rational process strategy formulation is followed by implementation and depends on the success of strategy implementation on the role of top management while execution is delegated to employees at lower levels within the organisation (Olson, Slater and Hult, 2005:49-65). This reflects the traditional strategic management process in which formulation comes first and then implementation follows which has been strongly argued for and supported by Ansoff (1965). The rational perspective considers implementation as involving planning by senior or upper management and the roll out of plans or execution by employees at middle management and below (Joyce, 2005). Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984) suggest that in order for implementation to proceed, plans are needed, indicating that in the strategy process, formulation is followed by implementation which makes for sound logic. The rational approach also views strategic decision making as a precursor to strategic planning. Although the rational approach has been faced with much criticism from Mintzberg's (1990) emergent view for being based on simple assumptions of rationalism, this was strongly supported and defended by Hrebiniak (2005) who argued that implementation cannot take place without understanding what to implement and that formulation is critical to understand what to plan and implement.

The emergent process suggests that strategy formulation and implementation are interconnected within a wider strategy process and are considered to be different to the types of strategic processes (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985). Mintzberg and Waters (1985) argued that these processes cannot be dealt with separately as strategy formulation involves formulation and implementation. In this process it is viewed that the line of thinking and its actions share some level of commonality. This approach indicates that no planning is involved, no logical sequence is followed and organisations make decisions as they see fit (Pettigrew, 2003: 302). In addition Mintzberg and Waters (1985) and Quinn (1988) argued that it is not an easy process; it's less fashionable and illogical to look at formulation and implementation as separate processes because there is no clear distinction between the two. Strategy formation included the process of formulation and implementation and there is no clarity as to what implementation constitutes or how to determine its success.

The incrementalists posit that employees in an organisation first decide on what action to take and then change their strategy accordingly as and when needed (Whittington, 2007). Incrementalists further view formulation of strategy as being inherently linked with implementation of strategy. However, there is no clarity on the roles and functions of the different actors in the formulation-implementation process which to date still remains unclear

(Whittington, 2007). It therefore becomes important to better understand and gain clarity regarding the organisation and its strategy implementation when operating from the incremental or emergent strategy. Without this clarity, it challenges the setting of strategic goals and the black boxes of strategy implementation. Therefore there is a need for strategy implementation to provide more clarity on the linkages between formulation and implementation, as it stands the literature is currently vague about points of decisions, actions and strategic consensus. There is a need for strategy implementation research to extend focus more on an organisation's approach and process to seek clarity between formulation, implementation and organisational performance.

According to Wooldridge, Schmid and Floyd (2008) the emergent approach is vague, unclear in respect of strategy and its practice, and there is a paucity of research with limited emphasis on middle management contribution to strategy implementation. The work by Mintzberg has come under heavy criticism by Whittington (2007) on the emergent view, indicating that it provided no practical perspective to leadership and organisational behaviours at the point of emergence and this has resulted in widening the strategy implementation black box in the strategy process. The strategy implementation black box refers to an organisation understanding what strategy implementation is all about but there has no clarity as to how it would go about carrying out its broad range of activities it is intended to do (Delmas and Toffel, 2008:1042). In addition there is also no clarity on how strategy implementation plans and activities shape the organisation or impact on strategy implementation (Hutzschenreuter and Kleindienst, 2006).

The contingency process focuses on patterns in the strategy implementation process and alerts for any eventualities that may arise Jarzwakowski (2008). However the contingency stream has not been fully favoured to support the rational or emergent views in the strategy development process (Hrebiniak, 2005; Mintzberg, 1978) as it rejects the idea of a universally accepted implementation process (Bossidy and Charan, 2011). Implementation has been the major hindrance regarding strategic management. Mintzberg (1994) emphasised that most strategies formulated never gets implemented and organisations have been unsuccessful when it came to implementation. Moreover in some implementation problems where there is an emergent consensus, this has been observed in communication, performance indicators, the role of middle managers, and the role of strategic control systems (Goshal and Bartlett, 1995).

From the contingency oriented view, researchers have focused on looking at different implementation processes and patterns while identifying contingencies to take into account in achieving strategy implementation (Andersen, 2004; Hutzschenreuter and Kleindienst, 2006).

This process looked at a single strategy process type either rational, emergent or a mix of both with different approaches dependent on its context. According to Hrebiniak (2005) and Mintzberg (1978) the contingency approach provides no support to the rational or emergent processes. This approach has also been criticised in that it does not show any support for a holistic or universal strategic implementation process (Bossidy and Charan, 2002). Even at the process level contingencies were limited when compared to the factors related contingencies. The strategic processes reflected organisational contexts and behaviours of strategists (Pettigrew, 1992). Govindarajan (1988:828-853) argued that it is important to identify contingencies as it is extremely critical for strategy implementation activities and its success thereof, especially in respect of large organisations. He further indicated that it is important to ensure that administrative processes and systems are aligned with the organisations' competitive strategy in respect of differentiation and low cost strategies.

Research by Hart (1992, 327-351) identified a range of modes for strategy formulation which focused on roles, functions and the interfacing of top management and other employees to define the terms for decision making. The focus of this study was on decision making for strategy formulation to help tasks for middle managers. Hart (1992) argued on a rational approach to implementation by identifying the roles and responsibilities of middle managers to enact the strategy implementation process. Pettigrew and Whipp (1993) suggested that firms should begin with strategic intentions and change their strategies incrementally as implementation progresses. These researchers further identified implementation as a sub process to the broader strategic process focusing on change and strategy making.

Andersen (2004) adopted an integrated approach to the strategy formulation process in his research and argued that it was more effective for the development of strategy as well as for organisational performance especially during highly turbulent times when compared to the emergent approach. Although the work by Andersen (2004) lacked sufficient detail regarding the different patterns of strategy formulation and implementation, it showed support for the process approaches. On the other hand, Jarzabkowski (2008) suggested that integrating different approaches during strategy formulation and implementation through procedural provisions and collaborative efforts assist in implementation success. She further suggested that there is a need for continuity and change at a strategic level which call for top management styles and behaviours to be given attention and there is a need for strategising to help achieve strategy implementation. The work of Jarzabkowski (2008) focused mainly on upper management whilst identifying contingency processes, leadership and management behaviours. There is definitely a need for more exploration in these areas to be accommodated in future strategy implementation research efforts to better understand strategy implementation in the strategy process. From the literature reviewed there is clear evidence that strategy

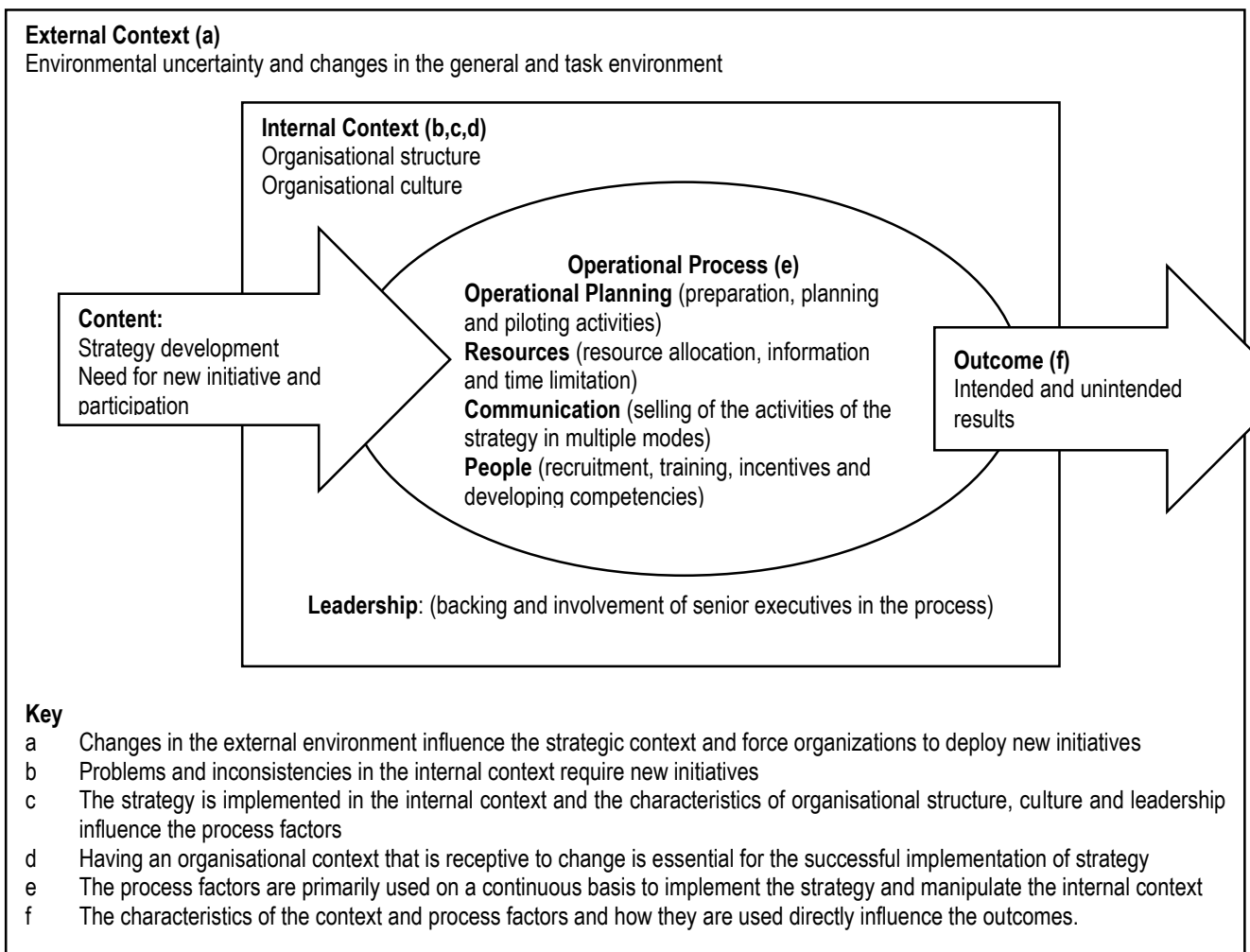
implementation is the responsibility of middle managers with limited scope as to the role, functions and involvement of top management in this process.

Literature reviewed on the various strategy implementation approaches researched, demonstrates that there has been a lack of attention to this area in strategic management practice. It is clear that there is a need for more research and analysis on strategy implementation to define its characteristics and its impact on organisational performance. The importance afforded to operational and tactical issues has clearly been reduced and has become a phenomenon. The research focus on strategy implementation needs to be more distinct and should be based on practical realities. The strategy implementation approaches found in the literature offer many different conceptualisations of strategy in respect of the rational, emergent and contingency approaches which further complicate the understanding of what strategy implementation is all about. Floyd and Woolridge (1992) indicate that the rational approach still remains the most dominant approach in strategic management and provides clear distinction between formulation and implementation of strategy.

Overall the literature on strategy implementation approaches has provided a broad perspective to the strategy implementation approaches but has showed little attention to the dynamics around processes and variations in patterns within different organisational contexts. A more important observation from the existing literature is the lack of attention given to the linkages between patterns of strategy implementation within varying organisational contexts as well as to organisational performance. Therefore this area of strategic management requires more development and research to unbundle the black boxes of strategy implementation.

Several other frameworks and models have also been developed over the years to induce better strategy implementation. The framework developed by Okumus (2003) to date, still seems to be the most comprehensive framework currently found in the strategy implementation literature. Although not meant to be all inclusive, the framework serves to provide direction to stimulate the thinking of executives that face problems or obstacles with implementing strategies. Okumus (2003:876) argued that implementing a strategic decision must be suitable and coherent between the strategy and its accompanying variables and that is its: strategic content (how and why strategy is initiated), environmental context (the degree of uncertainty and changes in the task and general environments of the organisation), organisational context (to the configuration of organisational structure, culture and leadership), organisational process and strategic outcome (the configuration of operational planning, resource allocation, people, communication, control and feedback and outcome), as well as between all variables themselves. Figure 2.1 is an illustration of the strategy implementation framework developed by Okumus (2003).

Figure 2.1: A framework for implementing strategies in organisations



Source: Okumus (2003:876)

Another approach to strategy implementation is the leadership context which involves the influence of leaders to rollout strategy. One of the main problems faced under this factor is lack of coordination, procedures and guidelines (Hrebiniak, 2005). Kaplan and Norton (2005) suggest that this problem can be exacerbated by the use of strategy maps which link strategy to implementation plans that enable better planning and organising. In addition to the organisational contextual variables, it is important to realise that the success of implementation depends on strategic planning (Ćater and Pučko, 2010). In this respect leadership is critical in translating a strategy into action. Specifically senior managers at the top are responsible for setting and giving direction to the organisation's strategy formulation, implementation, control, monitoring and evaluation processes and "ultimately, the successful transition from formulation to implementation depends on leadership" (Freedman and Tregoe, 2005:111).

2.9 Strategy implementation problems

Many organisations formulate great and unique strategies, but those great strategies fail at implementation, hindering the success of many organisations. Strategy implementation literature indicates that between 50% and 80% of strategy implementation efforts fail (Rajasekar, 2014:169). Although strategy implementation research has attracted a significant amount of interest, the literature still remains highly disjointed and challenging throughout the general and specialized disciplines of management, with little being explored on the key themes which has potential for success in strategy implementation (Elbanna *et al.*, 2016; Elbanna *et al.*, 2014; Bossidy and Charan, 2011). It is important to note at the outset that the strategy implementation literature has focused primarily on strategic content and long term planning with limited attention being paid to strategy implementation, of which not much has been written or researched. The reason for the limited attention and focus is that the subject area is less fashionable and academics have underestimated the challenges in researching this subject, with the view that it lacks conceptual models (Okumus, 2003). Table 2.1 represents the different problems identified in strategy implementation drawn from prior and recent empirical research studies.

Table 2.1: Problems in strategy implementation

Author	Strategy Implementation Problems														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Alexander (1985)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•					
Al Ghamdi (1998)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•					
Reed and Buckley (1998)		•	•										•		
Beer and Eisenstat (2000)		•	•	•			•		•			•			
Hrebiniak (2005)			•	•					•	•	•			•	•
Cocks (2010)		•													
Blahová and Knápková (2011)								•	•						•
Kohtamäki et.al (2012)												•			
1. Time 2. Communication 3. Coordination 4. Lack of skills and capabilities 5. Poor decision making			6. Poor problem solving 7. Inadequate training and development 8. Uncontrollable external factors 9. Lack of leadership 10. Unclear roles and responsibilities						11. Lack of monitoring and evaluation 12. Lack of commitment 13. Lack of Alignment 14. Inadequate organisational structure 15. Lack of Strategic planning						

Source: Author's synthesis of the literature

Given the above synthesis of strategy implementation problems, this indicates that the problems mainly involve the difficulties organisations experience in achieving the objectives of their strategic plans due to certain inhibiting factors that prevent implementation plans to be carried out.

A recent study by Salih and Doll (2013) found that one of the problems they uncovered was ineffective management of change and stated that “management change is a complex process because of the interconnectedness of causes and consequences” (Salih and Doll, 2013:36). According to Freedman and Tregoe (2003:117) “top teams should know that reluctance or incompetence in crafting the process for implementing strategic change is the single and most reliable predictor of its failure.”

A study by Alexander (1985:92) identified the most common problems associated with strategy implementation as follows:

- Implementation took more time than it was originally allocated;
- Major problems that had not been identified previously appeared during implementation;
- Coordination of implementation activities was ineffective;
- Competing activities and crises stopped decisions being implemented;
- Employee capability was low and inadequate;
- Insufficient training to lower-level employees;
- Risks from the external environment were not considered and had a major influence on implementation;
- Leadership and direction across organisational business units were inadequate;
- Roles and responsibilities were not clearly determined; and
- Inadequate monitoring mechanisms for implementation.

Insufficient levels of leadership, direction and training provided to lower level employees’ (Alexander, 1985:92) were found to be a major problem. The author also emphasised that employees lacked the requisite skills and capabilities and were inefficient in achieving strategy implementation. The study by Alexander (1985) was replicated by Al Ghamdi (1998) with the purpose to determine if the same implementation problems still occurred almost two decades later. The study by Al Ghamdi (1998:322-327) confirmed that highly successful organisations tend to encounter fewer problems with implementation in comparison to organisations with a lower success rate. It was further emphasised that communication is a key factor, complemented with management support and reliable information systems to ensure the success of strategy implementation processes. The findings reveal that 92% of an organisation’s implementation takes up a considerable amount of time more than initially planned for and most of the problems were found in weak planning processes. Problems related to coordination effectiveness were found in 75% of the cases and 83% in cases concerning interruptions arising from conflicting activities. From the observations it has been noted that these studies displayed similarities to the study undertaken by Alexander (1985).

Ghamdi's research indicates that little has changed nor has lessons been learnt and "the drama still continues" (Al Ghamdi, 1998:322).

In a study done by Reed and Buckley (1988:67-74) three areas were identified that linked strategy implementation problems. These included the lack of communication, lack of alignment between strategy and structure and inefficient co-ordination. They argued that in order to address these problems there is a need for alignment between the organisation's strategy and structure.

Beer and Eisenstat (2000:29-40) in their study examined the strengths and barriers to effective strategy implementation in which they pursued a process to include senior management. Their study identified "six silent killers" to effective strategy implementation and indicated that in order to neutralise the "six silent killers" they should be offset with six core capabilities to achieve sustainable strategy implementation. These "six silent killers" include:

- "Ineffective senior management team";
- "Top down or laissez-faire senior management style";
- "Unclear strategies and conflicting priorities";
- "Poor vertical communication";
- "Poor co-ordination across boundaries"; and
- "Inadequate down the line leadership skills".

Hrebiniak (2005) a significant contributor to the obstacles of effective strategy implementation in organisations, and notably one of his surveys which focused on the obstacles of effective strategy by assessing various factors that positively and negatively impact on strategy implementation was the Wharton-Gartner survey. In this survey 243 managers were assessed. The Wharton Gartner survey showed that employees do not understand the contributions of their jobs to significant implementation results and bureaucracy in the implementation process; therefore fruitless expenditure occurs and decisions are laboured impacting on implementation and the response is slow to competitive pressures. A subsequent study was undertaken by Hrebiniak (2005) at the Wharton Executive Education who assessed 200 managers. This study revealed numerous obstacles to effective strategy implementation. After assessing the two studies (Hrebiniak, 2005:22) concluded that there are eight major obstacles to effective strategy implementation and they include:

- "development of a model to guide the decisions and actions of strategy implementation";
- "to fully comprehend the relationship between strategy formulation and strategy implementation and its effects";

- “effective management of change”;
- “understanding power and influence and making use of it during strategy implementations; development of organisational structures to promote and encourage the sharing of information”;
- “accountability and responsibility”;
- “development of control and feedback mechanisms”;
- “the know-how of forming a supportive implementation culture”; and
- “practicing an implementation biased leadership”.

Although studies by (Cock, 2010; Blahova and Knapkova, 2011 and Kohtamaki *et al.* 2012) have made attempts to address the problems of strategy implementation, little has been achieved and the same problems still persist even today more than two decades later. The three most common and recurring problems found to impede strategy implementation efforts include communication, coordination and lack of leadership. It is apparent from the above studies that effective strategy implementation is faced with many problems and there is no clear approach, methodology or process that clearly indicates how to combat or minimise the obstacles that accompany it. Although strategy implementation is a key component of the strategic management discipline, there is no clear cut methodology to address strategy implementation. The review of recent and prior studies also supports and indicates that the lack of leadership, communication and coordination is a major strategy implementation problem. However the least frequently occurring problem found to have emerged that should be given attention include, lack of alignment, incongruence between strategy and structure, as well as monitoring and evaluation.

From a leadership perspective, authors such as Blahová and Knápková (2011), Hrebiniak, (2005), Beer and Eisenstat (2000), Al Ghamdi (1998) and Alexander (1985) emphasised the need for leadership skills and determined in their studies that there is a mismatch of leadership styles. The authors further indicated that their studies found that leadership style is either top down or laissez-faire and this has an impeding effect on strategy implementation. Sorooshian, Norzima, Yusof and Rosnah (2010) argued that leadership styles have a considerable impact on strategy implementation. In their study they found that top executives demonstrate various leadership styles during strategy implementation. The structure of leadership is the main driver in strategy implementation (Sorooshian *et al.*, 2010, Wheelen and Hunger, 2009). This indicates that the leadership style of managers at the top has the potential to influence, delegate and make decisions concerning the elements of strategy implementation.

Another implementation technique involves the enactment of strategy. In this case, a unilateral approach will require the implementer to communicate the required behaviour and plans for

compliance. The manipulative approach highlights problems and introduces users to new ways of doing things. The delegative approach involves roping in those affected and introducing them to the implementation process (Noble, 1999:122). O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, Lapiz, and Self (2010) point out that leadership matters and their study involved leadership effectiveness at the different levels and its influence on strategic initiatives. The authors found that improved or significant performance occurs when consideration is taken of the leaders' effectiveness. The study by Cocks (2010) highlights leadership as one of the critical dimensions to effective strategy implementation which should involve having a realistic attitude, simplicity, clarity and being intuitive. Leadership should not only involve having leaders at the top but it should create leaders throughout the organisation and "effective leadership means being able to speak the language of strategy as well as the language of operations" (Cocks, 2010:264) as well as the ability to develop, receive strategic plans and filter them in a concise, clear and understandable way to all employees.

Given the different perspectives on leadership, there is a clear indication that the style of leadership can create a conducive environment and play a significant part in "successful strategy implementation efforts" (Noble, 1999:131). However "implementation demands ownership at all levels of management" (Hrebiniak, 2006:13) emphasising that implementation is a process and should not be taken as a trivial matter by management as it is an important responsibility of all managers and they must be thinking about implementation even as they are developing strategy. However, also indicating that implementation "is not the result of a single decision or action. It is a result of a series of integrated decisions or actions over time" (Hrebiniak, 2006:13).

On communication, many researchers indicated that communication plays an integral part in strategy implementation (Salih and Doll, 2013; Schaap, 2012; Cocks, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2008; Beer and Eisenstat, 2000; Alexander, 1985). Okumus (2003:877) defines communication as the "mechanisms that send formal and informal messages about the new strategy". Alexander (1985:96) indicated that "communication is needed throughout the implementation process to monitor what is actually happening, analyse how to deal with emerging problems and in deciding what modifications might be needed". Alexander (1985) points out that communication has emerged as the most commonly identified single factor promoting strategy implementation. However, "understanding the strategy and its strategic intent of an organization requires effective and continuous communication" (Salih and Doll, 2013:35) and it is the responsibility of top management to clearly communicate the organisation's strategic trajectory with its employees and to clearly define and express the roles, responsibilities and tasks that need to be performed. Cocks (2010) indicates that failing to communicate an organisation's strategic direction to its employees leads to misunderstandings and

misinterpretations of the strategic intent creating perception gaps and this has the potential to lead to implementation failure. On the other hand Reed and Buckley (1988:68) warned that budgeting systems, although an important tool for communication, have no impact on the strategy implementation because of its focus on monetary based measures.

A study by Schaap (2012) concluded that top level managers fail to effectively communicate the organisation's direction and strategy to its employees. Communication should be a two way channel to allow for questions to be solicited from employees affected by the organisation's strategy and for top management to understand their issues and problems so that they can be considered (Alexander, 1985:96). It should also include communicating the why, especially when change in tasks occur and more importantly. The thinking behind or reasons as to why new strategic decisions were made. Kotter (1995) argues that when vision is communicated to employees every communication tool and channel should be used as they are central elements in the success of any strategy.

From a broad perspective, coordination involves "a body of principles about how activities can be coordinated, that is about how actors can work together harmoniously" (Malone and Crowstone, 1990:4). The components involved in coordination involve goal identification, mapping of goals and activities, choosing actors and assigning them to activities and managing interdependencies (Mintzberg, 1979). Malone and Crowstone (1990) argued that there is a need for a better understanding as to what coordination is all about for it to be useful in organisational processes. These processes involve identifying goals, mapping goals, mapping activities, choosing actors, allocating resources, assigning activities and coordinating activities. From a decision making perspective coordination involves the proposal and evaluation of alternatives and decision on choices. However, coordination also gives prominence to interdependencies and if interdependencies do not exist, coordination becomes weak or non-existent. The kinds of coordination for managing interdependencies entails ordering activities, switching information around between activities, allocating resources, decision making and information sharing (Malone and Crowstone, 1990. Eisenstat (1993) suggests coordination between various business units, labour and management in organizations play a fundamental role in implementing strategy and this requires teamwork especially in the case where organisations have to respond to opportunities. Reed and Buckley (1988) found in their study that there has been difficulty experienced when identifying coordinated activities and targets at various levels in the organisation. In order to contribute to exacerbating the problems of strategy implementation it is important to fully understand the drivers that influence strategy implementation which is discussed next.

2.10 Strategy implementation drivers

The drivers of strategy implementation have been identified to play an important role in the strategy implementation process. They are the critical factors that determine the success or failure of an organisation's strategy. Some researchers have echoed that when strategy implementation drivers are identified correctly it has the potential to promote effectiveness and achieve the desired outcomes. "The process of execution must be dynamic and adaptive, responding to and compensating for unanticipated events" (Hrebiniak, 2006:14). The point made by Hrebiniak (2006) is critical in that implementation is a process that needs to be clearly understood, as it is not a result of a single action or decision, but a series of integrated decisions or actions over a period of time (Brinkschröder, 2014). For implementation to work, it needs a considerable amount of attention paid to it and concrete solutions to address implementation failures and challenges that arise in the process (Voola and O'Casey, 2010). The drivers of strategy implementation must therefore be aligned to the strategies in the organisation, although difficult to achieve, alignment must take place between the strategies that have been formulated and strategies that must be implemented (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2004:181). Table 2.2 provides an illustration of the linkage between the viewpoint of different authors and elements of strategy implementation drivers.

Table 2.2: Drivers of strategy implementation

Authors	Strategy Implementation Drivers													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Hrebiniak and Joyce (1984)	•	•	•	•										
Pettigrew and Whipp (1993)		•	•		•	•	•							
Skivington and Daft (1991)	•	•	•			•	•							
Miller (1997)	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•				
Al Ghamdi (1998)			•			•	•	•		•				
Okumus (2003)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				
Birbaum (2007)		•		•					•		•			
Crittenden and Crittenden (2008)										•				
Hrebiniak (2005, 2008)		•			•					•		•		
O'Reilly et.al (2010)											•			
Čater and Pučko (2010)				•					•	•				•
Salih and Doll (2013)							•				•	•		
1. Formulation 2. Structure 3. People 4. Control, Monitoring and Evaluation 5. Culture	6. Resource Allocation 7. Communication 8. Environment 9. Operational/action/planning 10. Leadership						11. Alignment 12. Change management 13. Project Management 14. Organising							

Source: Author's synthesis of literature

Table 2.2 portrays a broad spectrum of strategy implementation drivers found in the strategy implementation texts. Some of the variables that have played a major role in strategy

implementation include formulation, structure, people, control, monitoring and evaluation, resource allocation, communication, planning and leadership. It was also found that most of the studies undertaken have been in the American and European context or setting, with limited empirical studies recorded to address strategy implementation in the African context.

Drivers of strategy implementation form an important part of the strategy implementation process. When identified correctly these drivers promote effectiveness and achieve the desired outcomes. "The process of execution must be dynamic and adaptive, responding to and compensating for unanticipated events" (Hrebiniak, 2006:14). The point made by Hrebiniak (2006) is critical in that implementation is a process that needs to be clearly understood, as it is not a result of a single action or decision, but a series of integrated decisions or actions over a period of time. For implementation to work, it needs a considerable amount of attention paid to it and concrete solutions to address implementation failures and challenges that arise in the process. Within this context the drivers of strategy implementation must therefore be aligned to the strategies in the organization. Although difficult to achieve, alignment must take place between the strategies that have been formulated and strategies that must be implemented (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2004:181).

Skivington and Daft (1991:50) in their research identified "structural" drivers and "human" drivers of strategy implementation. The structural drivers include organisational structure and resource allocation while human drivers include organisational culture, functional tactics and policies.

Organisational structure is a framework that charts the roles and responsibilities required for the implementation of strategy, taking into account the reporting lines in the organisation, its policies, procedures, decision making mechanisms and authority. This responsibility lies with top management to ensure there is alignment between the organisation's strategy and its structure in an effort to ensure strategy implementation succeeds. This alignment is a key feature for effective strategy implementation and it therefore becomes crucial that the selection of the right strategy is harmonised with the right organisational structure (Fourie, 2010:40).

Resource allocation involves an organisation's financial resource, physical resources, human resources and technological resources. Resource allocation is critical to strategy implementation and if inappropriately allocated or misaligned to the organisation's strategy, this can result in major losses and the inability to meet its objectives. When a change in strategy takes place, this often requires resources to be reallocated to ensure that new strategic objectives are aligned, supported and realised (David, 2001:245).

Human drivers involve an organisation's intangible assets. Kaplan and Norton (2004:4) categorised intangible assets into three categories which are "human capital (knowledge, skills and values); information capital (systems, databases and networks) and organizational capital (culture leadership and the alignment of goals and rewards with the strategy and knowledge sharing)". Of all the human drivers, organisational capital is most suitable and commonly regarded as a key driver for strategy implementation.

Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984:590-598) explored strategy implementation from a management practice perspective and concluded that strategy implementation can be classified into five distinct process approaches. That is the commander model, change model, collaborative model, cultural model and the crecive model. The commander model has similar characteristics to the traditional approach of strategy implementation with regards to strategic planning and policy. It focuses on the strategically held position that assists top managers in navigating to ensure organisational success. This approach is considered biased as it focuses on centralised direction. The change model focuses primarily on strategy implementation from an organisational structure aspect to the compensation of incentives as well as the control systems perspective. The collaborative model deals with making decisions at top management level and their commitment in the formulation stage.

Given that it requires consideration to be taken from various inputs to make a decision and this results in a negotiated outcome of the strategy, this involves collaboration. The cultural model deals with implementing strategy and integrating the organisation's culture into the entire organisation. In this approach low-level employees are given the opportunity to provide their views in providing strategic direction in which they are able to instil a set of values and improve their work related behaviour. The final model called the crecive model, involves examining the organisation's strategic concerns and it draws on managers' natural abilities and instincts to develop new opportunities as they encounter them in daily management responsibilities and suggests that in the crecive model strategy emerges in an almost implemented form from within the organisation.

Pučko and Čater (2008:312) in their study found key determinants for strategy implementation effectiveness and suggest that these determinants are important as they influence effective strategy implementation:

- 1) "planning activities (establishing operating objectives, programmes, projects, annual plans and budgets)";
- 2) "organizing (establishing primary and operating structures, coordinating and integrating)";
- 3) "staffing (recruiting, dismissing, transferring and training employees)";

- 4) “leading (information sharing, knowledge transfer, communicating, action planning, management by objectives, total quality management, motivating, balanced scored card)” and;
- 5) “controlling (strategic maps and balance score-card, performance management)”.

On the other hand, Wheelen and Hunger (2006:216) suggest that strategy implementation activities should include:

- a) People from all levels in the organisation should hold responsibilities for strategy execution;
- b) Development of procedures, programmes and budgets;
- c) Organising and coordination of strategy implementation;
- d) Staffing (matching managers and employees with the strategy); and
- e) Providing leadership to employees through coaching to maximize skills and experience to realise the objectives of the organisation (also including planning, Management by Objectives (MBO) and Total Quality Management (TQM) when leading.)

Organisational design for strategy implementation was initially highlighted by Lorange (1998:18-29) who explained that when a strategy is initially formulated and designed, the organisational design process should be linked to operational and implementation plans. The author indicated that the critical variables for organisational design to be considered should include the tasks, structure, information and decision processes, the reward system and its people and that all these variables contribute to internal consistency and a fit if the organisation’s strategy is to be achieved.

Hrebiniak and Joyce (1984) built on the ideas of Lorange (1998) and developed a more streamlined model of these critical variables of strategy implementation and argued that planning and organisational design are the two interdependent basic activities for strategy implementation, citing that a well-crafted strategy is the first and most important element in the implementation process. Hrebiniak (2005) recognised that in strategy implementation four organisational contextual variables are important, those are: the change management context, organisational culture, organisational structure and the leadership context. The author indicated that these variables are interconnected and has an effect on each other, and when aligned result in positive effective strategy implementation.

Change management was found to be the most difficult and critical to implement as well as a major challenge and menace to strategy implementation. It involves managing people, changing mind-sets and the structure in organisations. Organisational culture was referred to

the “shared values, attitudes and norms of behaviour that create the propensity for individuals in an organisation to act in certain ways” (Pučko and Čater, 2008:313) with trust being the major cultural hindrance (Hrebiniak, 2005) impacting strategy implementation. This hindrance has been attributed to the lack of information sharing between divisions and business units in an organisation. Organisational power structure involved the influence of decisions and the decision making processes in strategy implementation. Hrebiniak (2006, 2005) argued that even the best strategies fail if implementation plans are unable to meet and address challenging organisational and political dilemmas that present themselves as obstacles to strategy implementation. In this case strategy implementers must ensure those responsible for undertaking strategy implementation activities commit and implement their responsibilities (Hrebiniak, 2005). The leadership context which involved the skills of the leader that is necessary to roll out a strategy, and one of the main problems faced under this variable, is lack of coordination, procedures and guidelines (Hrebiniak, 2005). Norton and Kaplan (2006) suggest that this problem can be exacerbated by the use of strategy maps which link strategy to implementation plans that enable better planning and organising for strategy implementation. In addition to the organisational contextual variables, it is important to realise that the success of implementation depends on strategic planning and strategic analysis (Pučko and Čater, 2008:317).

Birbaum (2007) viewed strategy implementation in organisations as including: action planning, organisational structure, human resources, tactical planning, control, evaluation and creating alignment of all activities within the organisation. The study by Jooste and Fourie (2009) on strategic leadership perceptions of South African business organisations revealed that implementation was considered a priority and given more importance than strategy formulation and strategic leadership in effective strategy implementation. Leadership is critical in translating a strategy into action and results (Fourie, 2007:46). Several authors are in support of leadership being critical to strategy implementation, especially top managers, as they are responsible for setting and giving direction to the organisation’s strategy formulation, implementation, control monitoring and evaluation. According to Freedman and Tregoe (2005:111) the successful transition from formulation to implementation ultimately depends on leadership.

The literature review indicates that more research still needs to be undertaken to guide strategy implementation efforts and there is a need for more strategy implementation models, frameworks and empirical research. As much as the above indicates a comprehensive list of strategy implementation drivers, they raise many questions: How to approach and handle relevant strategy implementation drivers? Are all these drivers relevant or are some relevant while the others are not? Are there different cases or contexts regarding the relevance and

application of the different strategy implementation drivers? Which drivers are critical or should new drivers be added because of the different contexts? Following is a discussion on the different theoretical approaches in strategy implementation.

2.11 Theoretical approaches to strategy implementation

Research indicates that strategy implementation research is more prescriptive and lacks a sound theoretical base. Skivington and Daft (1991) indicated that research on strategy implementation is more conceptual and prescriptive in nature and focuses more on how strategy should be implemented. Although the prescriptive literature offers good ideas for strategy implementation, it is based more on logic rather than on data to support the use of specific guidelines and recommendations (Nutt, 1986). Given the prescriptive nature of strategy implementation, it lacks theoretical development or a sound theoretical underpinning. In the context of strategy implementation frameworks, focus was more towards developing logical arguments that has limited grounding in practice. Several reasons were noted to have contributed to this, one of which is that strategy implementation is highly complex in nature (Wernham, 1985). General frameworks are theoretical and normative and often too complex to be operationalised, and researchers have encountered difficulties using these frameworks for empirical verification or to observe managers due to the unavailability of valid measurement tools (Chebat, 1999:108).

As a result numerous theories have been borrowed and adapted from other disciplines such as psychology, sociology and from organisational studies for the potential use in the area of implementation studies. This was mainly done to achieve enhanced understanding and explanation of implementation. This has created the emergence of different theoretical approaches to conducting strategy implementation research and many researchers have expressed their difficulties in trying to choose the most appropriate theoretical lens to follow.

Implementation research tended to be directed more towards the development of theoretical approaches based on understanding and explaining “how” and “why” implementation succeeds or fails. According to (Nilsen, 2015:53) these approaches have been premised on three overarching aims. The first aim was to describe and/or guide the process of translating research into practice through the development of process models. Process models were developed to address barriers and drivers, to translate research into practice. These models` have failed to identify or to systematically structure specific elements related to strategy implementation and has contributed to the lack of theory development in implementation research making it difficult to understand and explain how and why implementation succeeds or fails (Ćater and Pučko, 2010). It has further hindered opportunities to identify factors that

predict the likelihood of implementation success as well as the development of better strategies to achieve successful implementation. In addition these models have focused mainly on predicting and analysing what factors influence implementation outcomes and have not specified the mechanisms for change (Cane, O'Connor and Michie, 2012:37).

The second aim was to understand and explain what influences implementation outcomes through determinant theories, classic theories and implementation theories. The determinant theories focused and described general types of determinants that influence strategy implementation outcomes which are hypothesized (e.g. behavioural change). The type of determinant comprised of barriers and drivers and was considered as independent variables that impact implementation outcomes. The classic theories involved the application of various theories from other fields such as psychology, sociology and organisational theory and discerned from research to practice models. The implementation theories followed a multidisciplinary approach, it involved borrowing and adapting from other existing theories and concepts wherein certain features were developed and modified. Through this process the researcher is able to prioritise aspects considered to be most critical to analyse issues related to the how and why of strategy implementation with the purpose of improving the relevance and appropriateness of the particular circumstance at hand (Nilsen, 2015:4-7).

The third aim was to evaluate implementation through the development of evaluation frameworks. Evaluation frameworks focus on providing structure for the evaluation of endeavours and are considered a category that is independent and with its own theories, models and frameworks (Nilsen, 2015:8).

2.12 Strategy implementation in the public service

Strategy implementation in the public sector is and still continues to be one of the most pressing challenges faced today. Although governments have responded to these concerns by formulating new strategies and guiding principles, no substantial success has yet been achieved or documented in research. Many researchers noted that implementing strategies is more difficult than formulating strategies and, it is this area of management where organisations do not succeed (Hrebiniak, 2006). According to Bryson, Crosby and Bryson (2009) there has been an increase in the use of strategy management models, similar to those traditionally used in the business corporations, in the public sector.

A study by Andrews *et al.* (2011:643-671) on strategy implementation in the public service examined organisational implementation styles and its consequences to performance. Andrews *et al.* (2011) argued that by incorporating strategic orientation of the organization to

organizational implementation styles improves public service performance. According to Andrews *et al.* (2011) implementation styles matter only when combined with strategic choices and individual implementation styles, be it rational, incremental or a no clear approach, else it will have no direct effect on performance. The study by Andrews *et al.* (2011) suggests that public organisations need to strike a balance between strategy and implementation and work towards achieving the right fit between strategic orientation and its implementation style to help overcome their implementation challenges.

Research on strategy implementation in the public service has been limited. The focus has been mainly on policy implementation insights (e. g. O'Toole, 2000); and change management (Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron, 2001). Few empirical studies linked implementation practices to public sector performance. More research is required to guide public service strategy implementation efforts with a focus on strategy implementation models, frameworks and empirical studies. Overall strategy implementation is important but difficult, as implementation of activities takes more time than formulation which also involves more people. The tasks at hand are much more complex, which results in the need for sequential and simultaneous thinking on the part of managers responsible for implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006).

The research on strategy implementation has also been noted to be difficult as it involves assessing research over a period of time accompanied by conceptual and methodological challenges as it involves the use of a number of variables that interact with each other to show reciprocal causality. It has been observed that the avenue of implementation is often not given the necessary attention in strategic management literature. Research that has been published indicates dominance in strategy formulation. Formulation and implementation of strategy are complementary and are logically separate areas in strategic management, however they are elements of the overall planning, execution and adaptation process.

There has been a strong focus of implementation research undertaken in organisational theory and development rather than in strategic management. Therefore implementation research needs to be interdisciplinary and the importance of implementation can be estimated from the research of Joyce (2005) indicating that organisations with exceptional high performance and organisations which recovered from underperforming relied upon key activities of strategic direction. This also included building an agile and effective organisation, establishing an adaptive culture and focusing on the needs and cost of customers (Hrebiniak, 2006).

Lawrence Hrebiniak, who is regarded internationally as a most prominent author in strategy implementation argues that the formulating of strategy is hard, however making it work is even

harder. The same view has been maintained in various empirical studies indicating that the relationship between the formulation and implementation of strategy is weak (Ćater and Pučko, 2010; Salih and Doll, 2013; Dimitrios *et al.*, 2013).

Hrebiniak (2008, 2006) and Gurkov (2009) further argued that well developed plans die when implementers are unable to deal with obstacles in the organisation which blocks successful strategy implementation. Therefore there is a need for strategy executors to ensure employees diligently undertake all implementation activities to succeed in the implementation process. Therefore direction by top managers to support and to be actively involved becomes important and crucial (Brenes, Mena and Molina, 2008). Those that hold top positions who do not care about or defy strategy execution jeopardise the process of implementation (Hrebiniak, 2005). It is evident from the existing literature reviewed that a lot more research needs to be undertaken in the field of strategy implementation. The research undertaken so far is not very encouraging and has attracted very little academic attention. Given the limited research, scope and fragmentation in the strategy implementation field, there is still a wide gap that exists in the strategy implementation literature that is being witnessed (Noble, 1999).

Existing research by Skivington and Daft (1991) indicates that it is important to have a set of drivers to support strategy implementation which need to be distinguished from structural and human drivers. However, they raise several questions such as “How to approach and handle relevant strategy implementation drivers?”; “Are all these drivers relevant or are there some that are relevant while the others are not?”; “Are there different cases or contexts regarding the relevance and application of the different strategy implementation drivers?” and “Which drivers are critical or should new drivers be added because of the different contexts?”. Within this context research indicates that organisational alignment and strategic planning were considered the most important and relevant structural drivers, while coordination, communication, organisational commitment, organisational empowerment and change management were the most relevant human drivers essential for public service settings. The rationale behind differentiating structural drivers from human drivers is that leaders enact strategic decisions and adjust the structural aspects of the organisation in respect of the reporting relationships and control mechanisms (Noble, 1999). In addition to the enactment of strategic decisions, human drivers become salient as leaders make efforts to understand and respond to strategic initiatives (Skivington and Daft, 1991).

A central challenge for public organisations is the achievement of internal alignment to enact successful strategy implementation (Andrews, Boyne, Meier, O’ Toole and Walker, 2012:78). Alignment has been a central construct in the strategic management field for many decades - and there is a presumption that organisational performance is improved when there is

alignment and under performance results when there is a misalignment (Joshi, Kathuria and Porth, 2003). The literature review reveals two categories of alignment. The first category of alignment is organisational alignment which focuses on strategy, structure and culture to create an environment to facilitate the achievement of the organisation's goals. This alignment assists in promoting efficiency, cooperation and performance in the internal environment to eliminate obstacles that occur internally. There are two main types of organisational alignments noted, namely horizontal and vertical alignment. Vertical alignment involves alignment of a strategy from a management level which then is cascaded to other organisational divisions and business units. Horizontal alignment involves the cross-departmental or intra-departmental integration. The second category of alignment is known as the process alignment which serves to synergise the various processes and activities to achieve common goals. Process alignment focuses on creating structural and strategic alignment. Structural alignment creates linkages between business units and divisions to ensure coherence with each other while strategic alignment creates external-internal alignment (Kwanroengjai, Liu, Tan and Sun, 2014).

Moore (1995) indicates that alignment should serve to create public value and should be premised on coordination and cooperation brought to the process of realising strategies. Alignment requires "consistency between actions of those involved in the implementation process and strategy" (Salih and Doll, 2013:35). It is important to understand and be aware of the behaviours regarding strategic objectives to achieve alignment with strategy (Van Riel, Berens and Dijkstra, 2009). Joshi *et al.* (2003) argued that alignment is not only important for developing strategies but it is also for achieving strategy implementation and the success of strategy implementation is dependent on aligning an organisation's systems, processes, and decisions with its reward systems, information systems, resource allocations and culture with the organisation's objectives and priorities. Micheli, Mura and Agliati (2011) examined issues relating to alignment and strategy implementation and suggested that in order to achieve alignment and strategy implementation it should be linked to a performance measurement system.

O'Reilly *et al.* (2010) took a different perspective on alignment by studying the alignment of leaders in the strategy implementation process. The authors argued that alignment and misalignment of leaders have the potential influence strategy implementation of strategic initiatives. Their study found that only when leaders are aggregately effective at different levels does significant strategy implementation performance occur. In essence organisational alignment is dependent on creating synergies through an all-encompassing set of alignments that will involve the organisation's leadership, strategies, structure, systems, processes,

resources and its internal and external environment to achieve successful organisational performance.

The strategic planning process is an important contributor to strategy implementation and is important for the public sector (Dimitrios, Sakas and Vlachos, 2013:276) but has barely penetrated the collective consciousness of the public sector resulting in limited strategic planning (Eadie, 1983). The framework developed by Okumus (2003) indicates that planning is part of the strategic process and a key component of strategy implementation. This process helps organisations to define its strategy, direction, allocation of resources (Dimitrios *et al.*, 2013:276) and its implementation processes. The authors further indicate that the important components for strategic planning are mission, vision, values and strategy.

Eadie (1983:447-452) suggests that public sector leaders should view strategic planning as a multi-year process that expands gradually as the organisation gains experience and becomes capable; incorporate strategic planning initiatives into broader framework of planning improvements with a planning strategy, and ensure that the strategic planning application is carefully considered that includes having a clear game plan with clearly defined outcomes, methodology, schedule and responsibilities. Brumm and Drury (2013) note that it is critical to plan the direction when leading and leaders should know how to plan strategically to achieve goals and lead followers.

According to the strategic leadership theory it has been indicated that strategic planning activities are viewed as critical components to help understand how top executives influence organisational outcomes (Brumm and Drury, 2013:18).

On the other hand, research by Čater and Pučko (2010) identified various planning activities relevant to strategy implementation. These include formulating and implementing development programmes, planning and implementing projects, using efficient annual planning systems and applying action planning. Moreover, Birbaum (2007) indicates that the development of detailed action plans that chronologically list the action steps and indicate the specific employees' responsibility for accomplishing each step result in successful strategy implementation.

Even though the discussions of strategic planning seem to be gaining momentum in the public sector especially in the context of public service reforms, there is still a general consensus that more needs to be addressed in respect of strategic planning to achieve successful strategy implementation performance, see for instance Brumm and Dury (2013) and Elenkov, Judge and Wright (2005). It has also been recognised that leaders are pivotal to strategic planning but there is little empirical data to support this notion.

Coordination has also been considered important for public service improvement to achieve success in strategy implementation. In a broad sense coordination refers to “a body of principles about how activities can be coordinated, that is about how actors can work together harmoniously” (Malone and Crowstone, 1990:358). Malone and Crowstone (1990:87-119) argued that there is a need for a better understanding as to what coordination is all about for it to be useful in organisational processes. These processes involve goal identification, selecting actors, assigning activities, allocating resources and harmonising activities (Malone and Crowstone, 1990). From a decision making perspective coordination involves the proposal and evaluation of alternatives and deciding on choices. However, coordination also gives prominence to interdependencies and if interdependencies do not exist, coordination becomes weak or non-existent. Eisenstat (1993) suggests that coordination between various business units, labour and management in organisations play a fundamental role in implementing strategy and this requires teamwork especially in the case where organizations have to respond to opportunities. Reed and Buckley (1988) found in their study that there has been difficulty experienced when identifying coordinated activities and targets at various levels in the organisation.

Various researchers like (Salih and Doll, 2013; Schaap, 2012; Cocks, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2008; Beer and Einstat, 2000; Alexander, 1985) have also indicated that communication plays an integral part in strategy implementation and that it is critical for the public sector but difficult to achieve. Alexander (1985:96) indicated that in the implementation process communication plays an important part in keeping track as to what is actually happening, analysing how to address emerging problems as well as assisting in deciding what modifications is required.

Alexander (1985) points out that communication has emerged as the most commonly identified single factor promoting strategy implementation. An attempt to understand the organisation’s strategy and its strategic intent requires effective and continuous communication and it is the responsibility of top management to clearly communicate with its employees the direction the organisation is about as well as clearly defining and expressing roles responsibilities and tasks that need to be performed (Salih and Doll, 2013:35). Cocks (2010) indicates that failing to communicate an organisations strategic direction to its employees leads to misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the strategic intents creating perception gaps and this has the potential to lead to implementation failure.

Communication should be a two way channel to allow for questions to be solicited from employees affected by the organizations strategy and for top management to understand their issues and problems so that they can be considered (Alexander, 1985:96). It should also include communicating the why, especially when a change in tasks occurs and more

importantly the thinking behind or reasons as to why new strategic decisions were made. Kotter (1995) argues that when vision is communicated to employees every communication tool and channel should be used as they are central elements in the success of any strategy.

Research by Hopkins, Mallette and Hopkins (2013:80) indicates that commitment in any organisation is perceived as the rewards employees receive in relation to their performance. This means that employees perceive that their job performance to be equal to the rewards they receive in return for performance. Although it should be that their commitment should be greater than the rewards they receive (Hopkins *et al.*, 2013:80). Commitment has taken on various definitions in the past emanating from the exchange theory. From a management perspective Cooper and Schindler (2006) defined commitment to involve employees engaging in and maintaining behaviours to help achieve organisational and individual goals. From an organisational perspective (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974:603) defined commitment as a deep seated belief in the goals of the organization. Commitment is viewed as an enabler to quicker strategy implementation and has the ability to improve the strategy environment fit and organisational performance (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974). Therefore the leaders' commitment to strategy implementation will depend on achieving the organisation's set goals.

On the other hand, organisational empowerment has been widely adopted in the public sector in the form of programmes to improve organisational performance. It has been observed that employees who are empowered find innovative solutions of rectifying service delivery errors and redesign work processes to improve performance (Fernandez and Moldogaziev, 2012:1). Empowerment has predominately been linked to the private sector, so was job satisfaction and organisational commitment, but over the years it has gained interest in the public sector amongst public sector reformers (Wise, 2002).

Researchers have made progress in trying to understand the organisational empowerment construct but little consensus has been reached on understanding what empowerment really means (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). In this respect two separate perspectives to understand empowerment were introduced, namely the managerial perspective and the psychological perspective. The managerial perspective viewed empowerment as a relational construct and described how those with power in organisations (i.e. managers and leaders) share power with those that lack it (i.e. employees). This perspective was found by scholars to be a narrow characterisation of empowerment which led to further developments of the construct that involved more than simply sharing authority with employees which looked at empowerment as a psychological construct (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). The psychological construct viewed

empowerment from a motivational aspect and looked at the internal cognitive state characterised by feelings of efficacy (Conger and Kanungo, 1998).

Many scholars have since attempted to analyse the growing use of empowerment in organisations and the literature clearly indicates that there are divergent notions of what constitutes empowerment which have spurred debates about whether empowerment is relational or motivational. In order to avoid the morass of the debates, this study will treat organisational empowerment as both complementary pieces of the empowerment puzzle. The relational aspect will represent leadership behaviours and the motivational aspect will represent the employees' cognition.

Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) suggest that empowerment should be understood as a process that involves a set of management practices (i.e. sharing authority, resources, information and rewards) that stimulates performance (i.e. effort, productivity) directly and indirectly through employee cognition (i.e. self- efficacy, motivation and job satisfaction). Given the longstanding view of the managerial perspective of empowerment which has the ability to encourage and improve performance, scholars have indicated that the psychological aspect should not be ignored because employees who are empowered are prone to perform better and exert greater efforts at their work especially when faced with adversity.

Hopkins *et al.* (2013) argued that self-determination is the foundation of empowerment and is the most critical element of this construct. The authors suggest that four components had been found in the existing literature which they identify as:

- “consistency and perseverance in activities”;
- “the courage to take risks”;
- “initiative and proactivity” and
- “the ability to voice one’s opinion”.

From an organisational perspective, self- determination involves the belief that one has independence and control over how one undertakes his or her work and those that are empowered believe that they have flexibility on how they do their work and are not micro-managed (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1999). From the existing literature on empowerment; studies have also indicated that perceived empowerment is an antecedent to organisational commitment and organisational goals (Seibert, Wang and Courtright, 2011). With respect to the public sector, numerous studies have indicated that empowerment is positively related to performance (Fernandez and Moldogaziev, 2012:155).

From the literature review on strategy implementation, it seems that research has not attempted to either theoretically or empirically examine how leadership styles (i.e. transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles) contribute to strategy implementation. Waldman, Siegel and Javidan (2006:1721) call specifically for more research that “considers a broader array of leadership components and practices”, such as transformational and transactional leadership styles, as drivers of strategy implementation. This will be the focus of the next chapter linking the relationship of leadership as a driver to strategy implementation.

According to Hrebiniak (2008) change management, although very difficult to achieve, is critical for successful strategy implementation and execution for the public service. A successful change management process will require first the development of a strategy followed by a well-designed change management process in order to effectively implement the strategy. Effective change management processes are a key component to effective strategy implementation, although it might not exacerbate all potential problems. However, it will allow organisations to continue without significant productivity losses (Latif, Gohar, Hussain and Kashif, 2013:20). The “inability to manage change effectively is seen as injurious to strategy implementation” (Hrebiniak, 2005:32) and the resistance to change will need to be confronted and dealt with in order to achieve positive execution results. The Wharton- Gartner study by Hrebiniak in 2005 found that problems with change management are a major threat to strategy implementation. This indicates that top managers should identify areas where change is needed to address potential resistance that may occur. Change management is considered fundamental in changing and managing employees as well as the structures in an organisation. Salih and Doll (2013:36) in their study found that managing change is a complex process due to its interconnectedness of causes and consequences. They indicated that a series of events unfold over time and this has an effect on the organisation’s strategy as well as on its employees. Often people resist change, resulting in making the strategy difficult to implement, however sometimes the opposite applies where people support change and are willing to contribute to new ideas for change. As a result managers responsible for the change process need to be knowledgeable, set strategic direction of the organisation and the roles and responsibilities required at the individual level (Salih and Doll, 2013:36).

2.13 Chapter summary

Chapter 2 focused on existing literature and provided an in-depth understanding and discussion on the state of strategy implementation. This included a discussion on the fit and development of strategy as part of the strategic management process and the role of strategy implementation in this process. However, the chapter focused primarily on explaining and

discussing strategy implementation from the perspective of its role in organisations, the characteristics between strategy implementation versus strategy execution, the importance and effectiveness of strategy implementation, an analysis of existing research, an analysis of the various approaches that were investigated to better understand strategy implementation, challenges, drivers and the theoretical approaches adopted in strategy implementation literature.

This chapter was concluded with a discussion of strategy implementation in the public service. The next chapter will focus on leadership as part of strategy implementation and discussions will centre on the development and theoretical perspective of leadership taking into account the relationship between leadership and strategy as well as a driver of strategy implementation.

CHAPTER THREE

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

3.1 Introduction

“Yesterday’s leadership theories are not keeping pace with the velocity of today’s descriptive market place. Organisations are seeking a new model for the age of agility”
(Deloitte-Human Capital Trends Indicators, 2013:15).

Leadership is a phenomenon that has rapidly changed over the last three decades (Vogel and Masal, 2015:2). As the world becomes increasingly complex and ambiguous, new challenges emerge that put pressure on organisations and their leaders to perform better (Van Wart, 2003:214). The focus of leadership has primarily been on small groups at lower levels with limited focus on executive leadership. In the 1970’s, there was a shift in leadership theory due to the advent of “transformational leadership models that emphasized the role of leaders producing adaptive change that generated burgeoning literature exploring the relevance of these models to public institutions trying to adapt to far reaching reforms” (Wallis and McLoughlin, 2007:329).

In this respect the public service should be taken more seriously as the increasing pace of change is a constant challenge to public service leaders (Gill, 2011:49). A unique leadership challenge currently experienced in the public service is the shift away from traditional technical and operational roles on the one hand and from advisory roles on the other to a more collaborative networked leadership role (Kenmore, 2009). Research indicates that the main challenge in the public service is poor performance due to “a lack of leadership and it is one ghost that apparently still haunts the public sector despite government attempts to exorcise it” (Gill, 2011:48). Leadership is therefore critical for the efficient and accountable functioning of the public service and deserves more attention (Vogel and Masal, 2015:2).

This chapter examines existing literature on leadership and strategy implementation. The discussions are centred on the definitions of leadership, leadership development, leadership theories and the relationship between leadership and strategy. In addition, this leads to a discussion on the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation and provides a perspective on the exploration and exploitation of core competencies of leaders in the context of leadership styles. The Department of Trade and Industry (dti) is examined as the boundary condition.

3.2 Leadership defined

The definition of effective leadership by Ingraham and Getha-Taylor (2004:95) is viewed as integral to organisational effectiveness with effective leaders creating positive organisational cultures, strengthening motivation, clarifying mission and organisational objectives and steering organisations to become more productive whilst achieving high performance outcomes. They further indicated that recent evidence shows the importance of leadership and its absence or limited presence in some public organisations are copious.

According to Gill (2011:21) leadership research focuses merely on studying and understanding the individual leader. However, according to Avolio, Walumba and Weber, (2009:422) leadership research has also expanded to understand the role of peers, followers, supervisors, work setting/context and culture. This also includes a broad array of individuals that are representative of an entire spectrum of diversity, including public, private and non-profit organisations. The emphasis is no longer on describing leadership as individual characteristics or differences, but rather it is depicted and explained through various models as dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, global as well as displaying complex social dynamics (Avolio *et al.*, 2009:423).

Within this context, leadership has been defined by many researchers and academics as an influencing process that is aimed at directing a group toward the achievement of objectives (Mosia and Veldsman, 2004:26). Leadership has also been defined as ways, in terms of traits, processes, skills, competency, a relationship and a construct. Trying to fully understand the broad complexity and multidimensional aspects of leadership is a mammoth task. However, the definitions of leadership do not seem to provide an explanation of leadership; however it seems to convey the essence of leadership from different points of view. To fully understand and express leadership it becomes important to describe leadership at a deeper level.

Burns (1978) argued that to understand leadership one should first understand the nature of power. This power was referred to as motives and resources. Leadership was explained not as a top-down problem with a clear unidirectional causality between the behaviours of leaders and followers but as a series of complex, reciprocal relationships between power and the controlling of resources. Burns (1978:19) stated that "leadership is exercised when persons mobilize institutional, political, psychological and other resources so as to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers." Over time various definitions of leadership have emerged of which some of the most relevant to the study will be discussed next.

Krause (1997:3) defined leadership as “the will to control events, the understanding to chart a course, and the power to get a job done, cooperatively using the skills and abilities of other people”.

According to Conger (1999:32), leadership involves putting in place the skill sets and processes needed to support staff to choose the right options to overcome challenges and strive to achieve the best for themselves and their organisations. Yukl (2006:8) stated that leadership entails motivating followers to grasp the requirements and agree upon a course of action. It coordinates individual and group efforts to achieve the chosen objectives.

At a strategic management point of view, Wehrich and Koontz (1993:490) explained leadership as an art and process that influence people to be enthusiastic and willing to realise the organisation’s mission. This view was supported by Maritz (2003:243) who went on to define leadership as “the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals”.

Lorsch (2010:414) defined a leadership as “an individual who influences others to follow him or her” and argued that leaders use influence obtained from different sources of power like charisma and knowledge (personal power) or the right to insist on action and the right to dispense rewards and punishments (authority).

It is clear from the above conceptions of leadership that there is no standard definition of leadership which incorporates the various scenarios that exist in contemporary organisations. Therefore leadership can be defined from different levels and various perspectives. Authors such as Avolio *et al.* (2009:423) suggest that in order to understand leadership, focus should be on what is most current in the field to seek answers to the fundamental questions of “what do we know and what should we know about leaders and leadership?”.

To better understand the purpose of leadership it is important to first understand and seek clarity of the terms leaders and leadership. This will assist to avoid the confusion that emanates from the traditional thoughts of what a leader is supposed to do or how they should behave. The existing literature indicates that a “leader” is considered to be a person that is involved in leading a specific team during a specific period whilst “leadership” involves a multidimensional style that is broad and includes a complex field of models, philosophies and styles that guide the structure and discipline of people in a group (Gill, 2011:2-10).

3.3 Leadership development

Yukl (2002) indicated that research and theory for effective leadership has been a longstanding challenge due to the varying views of researchers and academics about which behavioural categories are relevant. This has resulted in a proliferation of classifications on leader behaviour (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). The multitude varying views of researchers present even more challenges when comparisons are required and even more-so when logically synthesising findings from studies that have measured behavioural categories differently. Therefore, to fully comprehend leadership it is necessary to start from the point of its evolution. Avolio *et al.* (2009:423) suggest that in order to understand leadership, focus should be on what is most current in the field, instead of undertaking a historical review of leadership, which is already available in the Handbook of Leadership (Bass and Bass, 2008).

Following this suggestion, and given the existing literature on leadership theories, models, philosophies and styles, the focus will be on addressing leadership from three aspects. The first aspect will focus on new genre leadership theories, the second aspect will be on emerging leadership theories and the third aspect will be on providing support for leadership styles and strategy implementation and its relationship.

3.4 Leadership theories

There are a multitude of leadership theories found in the leadership domain aimed to help understand leadership. Each one is seen as a piece of the puzzle in leadership. The leadership theories discussed next focus specifically on new genre leadership theories and emerging leadership theories.

3.4.1 New genre leadership theories

According to Boal and Hooijberg (2001:525) vision, charisma and transformation are central to new leadership theories. This field of leadership theories emphasises and embodies leadership behaviours, vision, messages of inspiration, feelings of emotion, ideology, morals and values, individual attention and stimulation of the intellect. Within the domain of these new leadership theories, the most common and popular leadership styles that stand out are charismatic and transformational leadership in which continuous research has been undertaken over the last two decades (Avolio *et al.*, 2009:428).

Avolio *et al.* (2009:428) point out that charismatic and transformational leaders focus on the followers' aspirations and trigger their high order values (e.g. altruism). When this happens

a follower is able to identify with the leader's mission and vision, whilst at the same time feeling more comfortable and confident about the work. This leads to the follower performing his/her functions beyond what is normally expected of them.

3.4.1.1 Visionary leadership theory

Visionary leadership has emerged as an important and relatively under emphasised aspect of leadership research (Elenkov *et al.*, 2005:668). Senge (1997:47) stated that "visionary leadership starts with the principle of creative tension." Creative tension involves leadership having sight of the organisation (vision) and being honest about where the organisation is currently (current reality). The gap between the two generates a natural tension. Both components are essential in creating this tension, which can be resolved in two basic ways. The first is by raising the current reality towards the vision and secondly by lowering the vision towards the current reality (Senge, 1997). In addition, Charlton (1992:50) indicated that the central purpose of the organisation is provided by its vision and this assists employees with unbridled clarity of what is expected of them.

Sashkin and Rosenbach (1998) view visionary leadership as involved in transforming an organisations' culture in line with the leaders' vision of the organisations' future. The authors suggest three personal characteristics that guide the leaders' behavioural strategies. These include firstly self-efficacy which involves having self-confidence, secondly power orientation which involves the use of power in different ways and finally cognitive capability. Cognitive capability involves the understanding of complex causes and effect relationships to enable action at the right time to achieve the desired outcomes.

According to Jacques (1989) an organisation's vision must be specific, be able to identify possible threats and have plans to mitigate them if they occur. The author indicates that employees must be ready to take action when action is required and this should happen at all levels of the organisation. Vision provides guidance in the organisation steering it in the right direction with set goals and objectives that brings together the alignment of behaviour and contributions of employees across the different organisational levels (Jacques, 1989).

3.4.1.2 Charismatic leadership theory

Various authors like (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Hambrick and Finkelstein, 1987; Yukl, 1989; Day and Lord, 1998; Conger, 1999 and Yukl, 2002) have shown support for "charismatic leadership."

The term charisma means “gift” derived from Greek and has since changed over time. Although the original meaning is still appealing even today, leaders who possess charisma still depend on these gifts to shape the future to influence people through their wisdom, personality, insight and heroic deeds (Hambrick and Finkelstein, 1987).

Max Weber (1864-1920) in Weber (2009) viewed this style of leadership as an association between leaders and their followers with no moral dimension attached to it. In charismatic leadership power is only held by leaders as long as followers believe, trust and respect their leaders’ special qualities. When followers feel betrayed or disappointed, or if their leader fails them in any way, a leaders’ authority diminishes, creating instability and risk in a leaders’ position of authority. This type of leadership depends on credibility and perceptions as well as the needs of its followers. In the event that credibility is lost a leader’s reputation can be damaged (Yukl, 2002; Hambrick and Finkelstein, 1987).

Charismatic leadership can exist for a long time often leaving behind a legacy or it can be short lived. When the legacy of a charismatic leader remains, it is normally embedded in the leaders’ policies, teachings, rules and norms which will always be remembered. An example of a charismatic leader was President Nelson Mandela who left a legacy and reputation that will live on for generations to come. Therefore charisma plays an important role in leadership effectiveness and is considered to be a positive quality if found in a leader. This can be better understood in the three levels of leadership by Scouller (2011).

Scouller (2011:34) defined “charisma” as "a combination of outer charm, power and persuasiveness." Lowe *et al.* (1996:388) indicated that from a follower’s perspective charismatic leadership involves confidence, trust and respect in the leader. In addition the leader should also have a sense of purpose, be vision orientated and performance driven with expectations.

The literature indicates that charisma is an important variable in the effectiveness and performance of organisations, especially when these organisations operate under conditions of uncertainty. Shamir, House and Arthur (1993:588) found that the impact of charisma in operating environments is different and the level of security is low, in which charismatic leadership could become dysfunctional and result in change that is not necessary.

In the research examined, only two studies were identified that have explored the relationship between organisational performance and charismatic leadership in top management. The first study was done by Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam (2001:134-143) in which the authors undertook a study in forty Fortune 500 companies to examine the link between

transactional leadership, charismatic leadership and financial performance. The findings of this study did not show a strong association to performance but was found to be more significant when conditions were unstable or uncertainty existed. The second study was done by Khurana (2001:91) who examined psychological models on different boards of directors and found that they did not improve organisational performance. Charismatic leadership was viewed only as a quality for successful leadership.

3.4.1.3 Transformational leadership theory

Since the 1980's transformational leadership was considered to be one of the most widely researched styles of leadership. Burns' (1978) seminal book titled "Leadership" described leadership styles of political leaders and explained the term "transforming" leadership which was used extensively in the author's works. The main characteristics of transforming leadership were inspiration, moral purpose and mobilisation. The terms transforming and transformational were considered as one and the same, and used interchangeably in leadership research. Burns (1978:20) indicated that "such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality." The author explained that morality involves leadership that produces social change to satisfy the real needs of followers (Burns, 1978).

Following the work of Burns (1978) the author Bass (1985) explored and extended the ideas of Burns and termed "transformational leadership" rather than transforming leadership. The term has since been commonly used by researchers, authors and academics of leadership development. Bass (1985) argued that trust, inspiration, creativity and personal growth are the main thrusts for transformational leadership to be successful. Trust involves a great amount of trust among leaders and followers, with strong moral values and ethical behaviour and has been referred to as idealised influence. On the other hand inspiration involves setting the vision and goals by encouraging followers to perform according to what they consider and believe will lead them to accomplishing and achieving the vision and goals set. The reason behind this was for people to understand that their contribution made is meaningful and has value. This was called inspirational motivation. Bass (1985) explained creativity as allowing people to see the big picture and finding a way of working together towards a common goal that allows them to identify problems, come up with solutions and question conventional wisdom. This was referred to as intellectual stimulation. Personal growth is about caring for followers and taking care of their individual needs and aspirations whilst they develop, so that they are able to grow. This is done by providing them with coaching and mentoring and satisfying their basic requirements. This has been referred to as individual consideration. It is evident from the literature that the four thrusts mentioned above and argued by Bass (1985) underpin the

transformational leadership construct (Mester, Visser, Roodt and Kellerman, 2003:73). Research examining transformational leadership found that transformational leadership behaviours inspire followers beyond their self-interests and improves motivation and morale (Uusi-Kakkuri, Brandt and Kultalahti, 2016; Zareen, Razzaq and Mujtaba, 2015; Antonakis and House, 2014; Bass 1985; Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership brings about change in organisations (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman and Humphrey, 2011 and Uusi-Kakkuri *et al.*, 2016). According to (Uusi-Kakkuri *et al.*, 2016; Zareen *et al.*, 2015; Johnson and Dipboye, 2008; Bass, 1985) the transformational leadership style rests on the leaders' capability to encourage subordinates to excel beyond their current planned performance expectations and this is done through influence and engagement with them. In addition (Taylor, Psotka and Legree, 2015; Hunt, Osborn and Boal, 2009) in their studies found transformational leadership style to be a power tool that helps to accomplish a shared and positive ideal for organisational performance.

Bass' (1985) theory is strong in its foundation and has been very well researched, however some authors like Antonakis and House (2014), Yukl (2008) and Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) raised pertinent questions on the transformational leadership theory. These include questions such as "how does the transformational leadership theory account for the most significant aspects of leadership?"; "Are there certain classes of leadership styles omitted from the transformational leadership theory that could be important for leadership effectiveness?" and "Is the Full Range Leadership factors not overrated?" In an attempt to seek answers to these questions, leadership theory should be viewed from a functional or practical perspective with effective leaders looking beyond transformational leadership and into the organisation's adaptation into its external environment whilst making efficient use of its resources (Antonakis and House, 2014). This indicates that leadership effectiveness should not only involve leadership influence at an interpersonal level, but leadership effectiveness should also include the expertise of the leader in respect of the formulation of strategies as well as the implementation of strategies, where leaders' identify the goals at a strategic and tactical level during the monitoring of outcomes from the team (Antonakis and House, 2014; Morgeson, DeRue and Karam, 2010). Currently, most studies undertaken focused predominantly on transformational leadership. Its theory failed to consider the formulation of strategy, implementation and monitoring roles of leaders (Antonakis and House, 2014:747) with limited research being found on transformational leadership to support strategy implementation.

Bass (1990) also argued that leaders are able to learn the techniques of transformational leadership. He further indicated that under normal circumstances this leadership style does receive the support from its followers which they see as appealing to their ambitions, their needs, development and aspirations but the element of resistance cannot be ignored or taken

for granted. It can take place at any time and a transformational leader will need to deal with the resistance when it occurs (Bass, 1990).

Research by Tichy and Devanna (1986) of twelve top executives using the transformational leadership theory revealed recognition for the need to change, need for vision creation and encouraging institutional changes. Due to the widespread acceptance of transformational leadership over the years, considerable evidence exists to indicate that transformational leadership theory results in effective leadership (Yukl, 1999:304).

The existing literature reviewed reveals that within the domain of transformational leadership a new field of leadership known as authentic leadership development has emerged. This form of leadership development was introduced by Avolio and Luthans (2003). The authors examined what made up real leadership development and focused on what was workable and what was not workable in an attempt to develop leaders and leadership. The findings of this research indicate that leadership development in the past relied on a deficit reduction strategy, in an attempt to discover what was wrong with a leader with the view to find ways to rectify the wrongs or deficits of a leader's development (Avolio *et al.*, 2009:428). Avolio and Luthans (2003:243) described authentic leadership as a method where "positive psychological capacities and a developed organisational context results in greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours." This arises when leaders and associates foster positive self-development.

Transformational leadership therefore involves the process in which the individual engages with others to develop a connection that will trigger and increase the motivation and morality levels amongst leaders and their followers. This style of leadership focuses on followers doing more than what is expected of them and by lifting the followers' consciousness level to understand the values and goals of the organisation. In addition this style of leadership also gets followers to put aside their personal interests by focusing on teamwork and the success of the organisation in an attempt to change followers to focus on higher-level achievements (Avolio and Bass, 1995:199-218).

3.4.2 Emerging leadership theories

The focus of emerging leadership theories is on the complexity theory, shared leadership and social network theory, the upper echelon theory and top management.

3.4.2.1 Complexity theory

In the last two decades, more complex and distinctive streams of leadership have been introduced to the literature. The complexity leadership theory suggests that behavioural complexity is an important construct and should be studied under management (Hooijberg, Hunt and Dodge, 1997). Hooijberg *et al.* (1997) argued that effective leaders display several and often opposing behaviours when exposed to different situations that require a response from them. The complexity theory therefore indicates that the area of leadership within the “leaderplex” model lies within the leader and its environment. Avolio *et al.* (2009:430) indicate that the complexity leadership theory can be enacted through any interaction in an organisation and as such it forms an emergent phenomenon within complex systems. This theory centres on the ability of the leader to participate, to differentiate socially, cognitively and behaviourally taking into consideration the context and adjusting their behaviours accordingly. In essence if leaders do not possess a certain behaviour to complement the needs of the context, then leadership will not occur and the enacted behaviour becomes ineffective (Avolio *et al.*, 2009:430).

3.4.2.2 Shared leadership theory

According to Avolio *et al.* (2009:430) shared, collective and distributed leadership are similar to complexity leadership, but different in that emphasis is placed on leadership in organisations. One of the differences is where organisational structures move away from hierarchy and more towards team based structures. Avolio *et al.* (2009:430) viewed shared leadership as a process that is dynamic and interactive amongst individuals in groups with the objective to lead each other towards the achievement of the group’s or organisations’ goals or both. This process often involves peer or lateral influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence. In the context of the above view, shared leadership can therefore be seen as a process as opposed to a person who is involved with dealing with many members in a team.

3.4.2.3 Social network theory

The social network theory is also a contemporary leadership stream that has emerged which examines leadership through a social network. This idea of the social network theory discussed by Carson, Tesluk and Marrone (2007); Balkundi and Kilduff (2006) explains a leader’s cognitive representation of relational patterns in social networks where a leader initiates and keeps social links resulting in effective leadership. The locus of leadership exists within the network of relationships and this theory views a leader’s group or associations as a starting

point. Balkundi and Kilduff (2006:420) argues that it is important to fully understand how social networks operate as well as the leaders' role within this network, as this determines the effectiveness of the leader. Various authors like (Carson *et al.*, 2007; Balkundi and Kilduff, 2006; Mehra, Smith, Dixon and Roberston, 2006) indicate that the leader's network approach locates leadership in the relationships connecting individuals and not in the attributes of individuals. It can therefore be deduced that the focus of the social network theory is on conceptualising leadership beyond the collection of individuals with the focus on a network of relations whereas the complexity theory relies on opposing behaviours.

In contrasting contemporary leadership theories with emerging theories, the literature examined indicates that new leadership theories present and offer approaches linked to successful top executive managers who are mindful of their organisations and its missions. The underlying assumption of the theories on visionary, transformational and charismatic leadership is that leaders are heroes (Wang, Chich-Jen and Mei-Ling, 2010:3924). This view is based on the argument that the performance of followers is influenced by an effective leader and supported by research undertaken to identify skills, traits and motivation of subordinates through a leader's behaviour (Stam, Knippenberg and Wisse, 2010:460; Hutchinson and Jackson, 2013:14).

On the other hand, emerging leadership theories involve moving beyond the individual to a more enigmatic perspective on leadership by relating divergent leadership behaviours. Having this understanding and moving forward, the field of top management theory, also classified as an emerging theory, is discussed next in the context of its antecedent the upper echelon theory, all of which rests on the same line of thinking as other emerging leadership theories.

3.4.2.4 Upper echelon theory

Hosmer (1982:51) indicated that contingency theories of leadership have no bearing on an organisation's competitive position in the industry, proposing that responsibilities of a leader are not the same as that of a manager. The reason for this view is that a leader must continuously focus on the organisation's strategy in relation to its external environment. Research by Hosmer (1982:47-57) focused mainly on the concept of top management indicating that leadership signifies higher order capabilities that involve strategy development and the ability to influence others can follow it. This proposition was further built on by Hambrick and Mason (1984) which gave emergence to the upper echelon theory. The upper echelon theory asserts that leaders function at a strategic level, organisations are reflections of their cognition and values, their knowledge, experience and preferences. In this way an organisation is able to reflect its top managers over time.

3.4.2.5 Top management theory

The upper echelon theory was then adapted and further explored by Finkelstein and Hambrick (1996). Through their exploration the theory of top management emerged of which the key feature suggests “that a leader’s vision and interpretation of information is influenced by that leader’s values, cognitions and personality” (Cannella and Monroe (in Phipps and Burbach, 2010:137)) When the theory of top management was reviewed by Priem, Lyon and Dess (1999) it received heavy criticism and fundamental questions were raised around the meaning and construct validity of the use of demographic variables in top management theory. However top management theory was further researched and refined and the body of knowledge expanded to discuss the bigger question of how top management make a contribution to organisational performance (Phipps and Burbach, 2010:137).

In addition the theory of top management was broadened by Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson (2007) who developed a model comprising of six critical components necessary for top management. These components included the following:

- “determining strategic direction”;
- “exploiting and maintaining core competencies”;
- “developing human capital”;
- “sustaining an effective corporate culture”;
- “emphasizing ethical practices” and
- “establishing strategic controls.”

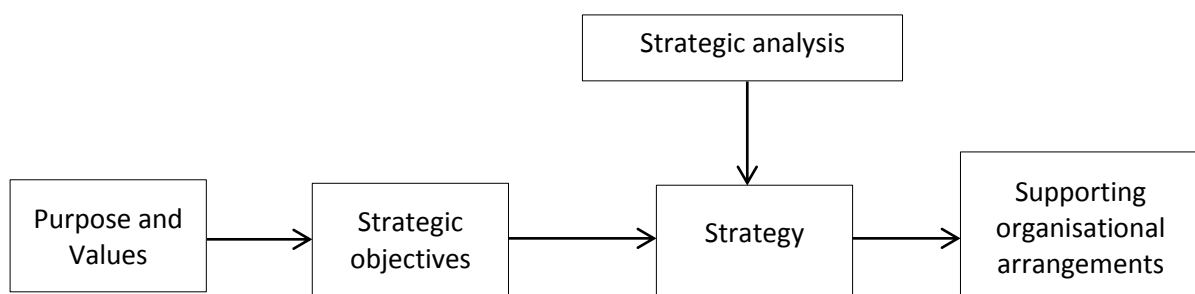
In addition, Hewson (1997:124-134) focused on the new dimensions of top management (i.e. leading the strategy process, leading the innovation stream, leading in periods of radical change, managing for global leadership, brand leadership, leading with people and culture, technology leadership and the new way of leading change). Subsequent to the dimensions of top management by Hitt *et al.* (2007); Hewson (1997) further proposed components for effective top management such as “determining the organisation’s purpose and vision”; “exploiting and maintaining core competencies”; “developing human capital”; “sustaining an effective organizational culture”; “ethical practices” and “establishing strategic controls.” The above authors argued that, when these components are in place, organisations can achieve a competitive advantage. Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden and Hu (2014:41) established that although substantial research is still taking place at the dyadic level, top management approaches are the most widely researched of the emerging leadership theories. To date a total of 182 studies were undertaken when compared to other categories under emerging leadership theories. This indicates progress in this area of leadership research given that

previously it was a subject that was not fully explored (Dinh *et al.*, 2014; House and Aditya, 1997; Finklestein and Hambrick, 1996).

3.5 Leadership and strategy

During the 1990's strategy moved away from long term planning by providing leadership during the strategy formulation process by creating alignment in the organisation in accordance with the demands arising from changes in the world. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1995:126) argued that leaders first need to look at, and understand the organisation's purpose before developing a formal system for the organisation. It is important to adopt a bottom up approach starting with the people who are closest to the customer and this should be replaced with the top down approach that looks at vision and direction first. In addition top management should create an environment whereby management should begin with themselves before starting with managing middle and front line managers (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1995:126). Therefore, there is a need to create strategies with a clear shared vision, with the purpose and values clear, while at the same time encouraging an environment where people feel empowered and are able to manage themselves. Hambrick and Fredrickson (2001) developed a model to reflect the place of strategy as shown in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: The Place of Strategy in Leadership



Source: (Adapted from Hambrick and Fredrickson, 2001:48-59).

According to Kaplan and Norton (2001) strategy is a continuous process involving linking budgets, strategic learning and information systems. This is done by using strategic assessments and individual scorecards aligned to the organisational strategy through its business while being supported through synergies within units. A strategy is also translated into operational plans using strategy maps with change mobilised through executive leadership. According to Goodstein (2011) the most significant function of any leader should be strategic planning and this should be central to a leader's role.

Abell (2006) examined the future of strategic management theory and practice concluding that the future of strategy is leadership. Abell (2006:310-314) proposed that six top management

tasks are emerging that could take precedence, those are, “dual strategies”, “putting mission and vision ahead of strategy”, “fit between market opportunity, leadership purpose and firm resources”, “strategy as the hinge between the changing external world and internal company resources”, “competition between entire business system” and “the delegation of strategy making to managers below corporate and business unit levels.” Due to the massive changes taking place in the world currently, there is a need for rebalancing of top management attention in leading business, and change is taking place in every sector, every market and in every company and new approaches are needed. Kotter (1996:18) was of a similar view when he stated “many companies are over managed and under led”. Too much focus and effort are placed on regulating management systems to enhance the business and not much attention is being paid in leading and preparing the organisation for the future (Kotter, 1996:19).

Serfontein (2010:13) in his explanation of leadership indicated that leadership is not about having an alluring personality, making friends or influencing people but it is about raising a person’s vision to higher levels, improving a person’s performance standards and building a personality that exceeds normal limits.

Different views have been expressed in the literature on vision, purpose and values rather than on strategy as the most important or fundamental leadership concern. Through research so far for the study it can be concluded that strategy is part of leadership and leadership is not part of strategy. Goodstein (2011:44) defined strategic planning in terms of establishing goals and pathways to reaching them, clarifying the organisation’s values and identifying and planning how to avoid or reduce potential obstacles. Goodstein (2011:45) states that “a strategic plan should be a clear statement of the organisation’s desired future and the path to reach the future”.

Therefore, pursuing an organisation’s vision and purpose helps to predict and take action against threats as well as leverage opportunities and assist in considering ways for developing strategies (Gill, 2011). Effective leadership involves responding when change occurs as well as generating inventive ways to change that will be beneficial. Porter (1997) expressed the same views indicating that opportunities come from being inventive and progressive in order to realise a vision. Gill (2011:210) indicated that when opportunities are not taken advantage of, it has the potential to become a threat.

3.6 Leadership actions and strategy implementation

The success of strategy implementation efforts depends on a leader's actions. Hitt *et al.* (2007) developed a model in which he identified five selected leadership actions important for leading strategy implementation. These leadership actions include: "determining strategic direction", "establishing balanced organizational controls", "effectively managing the organisation's resource portfolio", "sustaining an effective organizational culture" and "emphasizing ethical practices" (Hitt *et al.*, 2007:385).

3.6.1 Determining strategic direction

To determine strategic direction is the starting point into strategy formulation and plays a significant part in ensuring strategy implementation is effective (Hitt *et al.*, 2007:385). Strategy formulation and strategy implementation are not separate processes; they are considered to be an integrated process within the strategic management domain that is interdependent of each other. The strategic direction of the organisation, its strategy and its strategic actions determine how effective and successful strategy implementation efforts will be when rolled out. The implementation of strategy can be affected by how an organisation's strategic direction is determined; similarly poor implementation plans or efforts can affect the organisation's future direction. The success of strategy implementation is reliant on strategic direction determination, and is reliant on the skills and capabilities required for charting the strategic direction. Therefore it becomes important that during the determination of strategic direction, top management should think through and study the anticipated problems and challenges that may arise during strategy implementation and avert them through planned solutions (Hrebiniak, 2005:9).

Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:181) point out that for strategy implementation to be effective a shift is required in the organisation and this should come from its present state and then move to its future state. In addition, the authors indicate that the strategic direction when determined will have an impact on capital resources, organisational restructuring, human resources and other allocation of resources that will determine effective strategy implementation (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2004:181). It is therefore critical for top management to be resilient in the organisation in order to provide vision and give direction to ensure internal changes are articulated and translated into meaningful and effective strategy implementation.

3.6.2 Establishing balanced organisational controls

According to Hitt *et al.* (2007:385) an important dimension to effective leadership and ultimately effective strategy implementation is to establish balanced organisational controls. The authors identify establishing balanced organisational controls as a leadership action that has a positive influence on effective strategy implementation. In accordance with the literature reviewed organisational controls are considered to include strategic controls and traditional management controls to promote and ensure effective strategy implementation. Strategic controls focus on monitoring, reviewing, strategy updates and evaluation, with emphasis on long term outcomes and success through strategic guidance. Traditional management controls focus on short term actions and involve the use of control systems, performance tracking systems and deviation records to guide corrective actions to ensure strategy implementation is rolled out as planned. However, organisational controls can create barriers to effective strategy implementation when inappropriately developed, and this could be attributed by the lack of performance tracking against strategic objectives and strategy plans (Hrebniak, 2005:23).

Strategy implementation is successful when top management has an important part to play in developing and using strategic controls and traditional management controls to ensure effective strategy implementation. Freedman and Tregoe (2003:23-25) indicate that top management should be responsible for maintaining balance of organisational controls through strategic and traditional management controls in the long term and short term. Hitt *et al.* (2007:390) point out that top management should assess balanced organisational controls through its alignment of the organisation's internal environment and its established strategy. Doing this will give top management an opportunity to determine the viability and concreteness of their strategy, as this will allow for the shaping and adjustment of the substance during the process of implementation (Freedman and Tregoe, 2003:178).

3.6.3 Effectively managing the organisation's resource portfolio

According to Hitt *et al.* (2007:83-85) an organisation's resource portfolio is its tangible and intangible resources, which are considered key for strategic implementation. Tangible resources are the organisation's assets that can be quantified and include technology, finance, the organisation and its physical resources. Intangible resources include the organisation's core competencies and those are the organisation's human resources (knowledge, trust and managerial capabilities), its innovative resources (designs, inventions, and scientific breakthroughs) and reputational resources (its reputation with customers, suppliers and its brand name). This will help contribute and determine the success of effective strategy

implementation. Hitt *et al.* (2007:385) expressed the view that there is a need for proper management of an organisation's portfolio of resources and stated that it is "...probably the most important task for top management". This indicates that leaders at every level of an organisation are required to take responsibility to manage the organisation's resource portfolio.

Effective strategy implementation relies and depends on the organisation's resource portfolio, as implementation efforts are impossible if the organisation's resource portfolio is not considered, hence an organisation's resource portfolio should under no circumstances be ignored. The foundation, existence, success and future of an organisation is built on its resource portfolio. Hitt *et al.* (2007:397) emphasised that management effectiveness in an organisation's resource portfolio should be a significant action for leadership as it serves as an important conduit to effective strategy implementation.

3.6.4 Sustaining an effective organisational culture

Hitt *et al.* (2007:385) indicate that sustaining an effective organisational culture can only be achieved through the strategic direction of an organisation and when balanced organisational controls are established. The authors emphasised that there must be an alignment of employee values and behaviour for strategy implementation to be successful. Pearce and Robinson (2005) indicated that organisational members often share common perspectives arising from their assumptions on organisational culture. According to Hitt *et al.* (2007:299) this is made up of a set of ideas, core values and concepts that are common throughout the organisation and from a framework within which business activities take place.

Organisational culture plays a significant role in an organisation's competitive advantage. It helps guide and direct an organisation in its business activities and control employee behaviours at the various echelons in the organisation (Sarros, Cooper and Santora, 2011:295). In relation to the implementation of strategy, organisational culture serves as a propeller and creates "awareness and internalization of the shared mission, vision, and values needed to execute the strategy" (Kaplan and Norton, 2004:275). Leadership and organisational culture can therefore be seen to complement each other whilst playing a crucial role in effective strategy implementation. This view has been supported by Fourie (2010:96) who also found that organisational culture and leadership share a close relationship for creating and maintaining a successful culture towards efforts concerning strategy implementation and he maintains that this responsibility still lies with top management of an organization. According to Bossidy and Charan (2002:105) the values and behaviours adopted by top management ultimately determine and sustain the culture of the organisation. Equally so, top management is responsible to shape and change the culture of the organisation and

more importantly to exercise their capability, skills and abilities to influence the organisation's cultural change process. In conclusion leadership and organisational culture share a close relation and if developed appropriately will advance efforts for effective strategy implementation.

3.6.5 Emphasising ethical practices

Pearce and Robinson (2005:60) define ethical practices as “the moral principles that govern the actions of an individual or group” and business ethics “as principles of conduct within organisations that guide decision making and behaviour”. Almost every contemporary organisation has policies and procedures that regulate and control ethical practices in the interest of their business success and the future of their organisation. Many of these organisations face high levels of corruption and fraud, with some organisations in a state of paralysis and more so riddled with the increasing number of unethical practices.

Pearce and Robinson (2005:62) identified three fundamental ethical approaches that top management should adopt. The first is the utilitarian approach which involves judging the impact of certain actions on individuals and determining how effective it would be creating the same impact on other individuals. The second is the moral rights approach and this involves judging decisions and actions and ensuring the rights of individuals and groups are maintained. The third approach is the social justice approach which focuses on judging how consistent principles of equity, fairness and impartiality are applied when rewards are allocated among individuals and groups.

It is widely accepted that top management find the application of ethical practices challenging, but have no choice to derail it, as ethical practices are part of their responsibilities (Hitt *et al.*, 2007:392). Top management hold the responsibility in an organisation to ensure they develop, communicate and implement ethical practices and standards in their organisation and lead by example (David, 2001:19). This also means that top management should first commit themselves to ethical behaviour, standards, values and practices and should not be under the notion that ethical practices in organisations are maintained on its own or that its employees have the ability to deal with ethical issues without leadership guidance and intervention. Hitt *et al.* (2007) consider ethical practices to be an important leadership action that makes a significant contribution to effective strategy implementation. Hitt *et al.* (2007:393) point out that when processes used in strategy implementation are built on sound ethical practices, strategy implementation becomes more effective and is further strengthened when top management conduct themselves in ways that exhibit ethical values and behaviour, resulting in their employees also acting ethically leading to effective strategy implementation.

3.7 Leadership styles as part of strategy implementation

This study adopts a theoretical perspective to understand and explain the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation that span organisational behaviour and strategic management. The reason behind this is that strategy implementation is inherently a multi-disciplinary phenomenon in which certain aspects are prioritised and considered critical to analyse issues related to the how and why of the role of differential leadership styles in strategy implementation. This multidisciplinary approach is premised on a contingent view of leadership in which at certain times strategy implementation will rely on transactional leadership styles and at other times it could benefit more from a transformational leadership style or rely on both leadership styles at the same time. An ideal senior manager would be able to identify and exercise the appropriate leadership style for the circumstance (Schaap, 2012).

Research evidence indicates that senior managers may possess both transactional and transformational leadership styles (Vera and Crossan, 2004:226). In addition research also indicates that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership especially on contingent reward behaviours. The ability to adapt different leadership styles, also differs across senior managers, because they hold different values, orientations and preferences as well as their efficacy as transactional or transformational leaders (Vera and Crossan, 2004:227). There are limited precedents in the literature that have studied the role of leadership styles as part of strategy implementation.

Effective implementation efforts are dependent on the style of leaders at senior management level especially with regards to the structure of the organisation, the powers of delegation, the making of decisions as well as in incentive and reward systems. These are all influenced by the role of leadership styles in organisations (Speculand, 2014:30). These parameters are important and are essential for strategy implementation (Rajasekar, 2014). The style of leadership has the ability to create a conducive environment to support such efforts towards the success of strategy implementation (Azhar *et al.*, 2013). The literature on strategy implementation proposes numerous styles of leadership suitable for the implementation of strategy (Håkonsson *et al.*, 2012; Andrews *et al.*, 2012). According to Andrews *et al.* (2012) there is a limited understanding of the leadership style that attributes to improved performance and implementation success. These authors further indicate that an organisation's leadership style towards strategy implementation becomes established and institutionalised over time (Andrews *et al.*, 2012) and considerations associated with strategy implementation must take into account the role of leadership, as leaders are responsible for encouraging cooperation, decision making (Radomska, 2015) and directing employees to perform strategy implementation activities effectively (Azhar *et al.*, 2013). In addition leaders motivate and

inspire employees towards successful strategy implementation because successful implementation is dependent on employees taking the right actions and leaders who ensure that employees take the right actions (Speculand, 2014).

Leaders are required to provide clarity, guidance and support to employees, be able to integrate employees in the implementation process, encourage and stimulate employees to work efficiently according to the vision of the organisation and to jointly contribute to achieving strategic goals (Azhar *et al.*, 2013). Research indicates that after the formulation of new strategies most leaders often make the same strategy implementation mistakes as made previously, receiving the same dismal results. To avoid the same past failures leaders need to better understand their role to be played and to acquire knowledge on how to implement strategy (Speculand, 2014). To achieve this can only be affected by a leader's style and their ability to process and analyse information (Håkonsson *et al.*, 2012).

A limited number of conceptual studies have explored different leadership styles and the implementation of strategy (Andrews *et al.*, 2011). Most of these studies have illustrated a range of leadership styles for strategy implementation, however in respect of its variables and its conceptions they are different. Hickson *et al.* (2003) used the concepts planning and prioritising. Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984) examined and termed five (5) styles of leadership for strategy implementation.

They termed the "commander model" which focuses on centralised direction by chief executive officers to guide strategy in organisations. The "change model" which focuses the structure of the organisation, incentives, systems as well as other factors required to enable a new strategy to be implemented. The "collaborative model" which emphasises how decisions are made and how outcomes are negotiated at a group level in an organisation. The "cultural model" which is linked to the culture of an organisation. It shows how low level employees merge with high standard of values that allows them to engage at a strategic level and support efforts for successful implementation. Finally, the "crescive model" indicates the responsibility taken by middle level managers to develop, champion and implement new strategies introduced by Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984:590-598). The main feature of this model is that it shifts responsibility of making decisions related to implementation to the low level employees. The typology introduced by Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984) shows significant variations in leadership styles for exploration in different organisations. Thompson (2000:46-68) categorised leadership styles with a rational approach as well as an incremental approach. A rational leadership style focuses on centralized control, which uses formal means and implementation are sequential activities. The incremental approach focuses on decentralising

responsibilities with a looser distinction between formulation and implementation (Andrews *et al.*, 2011).

Håkonsson *et al.* (2012) examined how and when executive leadership style affects strategy implementation through two dimensions namely through exploration and exploitation. Exploration involves moving away from the organisation's current knowledge base and skills. This move away is related to acquiring new technical skills, obtaining market expertise or developing external relationships (Stettner and Lavie, 2014:114). On the other hand exploitation entails building on the organisation's existing knowledge base focusing on its products and processes to make the best out of it (Stettner and Lavie, 2014:114). Within the context of exploration and exploitation the Miles *et al.* (1978) typology was applied. This typology includes four strategy types, namely the defender, reactor, prospector and analyser. The focus of the defender is on efficiency where exploration is low and exploitation is high. The prospector focuses on effectiveness where exploration is high and exploitation is low whereas in the case of the analyser the focus is on both efficiency and effectiveness where exploration and exploitation are high. Although the reactor, also focuses on both dimensions both exploration and exploitation are low (Miles *et al.*, 1978:546-562).

There are limited empirical studies that have examined the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation and this has resulted in having a limited body knowledge in this area of research. This was found to be the "missing link" to most of the strategy implementation research (Andrews *et al.*, 2011). In this study the Burns (1978) typology will be complemented with Bass' (1985) Full Range Leadership Model and this includes transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles for strategy implementation. Bass' (1985) Full Range Leadership Model is a leadership theory that has been tested empirically with great success. (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Bono and Judge, 2004; Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Bass suggested that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles form a continuum. Where transformational is the most effective and active, laissez-faire leadership the least likely to produce the desired results, and with transactional leadership having a combination of both.

In addition this study will examine how the exploration and exploitation of core competencies interact with the role of transformational and transactional leadership styles to jointly lead to the success of strategy implementation. The term exploration and exploitation was introduced by March (1991) in an attempt to distinguish different learning activities in which organisations' resources and attention are divided (Raisch and Birkinshaw, 2008). Exploitation is linked to activities such as "refinement, efficiency, selection, and implementation" (March, 1991:71) and in contrast exploration is linked with "search, variation, experimentation and discovery" (March,

1991:71). The “exploration and exploitation of core competencies” is also referred to as the dimensions of strategy (Håkonsson *et al.*, 2012).

Core competencies involve the collective learning in an organisation, with regards to the coordination of different skills and the integration of different streams of technology to deliver organisational value (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). “Core competencies are the resources and capabilities that serve as a firm's source of competitive advantage” (Hagen, Vaicys and Hassan, 2011:21). Prahalad and Hamel (1990) viewed core competencies as skills with functional value and these include areas of finance, manufacturing, marketing, and research and development that could be used across various business units. Grant (1996:375) stated that “core competencies are the resources and capabilities that give an organisation a competitive advantage over its rivals. The relatively unstable market conditions resulting from innovations, diversity of competitors and the array of revolutionary technological changes occurring in the new competitive landscape have caused core competencies rather than served markets to become the basis upon which organisations establish their long term strategies”. In addition, Prahalad and Hamel (1990) indicate that the skills that form core competencies should coalesce around individuals and their efforts should be appropriately aligned to identify prospective opportunities by integrating their knowledge to those who have innovative and new ideas. These authors further expressed that core competence are also about being able to communicate, get involved and be committed as well as involving people of various levels and all functions across the organisation (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990:84-91).

The underlying characteristic of core competencies is to have the resources, capabilities, functional skills and knowledge for effective or superior performance in a job. In this study core competency will be defined as having a combination of skills, knowledge, experience, values, attitudes and personality to meet performance standards.

3.7.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers by providing a sense of vision, mission, and purpose (Wright, Moynihan and Pandey, 2012). As a result transformational leadership style serves as an agent of change to develop capabilities, provide direction, support followers, maximise resources and address challenges (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013) to bring about organisational effectiveness. This type of leadership style requires followers to look beyond the interests of their higher order needs and to focus on the needs of the organisation, with the view to providing a meaningful, committed and modern approach to leadership to shape employee behaviour (Wright *et al.*, 2012).

Seminal work on transformational leadership was first introduced by Burns (1978) and later expanded and extended in the works of Bass (1985) which resulted in the development of the Full-Range Leadership Theory (FRLT). The FRLT is categorised into three types of leadership, these are transformational, transactional and laissez-faire (Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013). Bass (1985) argued that trust, inspiration, creativity and personal growth are the main thrusts for transformational leadership to be successful. Trust involves a true and trustworthy relationship between a leader and a follower, with both having high moral standards and strong ethical values. This he referred to as 'idealised influence'. He referred to 'inspiration' as the ability to provide vision and goals while inspiring and motivating followers. Inspiration is also about followers acting in a manner in which they believe they are making a significant contribution. The reason behind this is that people understand that the path they are being directed in, is meaningful and the contribution they are making is worthwhile. The aforementioned is referred to as inspirational motivation. Creativity entails allowing people to see the big picture and finding a way of working together towards a common goal that allows them to identify problems, come up with solutions and question conventional wisdom. This was referred to as intellectual stimulation. Personal growth is about ensuring followers are given attention with their needs and aspirations addressed whilst providing them with development so that they are able to grow, by providing them with coaching and mentoring and satisfying their individual needs. This has been referred to as individual consideration (Bass, 1985).

Research indicates that the transformational leadership is suited for fostering organisational change in the context of performance reforms (Yukl, 2008:712). Some empirical evidence advocates that employee satisfaction and performance are mainly associated with transformational leadership (Oberfield, 2012; Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang, 2008). Data to date reveals that factors from the full range model only predicts performance irrespective of objective or subjective evaluation (Antonakis and House, 2014:747) and has been supported by results of several meta-analyses undertaken (Wang and Rhode, 2010). When transformational leadership entered the leadership domain it entered as a new leadership paradigm with the view to better understand leadership effectiveness in organisations (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013) and it was considered to have a strong psychological impact on followers.

Recent literature is sparse on understanding transformational leadership of senior managers in strategy implementation. The general view of transformational leadership in relation to strategy implementation is that implementation presents a major problem that needs to be considered due to the fact that organisations and more specifically public organisations normally pursue multiple mandates goals and objectives concurrently of which many do not have any economic purpose (Van Slyke and Alexander, 2006). O'Connell, Hickerson and Pillutla (2011) indicate that there are two psychological processes of transformational

leadership that will help shape strategy implementation conditions in the public service namely the creation of vision and setting of goals. When complimented with leadership these two processes will influence strategy implementation (O'Connell *et al.*, 2011). Vision is a key element to transformational leadership and these leaders have the responsibility to ensure everyone understands the vision of the organisation as this will allow for decisions to be made to be consistent with its vision. In the case of strategy implementation it is about connecting vision, strategy, goals and action plans through communication, alignment and motivation of organisational members (O'Connell *et al.*, 2011; Kantabutra, 2009).

Transformational leadership therefore requires followers to put their interests aside and to focus on organisational needs. This is with the view to providing a significant, committed and modern approach to leadership and to shape employee behaviour needed in the public service. Public service leaders have the responsibility to provide vision, set goals and make people understand the direction of the organisational goals (Wright *et al.*, 2012). Under the new public administration perspective a change is emerging in which public service leaders allow employees to express their creative abilities to come up with solutions to problems quite different from the traditional bureaucratic ways of thinking and doing things (Hemsworth *et al.*, 2013:857). This study is an attempt to examine how the dimensions of transformational leadership jointly lead to strategy implementation. The basic assumption in this study is that the role of transformational leadership style is critical to strategy implementation hence the following hypothesis:

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.
- H_{1a}:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation.

3.7.1.1 Transformational leadership and exploration of core competencies

Research has maintained that organisational performance is rooted in exploring new opportunities (Gibson and Birkinshaw, 2004). However there is very little evidence of how a transformational leadership style affects the exploration of core competencies in strategic management processes. Jansen *et al.* (2009) argued that the foundation for organisational performance lies in exploring existing competencies and exploiting new competencies. Volberda *et al.* (2001:165) stated that "top management explicitly manages the balance of exploration and exploitation by bringing in new competencies to some units while utilizing well-developed competencies in others". In an attempt to explore core competencies. Egelhoff (1993:49) stated that "more firms need to shift from relying on superior strategy to developing

superior strategy implementation capabilities”, asserting that when such capabilities are developed this could result in organisational performance being sustained.

Transformational leaders are well suited for exploring core competencies because they are willing to take risks and to challenge assumptions. Their ability to communicate effectively and to mobilise commitment enable them to promote the exploration of core competencies due to being effective communicators and having the ability to mobilise commitment to realise organisational goals (Jansen *et al.*, 2009:7-9). Through idealised influence and inspirational motivation transformational leaders are able to provide ideological explanations and will be able to link individual skills and capabilities to the required core competencies in the interest of the organisation’s mission (Shamir *et al.*, 1993). By providing intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders are able to encourage exploratory thinking processes and “out of the box” thinking. Leaders with transformational style behaviours recognise the importance of competencies and are able to identify them as their own and will try to explore core competencies throughout the organisation (Jansen *et al.*, 2009).

The fundamental premise in this study is that transformational leadership will support the notion of exploring core competencies. It is proposed that transformational leadership will foster and leverage core competencies to realise organisational goals. In this respect transformational leaders who value and understand the importance of skills and capabilities, will explore its core competencies and enact the necessary institutional changes to ensure that these competencies are fully explored (Jansen *et al.*, 2009). Hence, the following hypothesis is considered:

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will have no effect on the exploration of core competencies.
- H_{1b}:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will positively influence the exploration of core competencies.

3.7.2 Transactional leadership

The transactional leadership theory assumes that motivation is dependent on punishment or reward; employees have to follow and conform to instructions given by their managers and self-motivation by employees is absent, as a result employees need to be observed, managed and monitored (Oberfield, 2012). According to Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) subordinates who accomplish their tasks given by the transactional leader will be rewarded, however if a subordinate goes against the instructions of the leader then the subordinated may receive

punishment. This indicates an exchange process between the leader and subordinate to ensure performance towards the realisation of goals and standards (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013). These leader-follower exchanges include three main features and those are “contingent reward”, “active management by exception” and “passive management by exception.” **Contingent rewards** involve mutually agreed upon goals which are linked to rewards with expectations explained, resources provided and available; and performance rewards and standards established (Oberfield, 2012; Alabduljader, 2012); **active management by exception** involves the monitoring of work and assessing of performance and addressing discrepancies in respect of non-conformities to standards and rules and taking corrective measures to rectify errors and **passive management by exception** involves the intervention by transactional leaders where non-conformities are prevalent and performance is poor in which punishment could take place due to intolerable performance (Oberfield, 2012; Alabduljader, 2012). Lowe *et al.* (1996) considered transactional leadership a functional management responsibility in a system that already exists and which has a risk avoidance preference; it gives attention to time constraints and efficiency, and maintains control through substantive work performance rather than through processes. In the context of the public service such systems are mainly found in contractual agreements and followers or employees seek ways to use established performance criteria and indicators to receive performance awards (Wright *et al.*, 2012).

The transactional leadership theory also contains limitations in which leaders appear as if they suppress employee creativity and innovative thinking by over amplifying the need and importance for standards, rules and procedures towards goal achievement (Moynihan and Pandey, 2004; Wright *et al.*, 2012). In these instances transactional leaders will dismiss new ideas and refuse to acknowledge creative thinking by shifting focus back to goal attainment and sticking to plans. In this respect transactional leaders can be characterised as being direction and action focused and their association with the employee is purely work and performance based (Wright *et al.*, 2012).

Some empirical research undertaken has shown mixed results to transactional leadership. A study by (Moynihan and Pandey, 2004) viewed environmental influences and organisational influences to the perceptions of effectiveness in the organisation. Their findings revealed that if employees were clear about the goals in the organisation then the perception was that the organisation was operating effectively. Research undertaken by Trottier *et al.* (2008) looked into the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership and employee satisfaction. Their study found that the dimensions of transactional leadership are positively associated with satisfaction in respect of contingent rewards and management by exception. Another study, by Choi and Rainey (2010), examined the perceptions of the

employee of performance and found there exists a significant relationship between the culture of results and perceived performance in favour of transactional leadership.

The model developed by Bass (1985) has gained widespread recognition in the academic and research circles in the general management field. The literature research undertaken for this study recognises that research in the public service domain has been slow (Van Wart 2003). Recently this has changed and more research has surfaced applying Bass' theory to the public service (Wright *et al.*, 2012). This clearly indicates that there is an interest that is emerging to undertake and explore more research of Bass' model to the public service and there seems to be a level of applicability and relevance to this domain.

In light of the above, this study came to the conclusion that transactional leadership dimensions were relevant to be applied to senior managers. The reason behind this is that these elements of transactional leadership are able to elevate the influence of strategy implementation due to its ability to motivate employees, assess and address discrepancies as well as raise performance standards. From this the following hypothesis is developed.

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will have no influence on strategy implementation.
- H_{2a}:** Senior managers portraying a transactional leadership style will positively influence strategy implementation.

3.7.2.1 Transactional leadership and exploitation of core competencies

Similar to exploration the notion of exploitation was also examined through theories of organisational learning, technological innovation and organisational adaptation (March, 1991; Jansen *et al.*, 2009). Research indicates that organisational performance is rooted in exploiting existing competencies (Gibson and Birkinshaw, 2004). However there is very little evidence of how transactional leadership behaviours affect the exploitation of core competencies in strategic management processes. Exploitation is referred to activities which include "refinement, efficiency, selection, and implementation," and exploration involves the idea of "search, variation, experimentation, and discovery". This implies that exploitation may need different organisational structures, strategies, and contexts (March, 1991:71).

When decisions are made by senior managers of an organisation they help in the organisation's development as well as in leveraging its core competencies. They also tend to share the organization's resources across business units through the exploitation of core competencies (Hamel and Prahalad, 1993; Jansen *et al.*, 2009). Exploiting core competencies in relation to resources and capabilities which is not easy to imitate, becomes an organisations

source of competitive advantage (Hagen, Hassen and Amin, 1998:40). Transactional leadership has the ability to exploit core competencies by encouraging employees to apply their capabilities to the organisations structure, strategy, procedures and systems.

In contrast to transactional leadership and exploration of core competencies there is an expectation that transactional leaders will limit and discourage employees who try to initiate exploratory efforts for development and growth that depart from existing capabilities. The employees' interactions with such leaders who exercise their transactional leadership behaviours will focus purely on the exchanges between reward and recognition for achieving agreed upon goals and objectives. These leaders will also monitor individual and team performance to check for mistakes and take measures to correct it when required. Exploring core competencies requires flexibility and opportunity (Jansen *et al.*, 2009). This exchange relationship could be problematic and detrimental to developing capabilities that are essential for exploring core competencies.

In light of the exploration and exploitation of core competencies transactional leadership will positively and a negatively influence strategy implementation. Exploring core competencies through transactional leadership will have no bearing in supporting strategy implementation however, exploiting core competencies through transactional leadership will support strategy implementation. On the other hand it complements transformational leadership when addressing performance standards and non-performance standards as well as exploring core competencies.

It is important to recognise that transactional leadership is considered a functional management responsibility where public service systems are mainly found in contractual arrangements, in which employees establish key performance criteria, indicators, outputs and outcomes to ensure the realisation of goals and standards. Therefore the relevance of contingent rewards is applicable and exists in the public service. Further to this the monitoring of work and regular performance assessments take place to address performance non-conformities as a result active management by exception is also applicable to the public service (Wright *et al.*, 2012). However, passive management by exception very rarely takes place in the public service, and employees are seldom punished for poor performance (Jansen *et al.*, 2009).

Although the importance of transactional leadership in pursuing exploration and exploitation has been mentioned, the manner in which transactional leaders influence strategy implementation is unclear and underdeveloped (Jansen *et al.*, 2009). This aspect of the study aims to provide empirical insights by linking transactional leadership to exploiting core

competencies and its relationship to strategy implementation. The basic assumption is that transactional leadership can support exploitative competencies since these leaders have the ability to engage in transactional behaviours and depend on specific competency needs, and are able to shape employee capabilities. In light of the above this study is of the assumption that transactional leadership style will positively influence strategy implementation by exploiting core competencies. Therefore the following hypothesis is developed:

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will have no effect on the exploitation of core competencies.
- H_{2b}:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.

3.7.3 Laissez-faire leadership

The Laissez-faire leadership style has been defined to encompass “non-commitment, laziness, complacency, avoidance and abdication of responsibility” (Sarros and Santora, 2001:390). This type of leadership style is considered as anarchic and lacks leadership (Bradford and Lippit, 1945; Northouse, 2010). Leaders who practice this kind of leadership delay or do not make decisions when required, they are reluctant to give rewards, employees are not empowered or motivated under this style of leadership and these leaders make no effort to support the needs of their employees (Westerlaken and Woods, 2013). Of all the leadership styles this is the most unpopular leadership style as this style of leadership comes with many problems, it provides minimal or no direction to employees and allows employees with as much freedom as possible (Tarsik, Kassim and Nasharudin, 2014). Laissez-faire leaders avoid responsibility with little being conveyed or communicated between the leader and his followers (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999). Leaders who adopt a laissez-faire approach are also referred to as ‘passive-avoidant leaders’, meaning that they relinquish their responsibilities, employees don’t receive feedback and leaders show no interest in the development of their followers (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013; Northouse, 2010). This leadership style commonly represents “non-leadership behaviour and such leaders are believed to be with no capacity to get involved or participate” (Sarros and Santora, 2001:389) and therefore the following hypothesis:

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.
- H₃:** Senior managers portraying a laissez-faire leadership style will negatively influence strategy implementation.

3.8 Leadership in the public service

Seminal work on public service leadership was started in 1945 by Stone and was later followed by Selznick in 1957 (Orazi, Turrini and Valotti, 2013:488). The research was conducted to confront distinctive administrative aspects of leadership in the public service. Not much of the field was explored in the 1960's and 1970's and the focus was primarily on small groups at lower levels, with no focus on executive leadership. This historical work on public sector leadership was later reviewed by Van Wart (2003) using the work of Selznick's (1957) as a basis as well as the first empirical work done by Golembiewski (1959). Interest in this topic grew and was brought back in the 1980's alongside the debate on transformational /transactional leadership. This forced a resurgence in the 1990's when interests were aroused around the similarities of leadership in business in comparison to leadership in public organisations (Orazi *et al.*, 2013). This generated burgeoning literature exploring the relevance of these models to public organisations, this was with the aim to adapt and assist with institutional reforms (Wallis and McLoughlin, 2007:329).

According to Van Wart (2003:215) very limited research has been done regarding public service leadership and not much has been explored in this discipline. It is important to note at the outset that the public service serves a platform for politicians elect to pursue their mandates as per the ruling party's manifesto. It is therefore important for politicians to create strategic visions where senior managers appointed in the public service are therefore then expected to translate, align and articulate these political visions and sell it to employees at all levels in the public service. Orazi *et al.* (2013) indicate that although there are scattered strands of literature on public service leadership, leadership in the public service is developing as a unique and independent field in public administration and management studies. However, discussions in public sector leadership still remain fragmented when compared to leadership research in the private sector.

Van Wart (2003:221) defined public service leadership as achieving objectives efficiently and in a prescribed manner. It also entails supporting and growing the employees responsible for obtaining the desired results, while taking environmental requirements into account. This definition has been considered and categorised as the most acceptable definition to be used when defining public service leadership. In recent year's leadership in the public and private sectors has been shown to be operating in similar ways and to be moving closer to each other, whereas in the past they were considered to be distinctively different. This has been observed with many developed country governments (e.g. UK and USA) where these governments are moving towards a public service modernisation agenda (Van Wart, 2003; O'Reilly and Reed,

2010; Orazi *et al.*, 2013). There are also signs of more commercial transactions taking place within the public service which in the past only resonated within the private sector.

Gill (2011:49) indicates that leadership in the public service needs to be valued more and due to the continuous change noted in the public service, this presents a perpetual challenge to senior managers in the public sector. There still exists much debate around the distinctions of public and private sector leadership and the way in which they influence the leadership process.

Kenmore (2009) has indicated that a unique challenge identified with leadership in the public sector is that there has been a move from the normal traditional, operational, practical, and advice-giving roles to that of leadership roles which involve collaboration and networking. According to Metcalfe and Metcalfe (2009:14) leadership involvement is the ability of leaders to lead with competence by showing concern for others by allowing them to do what needs to be done, encouraging them to raise questions, working towards building a shared vision, inspiring others, promoting team spirit, promoting a culture of development and being sensitive to change through networking and facilitation. Gill (2011:48) on the other hand is of the view that poor public service performance is attributed to the lack of management in respect of management quality which results in having the lack of management training to manage people productively. In addition, the author also indicates that the lack of leadership is one ghost which still haunts the public service although government has made many attempts to exorcise it (Gill, 2011:48). When comparing the private sector to the public service, central to leadership is to ensure there is organisational effectiveness and commitment by employees.

A study by Kakabadse, Kakabadse and Myers (1996:377-396), explored and examined the concept of leadership in the public service in comparison to private sector organisations. The authors concluded that there are similarities in terms of leadership practice between the public and private sector organisations, but most importantly they determined that freedom of choice and not organisational context was fundamental in driving leaders' behaviour.

In contrast to this, Ingraham and Getha-Taylor (2004:96) established that the retention of effective leaders is not only a concern for the private sector but the same applies to the public service as well and leadership in public service organisations is far different from leading in the private sector. This difference emanates from the perceptions of top level leaders especially when it comes to taking risk, leadership development, organisational approaches and decision making. The differences in attitudes, approaches, challenges and constraints that leaders face today could also be largely attributed to the different personalities of leaders found in public and private sector (Orazi *et al.*, 2013). However, in the public and private sector similarities

exist in respect of their social commitment and environmental responsibilities, as well as the attitudes of employees to their immediate managers (Knies and Leisink, 2014). Ingraham and Getha-Taylor (2004:96) indicate that this does not mean that public service organisations should not worry about leadership because of these differences, but it is clear that leadership should ensure there is effectiveness and the organisation has the ability to adapt to change which is important. The above studies have indicated opposing views to public service leadership when compared to the private sector making it difficult to assess the validity of which conclusion is relevant, but both views are relevant. Public service leadership studies undertaken after 2003 by authors such as (Lindorff, 2009; Van Wart, 2003) made a comparison with private sector leadership and suggested that public service leaders endure higher accountability to varying stakeholders and are exposed to high levels of bureaucracy, and they show low levels of satisfaction due to excessive demands placed on them but personify high levels of motivation.

Fernandez, Cho and Perry (2010) in their study explored integrated leadership and performance in the public sector. These authors then introduced the concept of integrated leadership and found a positive relationship with performance in their study.

Fernandez *et al.* (2010:308-323) argued that integrated leadership requires that leaders play five roles in order to achieve success in the public service. The first role is task oriented leadership which encompasses different types of leadership behaviour to support the realisation of the goals of the group and to assist in clarifying them as well as arranging group assignments. The second role is relations oriented leadership which includes the behaviours of leaders to address concerns regarding the well-being of their subordinates and leaders to ensure good relations amongst them. The third role is change oriented leadership which involves leaders improving strategic decisions; playing the change agent, encouraging new ideas and thinking; making changes to processes, products or services if necessary and most importantly influencing employees to commit to changes (Alyusef and Zhang, 2016; Yukl, 2002:65). The fourth role is diversity-oriented leadership which focuses on what integrated leadership consists of and looks at relationships between diversity and performance (Moldogaziev and Silvia, 2015). The fifth and final role is integrity-oriented leadership, which involves the political and institutional environment under which public managers function under conditions of legal and regulatory demands, and are forced to ensure employees are treated in a fair and objective manner, to ensure that their service benefits are met and not compromised (Tummers and Knies, 2016; Orazi *et al.*, 2013).

Research evidence by (Knies and Leisink, 2014; Vermeeren, Kuipers and Steijn, 2014) has indicated that in the public service there is a need for a clear sense of purpose (mission),

direction (vision), value, engagement and empowerment. It can further be pronounced that the public sector shares similar relations in respect of its social commitment and environmental responsibilities to that of the private sector. This also includes the attitudes of employees to their immediate managers (Knies and Leisink, 2014). In addition Dinh *et al.*, (2014:41) categorised public service leadership under emerging leadership theories, and pointed out that this domain of leadership is still underdeveloped and the body of knowledge is still growing.

However, from a thematic perspective within emerging leadership theories, public service leadership is placed under top management. The study focuses on the role of leadership in respect of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles.

3.9 South African public service context

According to Andrews *et al.* (2011:643) the public service is required to balance strategic directions and implementation styles to achieve performance improvements. This implies that the South African public service face many challenges and that there is a need for an all-encompassing strategy implementation model to be tailored specifically for the public service. This model should be structured in such a way that explains the strategy implementation process, including the interactive effects of its variables which will have an influence on it. This study sets out to achieve this. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (40-41) - (hereafter referred to as the Constitution) specifies that government is structured under three distinct levels, making up a national level, a provincial level and a local level. The role at the national level is to formulate and make policy, rules and regulations concerning the rights and obligations of its citizens as well as fulfil its commitment to service delivery. The role at the provincial level is to ensure that its facilities such as its abattoirs, emergency services, planning, cultural matters, roads and traffic systems meet the required standards and regulations and are maintained accordingly. At the local level, government is responsible for its municipal facilities at the grass root level in respect of its markets, abattoirs, roads, pollution and street vendors (Department of public service and administration (DPSA), 2003:15).

These levels of government as mentioned above have very distinctive features (this means each level operates in its own unique way), are interdependent (meaning that all three levels are mandated to encourage cooperation and respect the jurisdictions under which each operates) and interrelated (this means having one system to address governance and intergovernmental interactions within the three levels (Constitution, 1996:40-41)). The different levels of the South African government system are depicted in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Spheres of the South African Government System

SPHERES	LEGISLATURE	EXECUTIVE	ADMINISTRATION
NATIONAL	Parliament	President and Cabinet	Director Generals and departments
PROVINCIAL	Legislature	Premiers and Executive Councils	Heads of Department and staff
LOCAL	Council	Mayors and Mayoral Committees	Municipal Managers, Heads of Departments and staff

Source: Authors own synthesis

1. The Legislature (made up of politically elected members) as per the Constitution is responsible to represent the public, ratify policies and laws and provide an oversight function of the work undertaken by the executive and government departments (Constitution, 1996:42-82).
2. The Executive (i.e. Cabinet) is responsible for ensuring effective co-ordination during the making of policies and laws and its implementation thereof by the relevant government entities (Constitution, 1996:83-102).
3. The Administration involves the various departments and its public officials with the responsibility of doing the work of government, honouring its mandates to service delivery and is accountable to Cabinet (Constitution, 1996:195-197). Cabinet is made up of the Head of State, which is the president of the country, a deputy president and an assembly of ministers. The election of the head of state takes place at the first sitting of the National Assembly after the country's general election.

The judiciary is also part of government and operates autonomously. The role of the judiciary is to protect its citizens and to ensure there is no interference or influence that could stem from government. The Constitution (1996:165-180) makes clear that it functions autonomously and serves as the bedrock in the country's fight to maintain its democracy and to ensure its sovereignty is upheld. The role of the judiciary will not be discussed further as its functions and responsibilities stand outside and do not include the making of policy or implementation in government.

The focus of this research is taken from the angle of the effectiveness of the administration systems of departments specifically related to The Department of Trade and Industry (dti) in

an effort to explore the styles of leadership towards the implementation of strategy, in order to fulfil its mandate.

3.9.1 Powers, role and functions of National Government

The role of Parliament is to approve laws and policies of the country. Parliament is made up by the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces (NCOP). According to section 42 of the Constitution, The National Assembly “is elected to represent the people and to ensure government by the people under the Constitution. It does this by choosing the President, by providing a national forum for public consideration of issues, by passing legislation and by scrutinizing and overseeing executive action” (RSA, 1996:1271). The National Council of Provinces (NCOP) represents the various provinces in South Africa and tables all provincial interests at the national sphere of government. This is done through participation in a national legislative process and also includes a national forum where the public is given an opportunity to submit issues relating to the provinces. The NCOP is also allowed to question or argue and make a vote to any law or policy on behalf of provinces, where provinces could be affected by the laws or policies (DPSA, 2003:17).

After elected as President by the National Assembly the President appoints his cabinet of ministers to represent the executive (RSA, 1996:1305). The ministers appointed serve as political representatives in government. All government departments have mandates and are accountable for ensuring the laws and policies passed by Parliament or Cabinet are in fact implemented. A Director General who serves as the accounting officer is appointed for each department accompanied by the appointments of Deputy Director Generals (Executive Managers) and public officials (staff) to undertake the work of the department. Each department is responsible for formulating and implementing its own departmental strategy to ensure the enactment of the legislated laws and policies are put into practice (DPSA, 2003:18).

In this respect each department is responsible for preparing its own budget, undertaking its work and fulfilling its mandate. Every department’s budget is incorporated into the national budget administered by National Treasury (Department of National Treasury) and endorsed by Parliament. The Department of National Treasury (DNT) holds the responsibility for balancing government’s income and expenditure (DNT, 1999:13). The Presidency coordinates the work of government and supports ministers and departments by providing strategic direction. The Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) housed in the Presidency assists in planning, monitoring and evaluating the overall progress of government to achieve its strategic goals. This is done through the signing of Service Delivery Agreements

between each department and the President. The signing of these agreements is coordinated and facilitated through DPME (DPME, 2011:6)

For the purpose of this research and within the above context the department selected for this research is the Department of Trade and Industry (dti). The work of DPME is informed and aligned to South Africa's Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) in conjunction the priorities as set out in the electoral mandate. DPME adopts an outcomes based approach to planning, monitoring and evaluating the work of government through integration and coordination contained in twelve (12) prioritised outcomes (DPME, 2010:13).

The President then signs service delivery agreements with each minister, including key stakeholders to support and deliver on the prioritised deliverables. The objective is to ensure better performance and monitoring to improve sound leadership practices and to have it cascaded to different levels of leadership. In this regard, DPME partners with various selected departments are required to undertake audits and offer support with the development and implementation of their action plans arising from each department's strategy so as to address identified areas of weaknesses (DPME, 2010:19).

The Department of Trade and Industry (dti) is responsible for ensuring the achievement of specific outcomes as mandated in the electoral process through the signing of a delivery agreement called the "International Cooperation Trade and Security Cluster (ICTS) Delivery Agreement". This agreement serves as a charter which is negotiated to reflect the commitment of those directly responsible in the service delivery process. This involves collaborative efforts in a timely manner to deliver and achieve specific outcomes. The delivery agreement is signed by Ministers of the respective departments with the President and is accompanied by a Program of Action (PoA) from each department that details its outputs, targets, indicators and the key activities necessary to achieve its outcomes. This process is reviewed annually to assess progress and is monitored and evaluated by the Department of Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) in the Presidency (DPME, 2010:22-24).

The Department of Trade and Industry (dti) will only be able to achieve and realise the implementation of its outcomes through sound leadership with well-designed and aligned departmental strategies that are properly executed to help deliver on its mandate and strategic priorities. Therefore senior managers in the Department of Trade and Industry (dti) will have to show the way through their respective strategies, instil shared values in pursuit of its vision, goals and its purpose as set out.

3.10 Strategy implementation success

Organisations have more than one goal and numerous ways of evaluating performance (Favero, Meier and O'Toole, 2014). Most of the theoretical and empirical research on public service leadership has shown positive results in respect of high performance ratings, motivated and satisfied employees and high effectiveness ratings by subordinates and senior managers (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). This study builds on the notion that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles affect the leader's strategy implementation through the achievement of targets as indicated in their performance plans. The leaders' perceptions of strategy implementation, achievement of performance targets against business plans, skills development plans and the usage of allocated resources will be assessed.

3.10.1 Perceptions of strategy implementation

Most studies undertaken in the public service investigated job satisfaction outcomes which depend largely on how public service employees are able to fulfil their daily job expectations (Giauque, Ritz, Varone and Anderfuhren-Biget, 2012; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Job satisfaction is a well-researched construct related to individual behavioural outcomes (Den Hartog, Boon, Verburg and Croon, 2013) which focused on employees' experience of their job (Giauque *et al.*, 2012). According to Taylor (2007:939) "employees who are satisfied with their jobs will perceive that their jobs fulfil, or allows for the fulfilment of, values that are important to them." Empirical studies have indicated that job satisfaction is an emotion felt by an employee about his or her job or it can be associated with a mind-set involving different aspects of a job (Turkyilmaz, Akman, Ozkan and Pastuszak, 2011:677). Job satisfaction has been described as the "positive emotional state resulting from employees' appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Turkyilmaz *et al.*, 2011:677). Various factors lead to job satisfaction and are commonly referred to as hygiene and motivating factors. Turkyilmaz *et al.* (2011:677) identify factors that could play a role in triggering job satisfaction and they include "achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement". On the other hand factors that prevent job satisfaction, often resulting in dissatisfaction of the job include "administrative policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal conditions and working conditions" (Turkyilmaz *et al.*, 2011:677).

The literature review indicates that the construct of job satisfaction is being re-examined even though it has been widely developed by both academics and practitioners. Recently it has been considered a key construct to provide an opinion regarding one's general emotion and thinking with regard to his or her job and working environment to determine whether the needs of an employee is being satisfied in a job. Public service researchers like Giauque *et al.*, (2012);

Turkyilmaz *et al.* (2011); have indicated that job satisfaction is more a subjective qualitative indicator rather than an objective indicator of the working environment. This indicates that job satisfaction has taken many forms in respect of individual reactions to divergent views between personal aspirations and the real working environment. This is applicable to where employees perceive similarities between their aspirations and that of their working environment, resulting in them increasing or sustaining their level of aspirations. On the other hand if there is incongruence, the level of aspiration is likely to decrease or be maintained. Therefore, employees have a choice of two related job satisfaction possibilities that could heighten or reduce the level of satisfaction. In cases where employees have reduced their level of aspirations, results have shown that job satisfaction has been positive. When aspirations are maintained employees are bound to be unhappy or dissatisfied, experiencing frustration (Giauque *et al.*, 2012).

3.10.2 Performance targets of business units/ divisions against business plan

Performance involves the functioning of an organisation and is the result of successful implementation (Ramaseshan, Ishak and Rabbanee, 2013). Public institutions have more than one goal and numerous ways of evaluating performance (Favero *et al.*, 2014). Most theoretical and empirical research on leadership has shown positive results in respect of high performance ratings, motivated and satisfied employees and high effectiveness ratings by subordinates and senior level managers (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). This study builds on the notion that leadership styles affect a leader's success in strategy implementation on the basis of how successful a strategic plan can be implemented in relation to the achievement of outcomes in respect of its goals and strategic priorities. This view is consistent with related literature research on implementation success (Elbanna *et al.*, 2014; Miller, 1997).

It is worthy to note that some public service research that was undertaken investigated the impact of work related outcomes (Williams and Anderson, 1991) to determine how public service employees fulfilled their daily job expectations (Giauque *et al.*, 2012) and objectives. In essence the term outcome refers to some natural end state (Day, Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001). In an attempt to assess service delivery achievements in the South African public service, an outcomes based approach has been adopted for the South African public service and championed by the Department of Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME, 2010:1-57). In this respect each government department is obliged to sign a service delivery agreement attached with specific service delivery outcomes. These service delivery outcomes further indicate specific outputs, indicators, targets and activities to be achieved in which performance is assessed through the Management Performance Assessment Tool (MPAT). Within this context, service delivery outcomes are further translated into strategic priorities which are reflected in South Africa's Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) guiding the

South African public services' planning process, resource allocation, development of strategic plans, its budgetary requirements and business planning process. In achieving service delivery outcomes leadership therefore becomes a key driving force as it is the main decision maker. Zhu, Chew and Spangler (2005) found that leadership plays a significant role in achieving organisational outcomes, and in respect of transformational leadership, the authors found that transformational leadership styles exhibited by senior managers motivate and inspire employees to achieve organisational and individual excellence. These findings have been consistent with results of previous studies (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996).

The achievement of service delivery outcomes for this study will be directed from the cognitive criterion domain established by Hiller, DeChurch, Murase and Doty (2011) to assess senior managers on strategy implementation. They will be assessed based on determining the effectiveness of service delivery outcomes (business plan scoring matrix), strategic priorities and overall job satisfaction. In relation to the above, the Department of Trade and Industry (dti) is responsible for the following outcomes (dti's Strategic Plan, 2015-2020):

- i) "Outcome 4: Decent employment through inclusive growth path";
- ii) "Outcome 7: Vibrant equitable and sustainable rural communities with food security for all";
- iii) "Outcome 11: Creating a better South Africa and contributing to a better and safer Africa in a better world"; and
- iv) "Outcome 12: An efficient, effective and development oriented public service and an empowered fair and inclusive citizenship".

Each outcome is further translated into specific sub outcomes, outputs, indicators, targets and activities which form part of the dti's overarching strategy and subsequent divisional and business unit level strategies which are further cascaded and translated to divisional and business unit level business plans. Implementation of strategy and of business plans are reported on a quarterly basis which is then consolidated and reported to DPME. Table 3.2 below illustrates an example of how a service delivery outcome reflects achievement and is reported in the programme of action at a national departmental level (DPME, 2010; dti's Strategic Plan, 2015-2020; dti's Annual Performance Plan, 2015-2018).

Table 3.2: Example of reporting a service delivery outcome in the South African public service

“Outcome 11: Create a better South Africa, contribute to a better and safer Africa in a better world”			
Sub Outcome1	SA’s national priorities advanced through bilateral engagements		
MTSF Actions	Indicator	Target	Performance
Increased sales of the manufactured value-added exports in accordance with Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP) priority sectors with a focus on emerging and traditional markets through a product and market diversification strategy	Ac	R 20 billion by 2014/2015	R2,6 billion
Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows into SA	Increased FDI	R40 billion by 2014/2015	R44,9 billion

Source: Authors own synthesis

3.11 Chapter summary

Chapter 3 examined existing literature on leadership and strategy implementation. The concept of leadership was defined distinguishing the term of leader from leadership. This chapter included discussions on leadership development, leadership theories with a focus on new genre leadership theories and emerging leadership theories. This provides an in-depth understanding of the evolution of leadership which led to discussions on leadership and strategy and the actions of leaders during strategy implementation. The primary focus of this chapter covered leadership styles, the implementation of strategy providing a review of the research undertaken on transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles and its link to the exploration and exploitation of core competencies. In addition this chapter also included a discussion on leadership in the public service, drawing in on the South African public service context. The conclusion of this chapter included a discussion on strategy implementation and the factors that will be used to measure strategy implementation. The next chapter will focus on the research methodology of the study and discussions will centre on the research philosophy, approach, strategy, data techniques and the procedures that will be followed.

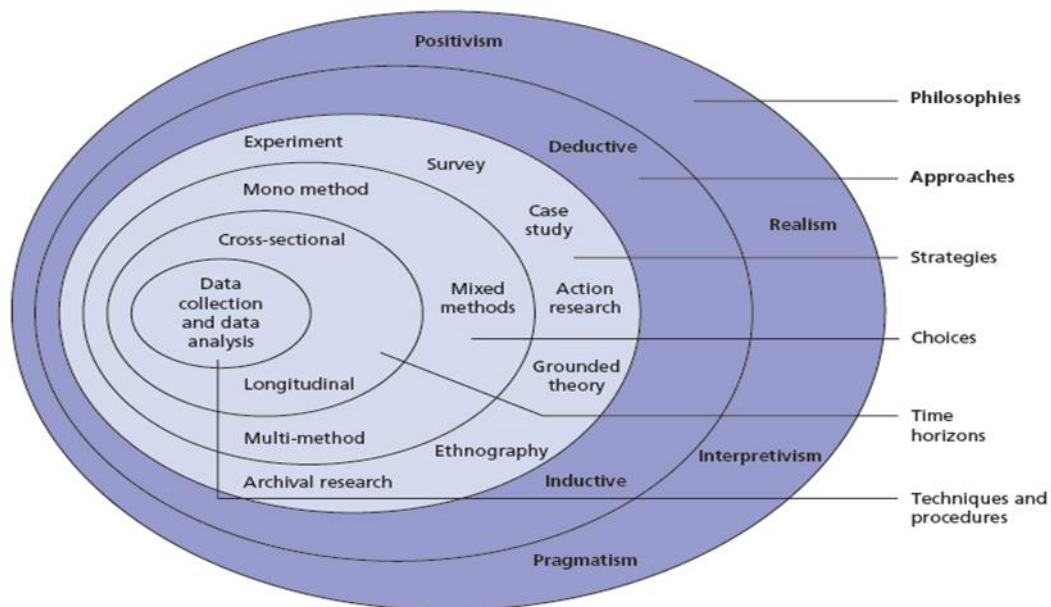
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This section introduces the research design and methodology in this study. The concept of the research onion by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2012:108), as depicted in Figure 4.1 below, has been adapted to help understand and guide the research design and process. The quintessence of the research onion approach is to peel away the layers of the onion to get to the centre or core of the research and this requires a step by step approach. The layers in Figure 4.1 below are simple and self-explanatory. The first layer of the research onion focuses on the research philosophy, the second layer on the research approach, the third layer on the research strategy, the fourth layer on the research choice, the fifth layer on time horizons and the final layer on the techniques and procedures that will be implemented. This study has been further integrated with the research design approaches by Creswell (2009) to include philosophical assumptions as to what establishes the knowledge claims, the strategies of inquiry and the procedures for data collection and analysis.

Figure 4.1: The research process "onion"



Source: Adpated from Saunders *et al.* (2012:108)

4.2 Research philosophy

A research philosophy is one of the most important aspects of the research process as it helps in the development of knowledge and guides how knowledge can be related to research. Saunders *et al.* (2012:108-119) explain various philosophies in their research onion, indicating that a research philosophy is a belief or an idea regarding the collection, interpretation, and analysis of data collected. They further indicate that a chosen research philosophy holds important beliefs in which we view the world. The philosophical thinking behind this research has been guided from an **epistemology perspective** which will focus on the researchers view as to what constitutes acceptable knowledge in the field of strategic management and leadership. Tashakorri and Teddlie (2013:129) indicate two central questions of epistemological assumptions based on the ideas one holds to inform research. The first is “what can be known” and the second is “what it means to know something”. They further indicate that the above two questions are of critical importance if research is understood as a process through which knowledge is generated.

In addition there have been longstanding debates surrounding research paradigms and several schools of thought have been identified that have led to the so called “paradigm wars” (Creswell, 2014:176). These debates centred on whether paradigms and methods should be mixed. On the one hand of the debate some researchers assert that paradigms and methods should not be mixed. On the other hand some have contended that certain methods can be used in specific situations. However, the pragmatists argue against a false dichotomy between the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms and support the efficient application of both approaches (Cameron, 2009:140). This presents the mixed method study concept in which the incompatible research is rejected wherein the research paradigm can remain separate but can be mixed into another research paradigm (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The research philosophy chosen for this study has been based on the pragmatic worldview, commonly referred to as **pragmatism**. The researchers’ choice of the pragmatic worldview was to draw on “what works” while making use of different approaches to give importance to the research problem and question by assessing subjective and objective knowledge (Morgan, 2007). Pragmatism arises out of actions, situations and consequences that move away from focusing on methods. The pragmatic paradigm has no set methodological requirements for social inquiry, but it does have a consequential action-knowledge framework to guide inquiry (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2013:132). This has allowed the researcher to choose any method based on its appropriateness to the problem at hand. This indicates that the pragmatic paradigm advances mixing multiple sources of evidence to attain and change information

where results can be derived and where remedies are put into place to avoid problems that could occur.

4.3 Research approach

Given the above context the second layer of the research onion is the research approach (Saunders *et al.*, 2012:110). The research approach involves a method of creating new knowledge and heightening the researchers own understanding of the subject or problem. This involves following a deductive or inductive approach. The deductive approach develops a theory and hypothesis or hypotheses, followed by a research strategy to test the hypotheses. On the other hand the inductive approach involves collecting data and develops theory as a result of data analysis. Inductive approaches commonly involve qualitative research while deductive approaches involve quantitative research (Saunders *et al.*, 2012; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

This study uses both the inductive and deductive research approaches, combined with the assumption that no discrepancies exist between the two approaches and it is perfectly acceptable to combine these two approaches with the same set of research. The inductive approach has been employed to create new knowledge and the deductive approach has been employed for hypothesis testing, thus new knowledge on the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation will be created and further tested to determine the generalizability to the larger population.

4.4 Research strategy

The third layer of the research onion process is the research strategy and involves the plan of action the researcher decides to take to pave the way in which the research will unfold. The research strategy is considered to be the most crucial part of the study as it provides the structure to the research. Research strategies employed for qualitative research include case studies, action research and ethnographic research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011) which are subjective by nature. On the other hand quantitative research strategies include survey and experiments (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010) and are objective and positivist in nature.

The research strategy employed for this study is premised on two distinct strategies. A survey has been selected for the quantitative research and phenomenology for the qualitative research complemented with a mixed methods **explanatory sequential design**. The **explanatory sequential design** procedure is discussed further under Section 4.5.2. The **survey strategy** has been selected to fulfil the objectives of this study and to answer the

research question. Survey studies are linked to the deductive approach with the potential to advocate likely relationships between variables whereby models can be developed to show these relationships (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). On one hand the survey strategy is most popular and gives control to the research process and is further considered to be the most suitable method to collect data and describe large populations that are challenging to examine directly. On the other hand it is time consuming with regard to designing the questionnaire to piloting and analysing the results even with the use of an appropriate software package.

Researchers have numerous research designs available to them (Mouton, 2003:148). The survey methodology makes use of questionnaires which are the preferred research instrument designed specifically to allow for information gathering and analysis. These are generally obtained from participants who are in possession of the required information and are representative of a larger group (Babbie, 2012:255-256). This methodology is also suitable to obtain information about an individual's actions, viewpoints, opinions and approaches (Neuman, 2006:257).

On the other hand there are also various methods for survey research that can be adopted to realise the study's primary and secondary objectives to answer the research question. Babbie (2010:266-285) indicates three key modes for the administering of a survey and these include:

- "Self-administered questionnaires in which respondents are asked to complete the questionnaires themselves";
- "Surveys interviewed by interviewers in face-to face encounters" and
- "Surveys conducted by telephone."

The survey in this study was chosen as self-administered by respondents who completed the survey questionnaires on their own. The **Phenomenology** strategy has been selected to provide a detailed description of the leadership style dimensions and strategy implementation in the South African public service context. Finlay (2009) indicates that phenomenological research begins with a description of real experiences and language that is used on a daily basis whilst ensuring abstract generalisations are avoided. In this study the researcher reflected and analysed all descriptions and provided a synthesis which include categorising general themes in relation to the phenomenon. According to Creswell, Hanson, Plano Clark and Morales (2007), phenomenology has the ability to reduce the experiences of people to see a phenomenon as a widespread encounter; in essence it is to have a better understanding of the phenomenon.

4.5 Research choice

The research choice is the fourth layer of the research onion and the **mixed method** structure has been adopted for this study. In research studies where a quantitative approach or a qualitative approach is unable to develop different perspectives or provide an understanding of the research problem or question, a mixed method approach becomes suitable. Mixed methods research involves the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative research data in a single study to better understand a research problem. This type of research method provides for a rich understanding of the research problem rather than when it is approached individually (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Mixing quantitative and qualitative methods can heighten a study that is suitable for both paradigms (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2013). “A tenet of mixed methods research is that researchers should mindfully create designs that effectively answer their research questions” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:20).

4.5.1 The nature of mixed method research

Mixed method research initially started off as triangulation which involved a one phase design that implemented both quantitative and qualitative methods in investigations of the same phenomenon in a study (Denzin, 1978). Its use emerged due in part to recognising the strengths and weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). Jick (1979) indicated that mixed methods came about as a result of the various notions around the conceptions of quantitative and qualitative methods and mixed methods should be seen as complementary rather than as incompatible. A mixed methods approach may be unsuitable for all research problems or purposes and its weaknesses may inhibit its use. A common weakness noted in research is its design, which involves the mix of the quantitative and qualitative approaches (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). Another commonly identified problem using mixed methods is the number of designs that exist for this type of research approach (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009).

4.5.2 Rationale for selecting a mixed method study

The mixed methods design is not a new area of research but an area of research that is evolving. When selecting a mixed method design it is important to consider and assess if the method chosen will address the research problem and answer the research questions. Creswell *et al.* (2007) suggested four ways in which to decide the appropriate mixed method design to address a research problem:

- a) When the study requires both a quantitative and qualitative approach (triangulation);

- b) When the study requires a second source of data to be enhanced (embedded design);
- c) When the study requires an explanation of the quantitative findings (explanatory design);
and
- d) When the study requires to be explored quantitatively (exploratory design).

As mentioned earlier the study employs the **explanatory sequential mixed methods design**. This method involves two phases, the first phase involves the collection of quantitative data, in which the results are analysed and used to inform the second phase. The results obtained in the first phase forms a basis and guide as to the selection of participants for the qualitative phase. This process also further informs the kind of questions to be developed for the qualitative phase. However, the intention behind this design is for the qualitative data to provide a deeper level of understanding and details emanating from the results of the first phase (Creswell, 2014). The central premise for selecting this design is to help understand the research problem through the quantitative data and analysis, and to have a better in-depth understanding of it through the qualitative data and analysis rather than employing a single approach (Ivankova *et al.*, 2006, Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In this study the researcher will provide a general view of the findings and thereafter provide a detailed interpretation of the phenomenon ensuring that both approaches are captured appropriately. The advantage of this design is that it is straightforward and provides an opportunity for the quantitative results to be explored in detail. The mixed method design becomes particularly interesting and valuable when the quantitative phase yields unexpected results (Morse, 1991). One of the limitations of the mixed method design is that it takes longer and becomes challenging with regards to the resources required to gather and evaluate two different types of data (Ivankova *et al.*, 2006).

4.5.3 Selecting a mixed methods strategy of inquiry

There are several criteria that can be used to select a strategy of inquiry for a mixed method study. Creswell (2009) suggests four decisions go into selecting a mixed methods strategy of inquiry. These include implementation, priority, integration and the theoretical perspective. Figure 4.2 illustrates the decision choices for determining a mixed strategy of inquiry by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Figure 4.2: Decision choices for determining a mixed strategy of inquiry

Implementation	Priority	Integration	Theoretical Perspective
Non Sequence concurrent	Equal	At Data Collection	Explicit
Sequential-Qualitative first	Qualitative	At Data Analysis	
Sequential-Quantitative first	Quantitative	At Data Interpretation	
		With Some Combination	Implicit

Source: Creswell and Plano Clark (2011)

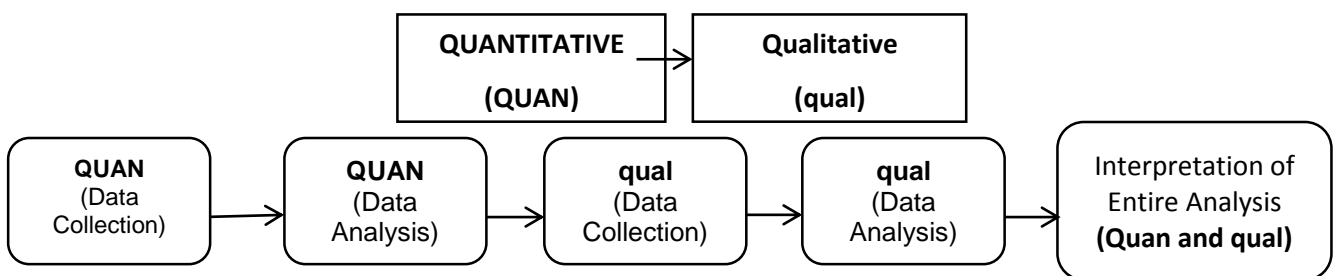
Implementation refers to the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data in phases (sequentially) or data can be gathered at the same time (concurrently). For example when data is collected in phases either qualitative or quantitative data can come first, this is dependent on the intent of the researcher. In sequential explanatory designs, data is collected over the period of time in two phases. In the first phase the researcher will collect and analyse the quantitative data and in the second phase the researcher will collect and analyse qualitative data related to the outcomes from the first quantitative, phase. In this study the decision of the quantitative-qualitative data collection and analysis process in the explanatory sequential design has been guided by the purpose and the research questions of the study which is aimed to develop a deeper understanding and explanation of the quantitative results (Creswell, 2014).

Priority is the second consideration which involves whether greater priority or weight is given to the quantitative or qualitative approach specifically with regards to data and analysis. The priority could be equal or skewed towards either qualitative or quantitative data. The choice of emphasis is informed by research questions, practical constraints for data collection and the need to understand one form of data before moving to the next or the audience preference (Azorin and Cameron, 2010:98). In explanatory sequential design, priority is normally given to the quantitative approach because the quantitative data collection comes first in the sequence which also represents a major aspect of the mixed-methods data collection process depth (Ivankova *et al.*, 2006). The qualitative component which is smaller follows in the second phase of the research. This however depends on the goals of the study as well as the scope of the quantitative and qualitative research questions, and the design of the different phases, in which a researcher may give priority to the qualitative data collection and analysis (Morgan, 1998), or both. These decisions are often made at the study design stage before the data collection begins or sometimes at the data collection and analysis process. In this study priority will be given to the quantitative data collection and analysis and this decision is influenced by the purpose of the study to identify and explain the dimensions of leadership styles in achieving strategy implementation. The quantitative phase of the study will focus primarily on revealing the dimensions of leadership styles and strategy implementation. The goal of the qualitative phase is to explain in detail the quantitative results.

Integration of qualitative and quantitative data may take place at different stages in the research process: data collection, data analysis, interpretation or in combinations. Integration involves the mixing of quantitative and qualitative data. For example in data collection mixing might involve combining open ended questions with closed- ended questions in a survey. Sequential explanatory designs involve the connection of the two phases while selecting the participants for the qualitative follow-up analysis based on the quantitative results from the first phase (Creswell *et al.*, 2007). In addition connection could also be for the development of the qualitative data collection protocols, grounded in the results of the initial quantitative phase with the view to investigate those results in more depth through collecting and analysing the qualitative data in the second phase of the study depth (Ivankova *et al.*, 2006). In this study the quantitative and qualitative phases were connected in the initial stage of the research process to help select participants whom have also participated and responded to the quantitative phase for the qualitative phase of the survey, phase based on their numeric scores. The second connecting point included formulating interview questions for the qualitative data collection based on the quantitative results. The quantitative and qualitative approaches were mixed at the study design stage introducing the quantitative and qualitative research questions and the integration of the results from both the quantitative and qualitative phases for interpretation of the outcomes of the entire study depth (Ivankova *et al.*, 2006).

Theoretical perspective is the final factor which involves consideration as to whether a larger theoretical perspective will guide the entire design. Although all designs have implicit theories, however, mixed methods can make the theory explicit as a guiding framework. The integration of the qualitative and quantitative data analysis will be **connected** and the theorising will be **implicit**. Figure 4.3 illustrates the strategy of inquiry for this study.

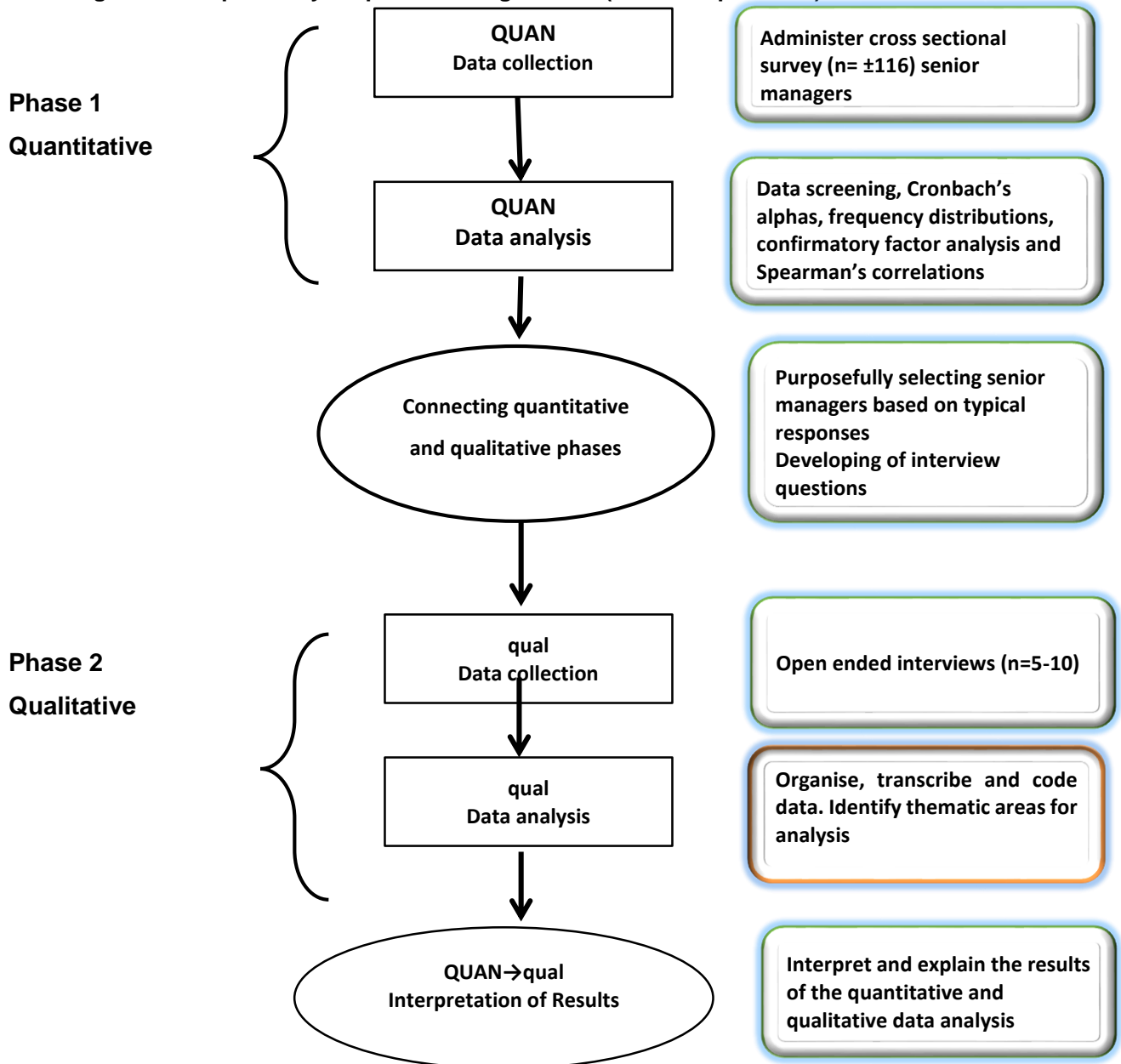
Figure 4.3: Explanatory sequential design strategy of inquiry



Source: Authors own synthesis

Figure 4.4 below represents a visual and nuanced perspective of the research activities for this study. It further indicates the priority of the quantitative phase and shows the connecting points between the quantitative and qualitative phases as well as where the integration or mixing of the results of both the quantitative and qualitative phases occur.

Figure 4.4: Explanatory Sequential Design Model (QUAN emphasized)



Source: Authors own synthesis

4.6 Time horizons

The time horizon is the final layer of the research onion before it reaches the core aspects of the research which are the data collection and analysis. The final layer highlights the time horizons over which the researcher will undertake the research to address the research problem at a particular time. In this study a cross-sectional study has been employed. In cross-sectional studies survey strategies are often used (Saunders *et al.*, 2012:155) which is the case in this research which seeks to examine the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation at a particular point in time.

4.7 Research methods (techniques and procedures)

- **The population**

According to Saunders *et al.* (2012: 212) population is “the full set of cases from which a sample is taken”. In this study the population includes all senior managers from Deputy Director Generals (DDG’s), Chief Directors (CD’s) and Directors in the dti. The reason for selecting the above senior managers is due to their roles and responsibilities in providing leadership to the strategic management processes in the public service as set out in the Public Service Handbook (2010). In order to represent the population sampling was done to get a sample for this research.

- **The unit of analysis**

Individual senior managers representing the different divisions, directorates and business units have been identified as the unit of analysis in this study. This study argues that leadership styles are mastered, learnt and used over time by individuals in performing leadership roles. Therefore senior managers are the best unit of analysis.

- **Level of analysis**

The researcher proposes that a multi-phase approach of analysis is employed.

4.8 Mixed method sampling procedure

Sampling procedures are classified into two broad types. The first type is called probability sampling and the second is called non-probability sampling. The units are known in probability samples and the chances of it being included in the sample are high, where statistical inferences are allowed. On the other hand, with non-probability samples there is no possibility for valid inferences to be made about the population (Babbie, 2012). According to Teddlie and Yu (2007) a sampling strategy that is commonly used in mixed methods studies is the stratified purposive sampling, in which groups of interest are divided into strata followed by a selection of small cases to be studied within each strata. The sampling strategy to be employed in this study will follow the purposive or judgemental mixed probability continuum.

Phase 1 involves a survey, and employs the **probability sampling strategy**, a term commonly referred to in probability theory where selection is done randomly (Babbie, 2012). In probability sampling the main idea is to obtain the most suitable depiction of the entire population in question. Probability sampling techniques are mainly found in quantitative research. This technique requires a big sample or subgroups from a population (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). The aim of probability sampling is to achieve representativity which provides for

inferential statistics to be used and also allows for generalizability. The random stratified sampling will be used at random from the sampling frame and will be stratified to make up for the same strata categories for use during the qualitative phase.

Phase 2 of this study follows a non-probability sampling technique employing the **purposive or judgemental sampling type**. The non-probability sampling technique selects cases on the basis of judgement to best answer the research question with the probability that each case is selected from an unknown population (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). On the other hand in the purposive or judgemental sample type, its selection is appropriate only when knowledge is known about the population and purpose of the study (Babbie, 2012:193). Purposive or judgmental sampling is appropriate for the phenomenological part of this study and the **stratified purposive sampling** will be used. A sample of units from each subset has been chosen randomly and independently. The reason for using the stratified sampling is to reduce the level of variability and standard error of estimates.

Through a simple random sample from each stratum or strata the stratified random sample has been obtained. A strata represents a portion or section of the population. The strata consist of Directors, Chief Directors and Deputy Director Generals. The idea of stratified sampling is to ensure that every part of the population that is every stratum is represented. The advantage of using a stratified random sampling is that it has the ability to give a higher precision with the same sample size, alternatively the same precision with a smaller sample. However, stratified sampling has its drawbacks in that a complete frame is needed (Babbie, 2012). The purposive sampling has been used to select the dti's senior managers responsible for strategy implementation and they are the participants of this study.

4.9 Sample frame and size

A sample refers to a collection of elements from which inferences are drawn (Cooper and Schindler, 2006:164). A sample frame "is a listing of units from which the actual sample will be drawn" (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2002:112). The sample size selected for this study was obtained by using the sample size calculator by Raosoft. The minimum recommended size for this study required 116 senior managers at the dti to undertake the survey (www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html). The main respondents included were from the levels of Director General (DG), Deputy Director Generals (DDG's), Chief Directors (CD's) and Directors. These public service officials have been identified as the target in the study to be the main participants. Their roles, responsibilities, functions and positions in the department give them a unique opportunity to view their leadership styles and strategic management activities. Zahra (1991:206) argues that top management responsible for strategy formulation

and implementation, are familiar with the organisation's environment, strategy and structure and are able to see their organisation "holistically".

The sampling procedure used for this research was the non-probability sample technique as this takes care of situations where the complete sampling frame may not be available and it may be difficult to obtain a probability sample. Given that this research pilots the survey, the purposive or judgmental sampling has been selected for this research. Purposive or judgmental sampling is "a type of nonprobability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researchers' judgement about which ones will be the most useful or representative" (Babbie, 2012:193). This has been undertaken through a heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling strategy. The choice of this sampling strategy has been based on the research question and objectives of this study which enables the researcher to collect and analyse data to describe and explain the results.

Therefore the senior managers identified in the public service ranged from Deputy Director Generals to Directors. These were considered to be the most suitable for this research. The ranges of senior managers identified were accessible and had been identified as particular cases due to their involvement in actual strategic decision making, planning and implementation. The judgmental sampling technique was therefore used to define the Deputy Director Generals, Chief Directors and Directors as the units of analysis of this research which involve individual people. The researcher used judgement to select the cases which in the researcher's view would be able to provide the most real information. The units of analysis are what or whom are being studied and in social science research, the most typical units are individual people (Babbie, 2012:98).

4.10 Study area

The qualitative and quantitative study areas focus on senior managers in the Department of Trade and Industry in South Africa from Deputy Director General level to Director levels spanning across all its divisions.

4.11 Mixed method data collection and data analysis

When information or data is collected through primary sources it is important to decide which data collection method to use. However, the choice of data collection is dependent on the researcher's overall judgement on which data is needed for a particular research problem. Moreover Creswell (2014) indicates that the type of answers we are looking for helps inform

the type of analysis we need to do. In this study both qualitative and quantitative data collection and data analysis were employed through the explanatory sequential mixed method design. Data collection and data analysis occurred in two phases with the initial quantitative data collection and data analysis followed by a qualitative data collection and data analysis.

4.11.1 Mixed method data collection

In the mixed method design data is collected in two phases. The first phase requires rigorous quantitative sampling and the second phase, the qualitative phase, requires purposive sampling.

In Phase 1 of the quantitative data collection, survey data is collected using a standardised structured, closed ended questionnaire which was completed by senior managers at each level. The questionnaire was administered electronically through Evasys Version 6.0 which is a web based survey programme for creating and distributing surveys. A web link was then created linking the questionnaire to respondents where respondents were able to complete the survey online. Through the approval from Director General of the dti, all senior managers were invited to participate in the study via email. They were provided with the link to the survey. In the event where the response rate was low, after two weeks of issuing the emailed questionnaire, follow-ups were conducted which also included telephonic follow-ups.

The questionnaire was designed to accommodate close ended questions on the 5 point Likert scale in which respondents had the option to select one choice. The reason for choosing to use the Likert scale was that it helps to improve the measurement levels, which also allows for standardisation of responses under the different categories in the questionnaire. It further helps to establish the strength of the items in the questionnaire. Likert items uses responses such as “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree” and “strongly disagree”. These items are commonly used in the design of Likert scales as well as in other related measurement scales (Babbie, 2012:178-181).

The construction of the Likert scales are commonly used in research studies and were the most appropriate and applicable for this research, wherein the researcher aimed to measure how the leadership styles of senior managers related to issues of strategy implementation. By using the Likert scale respondents were allowed to choose whether they “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neutral”, “disagree” or “strongly disagree” to a list of statements to determine a behaviour or attitude under measure. The Likert scale is the most recognised, widely used

and most commonly used rating scale in survey research. Likert scales are simple, adaptable and easy to tick off.

The Likert scale allows the researcher to get an all-inclusive measurement when a range of items are combined and when various constructs are to be measured. The Likert scale are linked to factor analysis.

Likert scales also have its disadvantages where some computations of various items can produce the same result and responses observed are considered to be weak. Survey responses will be populated and transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to be analysed. The qualitative data collection will build directly from the quantitative results.

Phase 2 involved the qualitative data collection and was undertaken through face to face verbal exchanges with senior managers in the dti and included participants that had been part of the initial quantitative sample. The reason for this is to explore and gain a deeper understanding of the quantitative results. The sample size, participants and questions to be asked were determined during the connecting of the quantitative phase and the qualitative phase. The qualitative follow-up grouped participants and linked them to the quantitative phase according to the different categories. The qualitative data collection was then conducted with senior managers representing the related categories. The interview protocol was semi-structured with open ended questions to interview senior managers at the level of Deputy Director Generals, Chief Directors and Director levels. Each stratum of senior managers was asked the same set of questions. A total of nine (9) interviews were undertaken. These interviews took about 30-45 minutes each and were recorded on an audio tape, with notes taken during the interviews and thereafter transcribed verbatim. The interviews conducted were semi structured and gave the researcher an opportunity to further explore responses that required further explanations to get a better understanding of the phenomenon of strategy implementation.

➤ **Measures**

Some of the measures used in this study have been adapted and taken from previous studies. In instances where scales could not be found, specific scales were then designed and used. Two questionnaires have been developed, the first was a survey questionnaire to be filled by senior managers rating themselves as leaders and secondly an interview questionnaire where selected senior managers were interviewed and asked to respond on questions related to their role and knowledge of strategy implementation.

➤ Leadership styles

Transformational leadership was assessed on twelve (12) items of the multifactor questionnaire (Avolio and Bass, 1995). This included the transformational dimensions of idealised influence (four items: 1-4), inspirational motivation (four items: 5-8) and intellectual stimulation (four items: 9-12). These twelve questions were combined to form the factor referred to as 'transformational leadership'. The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert type scale with "0 = not at all" and "5 = frequently if not always".

Transactional leadership was assessed on eight items of Multifactor Questionnaire (Avolio and Bass, 1995). Following the practice of previous studies (e.g. Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramanian, 1996) the scales of contingent reward behaviour (four items: 16-19) and active management by exceptional behaviour (four items: 20-23) were used to measure transactional leadership. The answer was assessed using the 5 point Likert type scale with "0 = not at all" and "5 = frequently if not always".

Laissez-faire leadership was assessed on four items (26-29) of the Multifactor Questionnaire (Avolio and Bass, 1995). The laissez-faire leadership style was measured to determine if there is an absence of leadership. The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert type scale with "0 = not at all" and "5 = frequently if not always".

The exploration and exploitation of core competencies items were designed by the researcher to determine the degree by which a set of statements applied best described the leadership style of senior managers. The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert type scale with "0 = not at all" and "5 = frequently if not always". The exploration of core competencies were assessed on three items (13-15) and the exploitation of core competencies was assessed on two items (24-25).

➤ Strategy implementation

The items to measure strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction were assessed on two items (30-31) of the Multifactor Questionnaire (Avolio *et al.*, 1999). The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert type scale with "0 = not at all" and "5 = frequently if not always".

There was no relevant parameter found to measure the performance achievement of business units and divisions against business plan targets to realise strategy implementation. These items were designed by the researcher to determine the extent to which a set of statements showed how effective strategic plans had been implemented

or had contributed to strategy implementation. Five items (32-36) were developed to assess service delivery outcomes. The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert scale, with “1 = disagree strongly” to “5 = agree strongly”.

The items for measuring the drivers of strategy implementation have been adapted from the questionnaire developed by Fourie (2007). Five items (37-41) have been adapted. In addition items six items (42-47) have been developed by the researcher. The answers were assessed using the 5 point Likert scale, with “1 = disagree strongly” to “5 = agree strongly”.

For measuring the factors in respect of problems and obstacles to strategy implementation the researcher adopted statements from the questionnaire which had been developed and empirically tested by Professor Hrebiniak (2005), who is a well-known and renowned specialist in strategy implementation. This has been done through careful consideration of the problematic factors and obstacles of strategy implementation found in the literature. Eight items (48-55) have been adopted in respect of problems to strategy implementation and twelve items (56-67) in respect of the obstacles to strategy implementation. The answers to the problems of strategy implementation were assessed using a 5 point Likert scale, with “1 = disagree strongly” to “5 = agree strongly”. The answers to the obstacles of strategy implementation were assessed using a 5 point Likert scale, with “1 = not a problem” to “5 = a major problem”.

➤ **Pilot testing**

A pilot test was undertaken to determine the reliability and validity of the research instrument. According to Babbie (2010:597) a “pilot test is a small-scale study to test a questionnaire, interview checklist or observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions’ validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected”. Results from the pilot test were undertaken to inform if there was a need to modify the research instrument, however results from the pilot test were not incorporated in the main study. Respondents forming part of the pilot study were excluded for the sample of the main study.

4.11.2 Mixed method data analysis

In the explanatory sequential mixed data analysis, the researcher analysed the quantitative and qualitative databases separately. The quantitative results were then used to plan the

qualitative follow-up. This required that careful attention had to be paid to the quantitative results to inform the sampling procedure as well as to point forward to the types of qualitative questions to ask participants (Creswell, 2014).

Phase 1 involved conducting of the quantitative data analysis which was designed to test the proposed conceptual model involving the relationship between the role of leadership style variables and strategy implementation variables. The quantitative data collection was obtained from the Evasys database and transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Science Software (SPSS) for statistical analysis. SPSS was also be used to compute Cronbach alphas, frequency distributions, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Spearman correlation coefficients. The following statistical methods are explained to provide an understanding of these methods that were employed in this study.

- **Cronbach's alpha coefficient**

According to Field (2014:708) the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a statistical technique that measures the internal consistency and reliability for scales. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is one of the most common and widely used statistical techniques for measuring reliability of constructs of two or more. The range for the alpha scores is between 0 and 1. If the alpha value is low this indicates that certain statements do not relate to the factor. In this instance these statements should be ignored from the factor to improve alpha value. If the alpha scores are high this indicates that the scale is reliable.

In this study, the reliability was estimated using the internal consistency method which is the Cronbach's alpha. This was to check for consistency of the questionnaire. Any Cronbach alpha value less than 0.5 will be considered to be unacceptable (Goforth, 2015). Nunnally (1978:464) states that "the minimally acceptable reliability for exploratory research should be in the range of 0.5 to 0.6 while higher values such as 0.80, generally indicate that the measure is highly reliable". Given that this study focuses on positivism of leadership styles and strategy implementation in the South African public service, an alpha score of 0.5 and above will be regarded as an acceptable score of reliability. This acceptable score of reliability has been found in leadership style studies by Saeed, Almas, Anis-ul-Haq and Niazi (2104) and Buble, Juras and Matić (2014).

- **Frequency distributions**

Frequency distributions involve the number of times the various attributes of variables in a sample are observed (Field, 2014:19). They are obtained when data is grouped and categorised according to its size and the number of observations in each category.

(Babbie, 2012:428). Frequency distributions in this study are used to help describe the situation at the dti and make conclusions or inferences of the situation.

- **Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)**

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in this study has been used to test the fit between the variables measured and its constructs. The purpose of using the CFA is to test the research hypotheses, to determine if a relationship exists between the variables observed and its latent variables. The Analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS), a statistical software added to SPSS, was used for the confirmatory factor analysis to determine how well the model fits by reflecting the goodness of fit to its indexes (Byrne, 2010:68). This was conducted to provide the number of items (questions) significantly loading on a factor.

The use of factor analysis is central to this study to reduce data. Babbie (2012:492) defined factor analysis as “a complex algebraic method used to discover patterns among the variations in values of several variables”. This can be achieved by generating artificial dimensions (i.e. factors) that have a high correlation with several real variables that are independent of one another and this complex operation can only be performed with the use of a computer. The definition of factor analysis by Hair *et al.* (1995:366) was referred to as “...a generic term given to class of multivariate statistical methods whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix. Broadly speaking it addresses the problem of analysing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations among a large number of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions known as factors)”. In the researcher’s view factor analysis involves data which can be interpreted by the reader and to produce a solution in the form of factors that makes it useful for the researcher to understand the body of data.

This study used factor analysis to provide an understanding of the factorial validity in the questionnaire. The sections in the questionnaire were arranged around different attributes of leadership styles and strategy implementation. The attributes were further arranged around different dimensions and manipulated through a factor analysis to examine and determine its distinct dimensional type. This study also employed the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) to test if there was sufficient correlation between the distinct dimensional types in the relevant sections of the questionnaire, and this takes place prior to the factor analysis being conducted. A standard factor analysis was undertaken for extraction of data complemented with the Varimax and Kaiser normalisation rotation method. The researcher applied discretion as

to which factors were guided by the number of factors informed by the theory and understanding of the factors.

- **Spearman correlation coefficient**

Given that the questions in the questionnaire are of the Likert-type, Spearman correlations were obtained between the questions. The Spearman's correlation was used to measure the strength of the linear relationship of the two Likert-type variables. This is done to establish the strength of the monotonic relationship between the two variables. If the strength of correlation between the two variables is between -1 and +1 this is called the correlation coefficient. A perfectly positive relationship is indicated by a positive correlation coefficient of +1 and a perfectly negative relationship is indicated by a correlation coefficient of -1. Thus, a strong positive correlation is indicated by any value close to +1 and a strong negative correlation is indicated by any value close to -1. However, when the correlation coefficient is 0 there is no relationship between the two variables (Field, 2014:276).

Phase 2 was undertaken through an inductive approach to explore the data collected. The qualitative data analysis was used to explain in more detail the quantitative results and survey responses (Creswell, 2014). The following steps were undertaken to conduct the inductive analysis of the qualitative data.

Step 1: Collection of raw data and preparation for analysis

Step 1 involved transcribing the data obtained from the audio recorded interviews whilst scanning the interviews and transferring data into a Microsoft Word document (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Step 2: Close reading of the data to gain a sense of the information

Step 2 involved reading the data intently to ascertain an overview of the data whilst reflecting on the overall meaning of the data (Creswell, 2009). The raw data was then read again paying particular attention to its details until the researcher fully understood the themes and events emerging from the text and was familiar with its content (Babbie, 2012).

Step 3: Conducting of the coding process

According to (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2002) the classification and comparing of data are important in data analysis. This step involves the process of coding the text data. The coding

process involves arranging the text in sections or categories before providing an understanding of the data (Creswell, 2009). In this study open coding was employed, in which the codes were suggested through the researcher's examination of and questioning of the data (Babbie, 2012). The themes or categories of strategy implementation were defined during and explained in-depth in this step. During the inductive coding process, themes and categories are commonly constructed from the actual phrases or meanings obtained from specific text segments (Creswell, 2009). The information derived on strategy implementation was also segmented into sub-categories. Due to the small sample size, coding was done on Microsoft Excel with the researcher manually organising, comparing different codes and sorting the data to be used for writing the qualitative study. The coded qualitative data was stored and located on the Microsoft Excel computer program.

Step 4: Overlapping of coding and encoding text

In relation to the common basic rules employed in qualitative coding, there are two different considerations that also exist and are used in qualitative coding. These include:

- a) Segments of text that could be coded into more than one category; and in
- b) Situations where more than 50% of text may not find its way into any category due to its irrelevance to the research objectives (Thomas, 2006).

Step 5: Continuous revision and refining of category system

This step involved the continuous revision and refinement of the explanation of the categories established. For each category and subcategory inclusive of incongruous view points and new understandings were explored. Quotes that reflect core strategy implementation themes were chosen.

4.11.3 Interpretation of quantitative and qualitative results

The order of interpretation in an explanatory sequential mixed method study is to first report the quantitative results of Phase 1 and then to follow with a report of the qualitative results which is Phase 2 (Creswell, 2014). This design then employs a third interpretation form of interpretation on how the qualitative findings help to explain the quantitative results. The intent of this approach is to have the qualitative data help to provide more depth and more insight into the quantitative results. This then was followed through with a discussion which either specified how the qualitative results have expanded or explained the quantitative results.

4.12 Ethical considerations

The researcher ensured that all ethical considerations were taken into account and adhered to. The study could present a risk in that senior managers in the public service may feel stressed to complete the questionnaire, however they were given the option to opt out of the study if they felt uncomfortable during the examination, as leadership and strategy are thorny issues in the public service. With regards to anonymity and confidentiality, respondents were respected during this study specifically when data was being collected and also after the conclusion of the study. Given that this study involves the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation and its assessment in the public service, this could present a problem to senior managers as this process will involve manipulation of their styles as leaders. During the data collection and analysis process the researcher ensured that the results from the analysis were not changed, misinterpreted or made false to support the hypotheses. This study ensures that the results of this research are supported by the existing literature covered.

4.13 Chapter summary

Chapter 4 provided a discussion on the research design and methodology of this study through a mixed methods research approach. The research onion process was adapted to understand and guide the research design and process. This included the research philosophy, approach, strategy, choice, time horizons and research methods. The research methods focused and discussed in detail the techniques and procedures that were carried out in this study from the mixed methods perspective through a quantitative and a qualitative phase. The rationale for following the mixed methods approach was discussed in-depth and justified. This chapter was concluded with the ethical considerations taken into account. The next section will focus on the results of the study with a view to providing recommendations on the role leadership styles play in strategy implementation in the public service.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis and findings of this study. A mixed methods research design was chosen in which data was collected quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative data collection and analysis were undertaken through surveys from 118 questionnaires completed by senior managers from director level upwards to deputy director general level in the dti. The survey data was collected using the EvaSys software and were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Analysis of a Moment Structure (AMOS). The statistical techniques chosen for this study included the Cronbach's alpha, frequency distributions, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Spearman's correlation tests, which served as the basis for analysing the data. This was then followed by a preliminary analysis of the survey results which informed the development of the questions for the interview phase. The qualitative data collection and analysis were undertaken through interviews. Interviews were conducted on selected senior managers to gain more insight and a deeper level of understanding on the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation. These interviews were undertaken through face to face verbal exchanges from a sample of nine (9) senior managers. The data analysis and results of the quantitative and qualitative study are presented separately, and are discussed in accordance with the research questions, objectives and hypotheses of this study as outlined in Chapter 1 and in Chapter 4.

5.2. Quantitative data analysis (Phase 1 - Survey Results)

5.2.1 Cronbach's alpha

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal consistency reliability of the scale used in this study. The Cronbach's alpha values (Field, 2014:708) were run on the data to check for consistency of the survey questionnaire. The details of the results are provided for in Appendix F and in Table F1. The results show that all the Cronbach alpha values were above 0.5 indicating that the questionnaire was reliable.

5.2.2 Demographic data

The demographic data section of the questionnaire sought to ascertain information on a senior managers' age, gender, the division they belonged to, job title, highest qualification, number of years involved in leadership and implementation and the dominant public sector strategy in the dti. It should be noted that age, for example, is typically a continuous variable where one would report descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviation. In this study the question pertaining to the participants' age (on the questionnaire) was given in the form of categories. Accordingly, only frequency distributions could be produced and not descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations. The same applied for all the other questions pertaining to demographic data. This is due to the fact that the questions on the questionnaire were all closed-ended categorical questions and, accordingly, only frequency distributions are presented for the demographic data. The word "missing" on frequency tables indicate that there was no response to this question.

- **Age**

Senior managers were asked their age for a set of age categories. Table 5.1 depicts the participant's response to their age category.

Table 5.1: Frequency distribution of age categories

	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	30-39 years	32	27.1
	40-49 years	59	50.0
	50-59 years	24	20.3
	60-69 years	2	1.7
	Total	117	99.2
Missing	System	1	0.8
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.1 shows that majority ($n= 59, 50\%$) of the senior managers' who participated were between 40-49 years of age and ($n= 2, 1.7\%$) of the participants were in the age category of 60 to 69 years of age.

- **Gender**

In this question senior managers were asked their gender. Table 5.2 depicts the participant's response to this question.

Table 5.2: Frequency distribution of gender

	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Male	58	49.2
	Female	45	38.1
	Total	103	87.3
Missing	System	15	12.7
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.2 shows that there were more male ($n = 58$, 49.2%) senior managers than female ($n = 45$, 38.1%) senior managers who participated. It is interesting to note that $n = 15$, 12.7%) of the 118 senior managers opted not to answer the question on gender.

- **Divisions in the Department of Trade and Industry**

In this question, senior managers were asked to indicate the division to which they belonged to. Table 5.3 depicts the senior managers' response to this question.

Table 5.3: Frequency distribution of divisions

	Divisions	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	International Trade and Economic Development (ITED)	25	21.2
	Trade and Investment South Africa (TISA)	19	16.1
	Consumer and Corporate Regulation (CCRD)	7	5.9
	Group Systems and Support Services (GSSSD)	15	12.7
	Industrial Development Incentive Administration Division (IDIAD)	34	28.8
	Industrial Development and Policy Development (IDPD)	4	3.4
	Broadening Participation Division and Economic Transformation(BPD)	1	0.8
	InvestSA (ISA)	7	5.9
	Total	112	94.9
Missing	System	6	5.1
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.3 shows that the majority ($n = 34$, 28.8%) of the senior managers who participated were from the Industrial Development Incentive Administration Division (IDIAD). The smallest group was from the Broadening Participation Division and Economic Transformation Division (BPD) of ($n = 1$, 0.8%).

- **Job title**

In this question senior managers were asked their current job title. Table 5.4 depicts the senior managers' response to this question.

Table 5 4: Frequency distribution of current job title

	Job Title	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Deputy Director General	2	1.7
	Chief Director	18	15.3
	Director	79	66.9
	Other	16	13.6
	Total	115	97.5
Missing	System	3	2.5
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.4 shows that the majority ($n = 79$, 66.9%) of the senior managers who participated were Directors. Under the category of “other” ($n = 16$, 13.6%) participants were senior managers in an acting capacity and or are senior managers but do not fall under the above mentioned current job title categories, for example Chief Operating Officers (COO’s).

- **Highest academic qualification**

In this question senior managers were asked to indicate their highest academic qualification. Table 5.5 depicts the senior managers’ response to this question.

Table 5.5: Frequency distribution of highest academic qualification

	Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	PhD or Doctorate	3	2.5
	Master’s degree	56	47.5
	Honours Degree	39	33.1
	Undergraduate degree	14	11.9
	Diploma	4	3.4
	Other (please specify)	1	0.8
	Total	117	99.2
Missing	System	1	0.8
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.5 shows that very few ($n = 3$, 2.5%) senior managers had a PhD or doctoral degree. The majority ($n = 56$, 47.5%) almost half of them held a Masters’ degree, followed by Honours degrees ($n = 39$, 33.1%), undergraduate degrees ($n = 14$, 11.9%) and Diplomas ($n = 4$, 3.4%).

- **Years in leadership and strategy implementation in any organization**

Senior managers were asked to indicate the number of years they were involved in leadership and strategy implementation in any organisation.

Table 5.6: Frequency distribution of completed years involved in leadership and strategy implementation in any organization

	Years in leadership and strategy implementation	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	1 to 3 years	6	5.1
	4 to 7 years	33	28.0
	8 to 10 years	26	22.0
	11 to 15 years	20	16.9
	15 or more years	30	25.4
	Total	115	97.5
Missing	System	3	2.5
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.6 shows that the majority ($n = 33$, 28%) of the senior managers had between 4 to 7 years of experience in leadership and strategy implementation. Only ($n = 6$, 5.1%) had between 1 to 3 years of experience and those with 15 or more years were ($n = 30$, 25.4%).

- **Dominant public sector strategy**

The senior managers were asked to describe the dominant public sector strategy in their department. Table 5.7 depicts the participant’s response to the departments’ dominant public sector strategy.

Table 5.7: Frequency distribution of the dominant public sector strategy

	Dominant public sector strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Consolidation (refocusing on core objectives)	46	39.0
	Growth (new policies and strategies)	67	56.8
	Other	2	1.7
	Total	115	97.5
Missing	System	3	2.5
Total		118	100.0

Table 5.7 shows that the majority ($n = 67$, 56.8%) of participants answered that growth (new policies and strategies) was the dominant public sector strategy in their department and ($n = 46$, 39%) answered that consolidation (refocusing on core objectives) was their dominant public sector strategy in their department. Two participants indicated under “other” in which one participant specified that their dominant public sector strategy was “operational” and the other specified it was “market led industry competitiveness enforcement and internal delivery capability development.”

Findings

In summary, the demographic survey results reveal that the majority (50%) of senior managers were between the ages of 40 to 49 years. Most of those who participated were male (49.2%) and the main participants were Directors (66.9%). The division that mainly supported the survey was the Industrial Development Incentive Administration Division (IDIAD). The majority

of the senior managers held a Masters' degree and (97.5%) of them had some level of experience or exposure to leadership and strategy implementation. The majority (56.8%) of senior managers indicated that the dominant public sector strategy in the department involved growth (new policies and strategies) while 39% of them indicated that consolidation (refocusing on core objectives) was the dominant public sector strategy in the department.

5.2.3 Frequency distributions of Likert-type questions

There were 67 Likert-type questions in the questionnaire. A frequency distribution (Field, 2014:19) was developed for each question and the results are presented in Appendix G along with a bar graph for each question. Although the results are shown for all 67 Likert-type questions, it was not feasible to discuss each question in detail. Accordingly, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run in order to eliminate the Likert-type questions that were not loading significantly on any of the factors. Stated differently, the Likert-type questions form groups (factors), for example, specific questions are about transformational leadership whilst others are on transactional leadership styles. By undertaking a CFA, unnecessary items (i.e. the items with poor loadings) that do not contribute any significant information to the factor, were deleted. In the next section the CFA is discussed and the findings are summarised.

5.2.4 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

According to Prudon (2015:3) a CFA could be impacted by missing data, measuring instruments or the interpretation of model fit indices. In this study, before the CFA was carried out, a missing values analysis was run (see Appendix H). The reason behind this was that AMOS was unable to run a CFA, due to having missing values (Field, 2014: 107). Therefore the missing value analysis was performed where all missing values were replaced with imputed values (details of the missing value analysis are found in Appendix H). Based on this, a CFA using AMOS was then carried out. The purpose of carrying out a CFA was to confirm whether a theoretical factor structure could be supported. As mentioned in Section 5.2.3 above, some questionnaire items were discarded after the CFA was run. Detailed statistical findings of the CFA are presented and discussed below from Sections 5.2.5 to 5.2.9.

After administering the CFA, the results revealed, firstly, on leadership styles, that for the factor "transformational leadership", of the initial twelve questionnaire items only three items remained and these were for questionnaire items Q6, Q7 and Q8. For the factor "transactional leadership" of the initial eight questionnaire items only four items remained and these were for questionnaire items Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23. For the factor "Laissez-faire leadership" of the initial four questionnaire items only two items remained and these were for questionnaire items

Q28 and Q29. Secondly, on exploration and exploitation of core competencies, for the factor “exploration” of the initial three questionnaire items all of them remained and these were for questionnaire items Q13, Q14 and Q15 and for the factor “exploitation” of the initial two questionnaire items none of them remained. Thirdly, for the factor “strategy implementation” in respect of the leaders’ “job satisfaction” of the initial two questionnaire items both remained and these were for questionnaire items Q30 and Q31 and for the factor “service delivery outcomes” of the initial 5 questionnaire items none remained. Fourthly, for the factor “drivers of strategy implementation” of the initial ten questionnaire items only six remained and these were for questionnaire items Q38, Q39, Q40, Q41, Q42 and Q43. Fifthly, for the factor “problems to strategy implementation” of the initial eight questionnaire items only five remained and these were for questionnaire items Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55. Finally, for the factor “obstacles to strategy implementation” of the initial twelve questionnaire items only ten remained and these were for questionnaire items Q57, Q59 and Q60 to Q67. The end result was that the CFA had reduced the number of factors from ten to eight factors and the number of questionnaire items from 65 to 35 items.

Next the factors and its related hypotheses, where applicable, are discussed. It is important to note that two-tailed Spearman correlations were calculated for the upcoming sections for all items loading onto the same factors as it was appropriate to obtain and determine the direction of the correlations (positive or negative) between two Likert-type questions. For the hypotheses, a one-tailed Spearman correlation was administered each time, as the alternative hypothesis is only in one direction. This indicates that the alternative hypothesis has been phrased in only one direction, either a positive or a negative relationship.

5.2.5 Leadership styles

Senior managers were asked a set of twenty nine (29) survey questions related to their leadership styles. Questions Q1 to Q12 assessed for transformational leadership styles. Questions Q16 to Q23 assessed for transactional leadership styles and questions Q26 to Q29 assessed for a laissez-faire leadership style. The aim of these questions was to determine the leadership styles senior managers perceived themselves to have towards strategy implementation. This is in line with the research objectives as stated below:

Objectives:

- To investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation.
- To explore how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation.

❖ **Transformational leadership**

To assess if senior managers' practiced a transformational leadership style, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 and to respond with 1 = "not at all", 2 = "once in a while", 3 = "sometimes", 4 = "fairly often" and 5 = "frequently, if not always". For the transformational leadership style only questions Q6, Q7 and Q8 remained after the CFA was performed. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.8. The means represented in the tables below, are weighted means of the responses of the Likert-type questions. The calculation of the weighted means computed for Likert-type questions and specifically for this study is explained in Appendix I.

Table 5.8: Percentage and mean responses for transformational leadership

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q6	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0.8	1.7	10.2	35.6	51.7	4.36
Q7	I articulate a compelling vision of the future	2.5	1.7	22.9	45.8	27.1	3.93
Q8	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0.8	5.9	14.4	44.1	34.7	4.06

Any mean score above 3 indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q6) the mean was 4.36 which shows that senior managers frequently, if not always, talked enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. This item (Q6) had the highest mean from all the transformational leadership questions indicating that this statement, of the three questions in Table 5.8, is done most frequently. This is followed by senior managers who expressed confidence that goals will be achieved (mean = 4.06) and articulating a compelling vision of the future (mean = 3.93).

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto **transformational leadership styles** (from Questions one to twelve) were Q6, Q7 and Q8, respectively. Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was only run for these three questions. A small p -value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the p -value the stronger the correlation. A p -value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is significant, which was the case for the transformational leadership questions Q6, Q7 and Q8 as depicted in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Spearman correlations between Q6, Q7 and Q8 for transformational leadership style

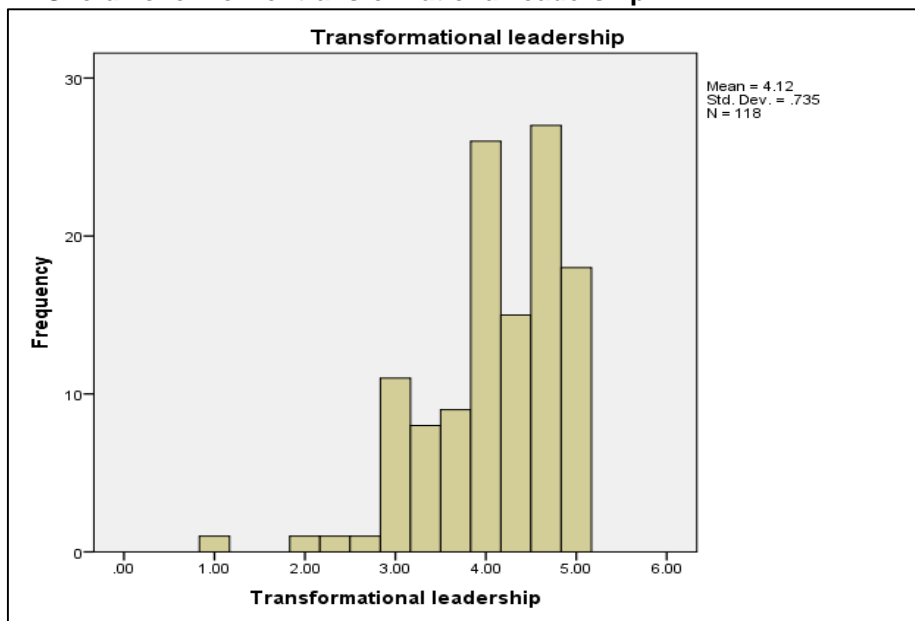
Q		Q6	Q7	Q8
Q6	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.595	.523
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118
Q7	Correlation Coefficient	.595	1.000	.552
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118
Q8	Correlation Coefficient	.523	.552	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value				

At this point, it should be noted that missing values were imputed using multiple imputation in order to perform the CFA. Thus, in the statistics that follow, and for the rest of the study, the issue of missing values has already been addressed and explained in Section 5.2.4 above.

The results are summarised in a histogram. The bar graphs, for each question, are attached (see Appendix H). There are 67 bar graphs in total, as there are 67 questions. In this chapter, the aim is not to show 67 bar graphs, but rather histograms that have taken the information of different items building onto the same factor by summarising the responses per factor. For example, in Figure 5.1, instead of giving three separate bar graphs for questions Q6, Q7 and Q8, respectively, the information has been consolidated for the factor 'transformational leadership' in SPSS and is presented as a histogram. The way to interpret these histograms, are to investigate their shape. If a histogram is symmetric, it means that the majority of responses, for a factor (such as 'transformational leadership') are around the midpoint of the Likert scale. If the histogram is skewed to the left, it means that the majority of the responses were on the higher end of the Likert scale. On the other hand, if the histogram is skewed to the right, it means that the majority of the responses were on the lower end of the Likert scale. Thus, in Figure 5.1 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the left, indicating that the

majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor ‘transformational leadership’. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.1. In addition a detailed step-by-step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram. A brief description is given here for the first histogram. A histogram is typically used to visually illustrate the shape of continuous data. For the factor **Transformational leadership**, Questions 6, 7 and 8 were the items loading onto it. For Questions 6, 7 and 8 the respondents had to respond on a 5-point Likert-type scale (which is ordinal data). Once the average is taken over the items loading onto a factor (i.e. once the average is taken over Questions 6, 7 and 8), these values are continuous and one histogram can be presented as opposed to three bar graphs.

Figure 5.1: Overall overview of transformational leadership



In Figure 5.1 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “frequently, if not always”, for transformational leadership. Figure 5.1 shows that the majority of responses lie towards the upper-side of the Likert scale, indicating that senior managers frequently, if not always talked enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and fairly often articulated a compelling vision of the future as well as expressed confidence that goals will be achieved. The **hypothesis** for the transformational leadership style and strategy implementation is discussed next.

H₀: Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.

H_{1a}: Senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation.

A Spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between the transformational leadership style of the 118 senior managers and strategy implementation. The output is given in Tables 5.10 and 5.11 and the results are discussed after the tables.

Table 5.10: SPSS output showing Spearman correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transformational leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. leaders' job satisfaction)

			Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Factor: Transformational leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.320
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Factor: Transformational leadership	Correlation Coefficient	.320	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.10 shows a moderate monotonic relationship between transformational leadership and strategy implementation ($R_s = 0.320$, $n = 118$, $p < 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.000, there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will be positively influenced by strategy implementation.

Table 5.11: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transformational leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o service delivery outcomes)

			Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Factor: Transformational leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.485
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Factor: Transformational leadership	Correlation Coefficient	.485	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.11 shows a moderate monotonic relationship between transformational leadership and service delivery outcomes ($R_s = 0.485$, $n = 118$, $p < 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.000 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will be positively influenced by service delivery outcomes.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of transformational leadership, the responses of all three questions (questions Q6, Q7 and Q8) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that more than half (51.7%) of the senior managers frequently, if not always, talked enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, 45.8% fairly often articulated a compelling vision of the future and 44.1% of senior managers also fairly often expressed confidence that goals will be achieved. The correlation between the transformational leadership questions Q6, Q7 and Q8 was found to be significant. The findings further revealed that senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation. The transactional leadership style and strategy implementation is discussed next.

❖ Transactional leadership

To assess if senior managers practiced a transactional leadership style, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with 1 = “not at all”, 2 = “once in a while”, 3 = “sometimes”, 4 = “fairly often” and 5 = “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Percentage and mean responses for transactional leadership

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q20	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards	4.2	20.3	22.9	28.8	23.7	3.47
Q21	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures	7.6	12.7	32.2	30.5	16.9	3.36
Q22	I keep track of all mistakes	15.3	28.0	27.1	16.1	13.6	2.85
Q23	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	9.3	23.7	22.9	32.2	11.9	3.14

Any mean score above 3 indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q20) the mean was 3.47 which shows that senior managers frequently, if not always, focused their attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards. This item (Q20) had the highest mean from all the transactional leadership style questions indicating that

this statement, of the four questions in Table 5.12, was done most frequently. This is followed by senior managers concentrating their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (mean = 3.36), directing their attention toward failures to meet standards (mean = 3.14) and then keeping track of all mistakes (mean = 2.85). Three of the four means were above 3, indicating that senior managers were fairly often or almost always keeping track of mistakes, irregularities and deviations.

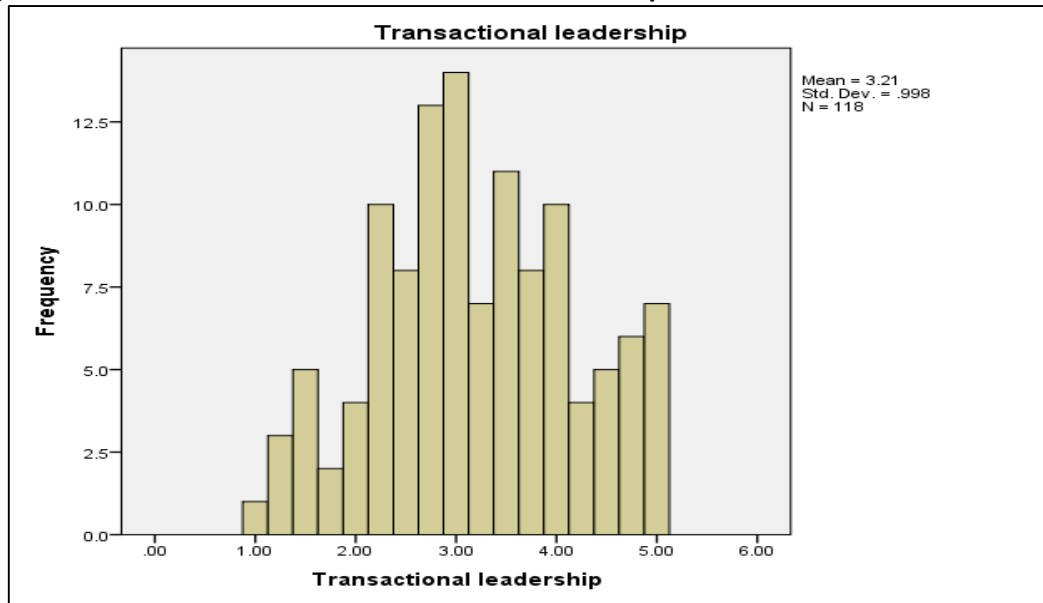
The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto transactional leadership styles (from Questions Q16 to Q23) were questions Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23. Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was only run for these four questions. A small p -value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the p -value the stronger the correlation. A p -value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is significant, which was the case for the transactional leadership questions Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23 as depicted in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Spearman correlations between Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23 for transactional leadership

Q		Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23
Q20	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.699	.607	.455
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118
Q21	Correlation Coefficient	.699	1.000	.665	.486
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118
Q22	Correlation Coefficient	.607	.665	1.000	.712
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118	118
Q23	Correlation Coefficient	.455	.486	.712	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value					

Figure 5.2 below provides an overview of senior managers' responses towards transactional leadership style. In Figure 5.2 it can be seen that the histogram is almost symmetric with some higher values on the upper end when compared to the lower end of the histogram, indicating that the majority of responses were from the midpoint to the upper end of the Likert scale for the factor 'transactional leadership'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.2. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.2: Overall overview of transactional leadership



In Figure 5.2 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “frequently, if not always”, for transactional leadership. Figure 5.2 illustrates that the majority of responses lie towards the middle to upper-side of the Likert scale, indicating that participants frequently (if not always) focus on deviations and mistakes. The **hypothesis** for the transactional leadership style and strategy implementation is discussed next.

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will have no influence on strategy implementation.
- H_{2a}:** Senior managers portraying a transactional leadership style will positively influence strategy implementation.

Tables 5.14 and 5.15 below demonstrate the correlation coefficient between a transactional leadership style and strategy implementation in respect of job satisfaction and delivery outcomes respectively.

Table 5.14: SPSS output showing Spearman correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transactional leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o leaders' job satisfaction)

			Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Factor: Transactional leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.296
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.001
		N	118	118
	Factor: Transactional leadership	Correlation Coefficient	.296	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.001	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.14 shows a moderate monotonic relationship between transactional leadership and strategy implementation ($R_s = 0.296$, $n = 118$, $p = 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.001 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will be positively influenced by strategy implementation.

Table 5.15: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on transactional leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. service delivery outcomes)

			Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Factor: Transactional Leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Correlation Coefficient	1	0.332
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Factor: Transactional Leadership	Correlation Coefficient	0.332	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.15 shows a moderate monotonic relationship between transactional leadership and service delivery outcomes ($R_s = 0.332$, $n = 118$, $p < 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.000 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will be positively influenced by service delivery outcomes.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of transactional leadership, the responses of all four questions (questions Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23) were combined into an individual score from one to five. The findings reveal that fairly often most senior managers (32.2%) direct their attention toward failures to meet standards and sometimes most senior managers (32.2%) concentrated their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures. The correlation between the transactional leadership questions Q20, Q21, Q22 and Q23 was found to be significant. The findings further revealed that senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation. The laissez-faire leadership style and strategy implementation is discussed next.

❖ Laissez-faire Leadership

To assess if senior manager practiced a laissez-faire leadership style, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all”, “once in a while”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, or “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Percentage and mean responses for Laissez-faire leadership

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q28	I avoid making decisions	80.5	11.9	5.9	0.8	0.8	1.30
Q29	I delay to respond to urgent questions	80.5	12.7	3.4	2.5	0.8	1.31

Any mean score above three indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q28 and Q29) the mean is below three which indicates that the majority of senior managers did not at all avoid making decisions (mean = 1.30) and majority of the senior managers did not delay in responding to urgent questions (mean = 1.31).

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto **laissez-faire leadership styles** were questions Q28 and Q29. Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman’s correlation was only run for these two questions. A small p -value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the p -value the stronger the correlation. A p -value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is significant,

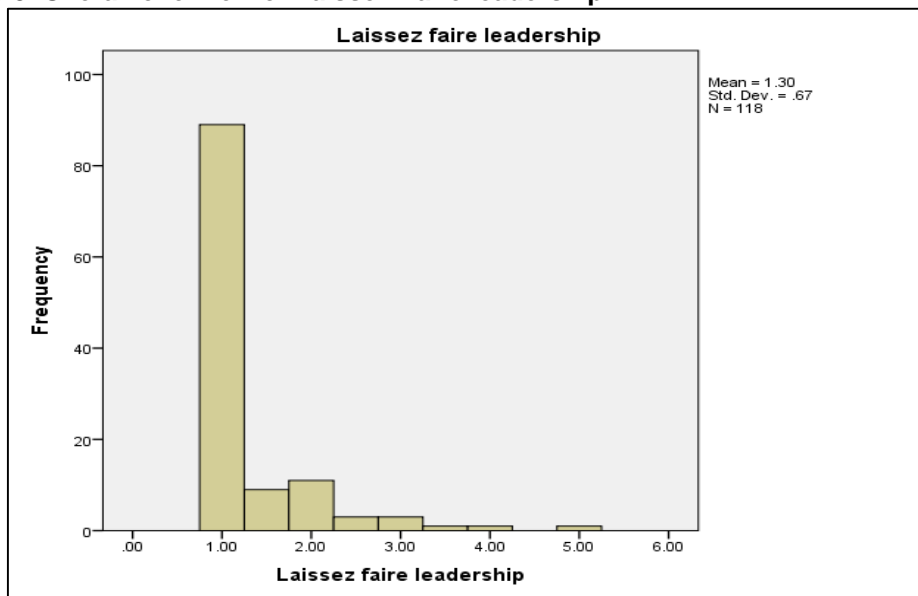
which was the case for the laissez-faire leadership questions Q28 and Q29 as depicted in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Spearman correlations between Q28 and Q29 for Laissez-faire leadership

Q		Q28	Q29
Q28	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.692
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	118	118
Q29	Correlation Coefficient	.692	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value			

Figure 5.3 below provides an overview of senior managers’ responses towards Laissez-faire leadership style. In Figure 5.3 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the right, indicating that the majority of responses were at the lower end of the Likert scale for the factor ‘Laissez-faire leadership’. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.3. In addition, a detailed step-by-step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.3: Overall overview of Laissez-Faire leadership



In Figure 5.3 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “frequently, if not always”, for laissez-faire leadership. Figure 5.3 shows that the majority of responses lie towards the lower-side of the Likert scale, indicating that participants do not avoid making decisions and do not delay in responding to

urgent questions. The **hypothesis** for laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation is discussed next.

H₀: Senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles will have no effect on strategy implementation.

H₃: Senior managers portraying a laissez-faire leadership style will negatively influence strategy implementation.

A Spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between the Laissez-faire leadership style of the 118 senior managers and strategy implementation. The output is given in Tables 5.18 and 5.19 and the results are discussed after the tables.

Table 5.18: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. of leaders' job satisfaction)

			Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Factor: Laissez-faire leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-0.141
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.065
		N	118	118
	Factor: Laissez-faire leadership	Correlation Coefficient	-0.141	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.065	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.18 shows a moderate monotonic inverse relationship between Laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation ($R_s = -0.141$, $n = 118$, $p = 0.065$). Although the p -value for laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. of leaders' job satisfaction) is not less than 0.05, it is less than 0.10, this indicates that the correlation is significant at a 10% level of significance. In this case (at a 10% level of significance, but not at a 5% level of significance), the null hypothesis is rejected and senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles will negatively influence strategy implementation (i.r.o. of leaders' job satisfaction).

Table 5.19: SPSS output showing Spearman's correlation coefficient in order to test the hypothesis on laissez-faire leadership and strategy implementation (i.r.o. service delivery outcomes)

			Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Factor: Laissez-faire leadership
Spearman's rho	Factor: Service delivery outcomes	Correlation Coefficient	1	-0.233
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Factor: Laissez-faire leadership	Correlation Coefficient	-0.233	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Table 5.19 shows a moderate monotonic inverse relationship between Laissez-faire leadership and service delivery outcomes ($R_s = -0.233$, $n = 118$, $p < 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.000 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying Laissez-faire leadership styles will be negatively influenced by service delivery outcomes.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of laissez-faire leadership, the responses of the two questions (questions Q28 and Q29) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that the majority of the senior managers' (80.5%) did not at all avoid making decisions and did not delay in responding to urgent questions. The correlation between the laissez-faire leadership questions Q28 and Q29 were found to be significant. The findings further revealed that senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles will have a negative influence on strategy implementation.

Summary of findings for leadership styles

The findings of the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation revealed that transformational and transactional leadership styles will have a positive effect on strategy implementation. However, the laissez-faire leadership style will have a negative effect on strategy implementation.

5.2.6 Exploration and exploitation of core competencies

Participants were asked five (5) questions on the exploration and exploitation of core competencies. Questions Q13 to Q15 assessed if senior managers explored core competencies and questions Q24 to Q25 assessed if senior managers exploited core competencies. These questions aimed to determine the extent to which senior managers perceived their leadership style to influence the exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation in the context of transformational and transactional leadership styles respectively.

Objectives:

- **To investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.**
- **To explore how leadership styles of senior managers at the dti explore and exploit core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.**

❖ **Exploration of core competencies**

To assess if senior managers who practiced transformational leadership style explored core competencies the senior managers were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all”, “once in a while”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, or “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.20 below.

Table 5.20: Percentage and mean responses for exploration of core competencies

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q13	I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies	2.5	0.0	6.8	39.8	50.8	4.36
Q14	I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies	3.4	0.8	10.2	39.8	45.8	4.24
Q15	I encourage employees to be creative and innovative	3.4	0.8	14.4	32.2	49.2	4.23

Any mean score above three indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q13, Q14 and Q15) the means were 4.36, 4.24 and 4.23 respectively. All three means were above three for the exploration of core competencies with a combined mean of 4.28 and with the majority of values falling on five. Items Q13, Q14 and Q15 show that senior managers frequently if not always provided opportunities for employees to develop their competencies, encouraged employees to be creative and innovative, and nurtured and motivated employees to develop their competencies. In the case of Q13 half of the senior managers indicated that they frequently if not always provided opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies. Overall, this indicates that senior managers with a transformational leadership fairly often to almost always explored core competencies.

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that all items (questions) loading onto **exploration of core competencies** (from questions Q13 to Q15) remained. Accordingly, all these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was run for all three questions. A small *p*-value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the *p*-value the stronger the correlation. A *p*-value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is significant, which was the case for the exploration of core competency questions Q13, Q14 and Q15 as depicted in Table 5.21. Thus, a senior manager who answered highly on, for instance, question Q13, would also give a high score on the Likert-type scale for questions Q14 and Q15, respectively.

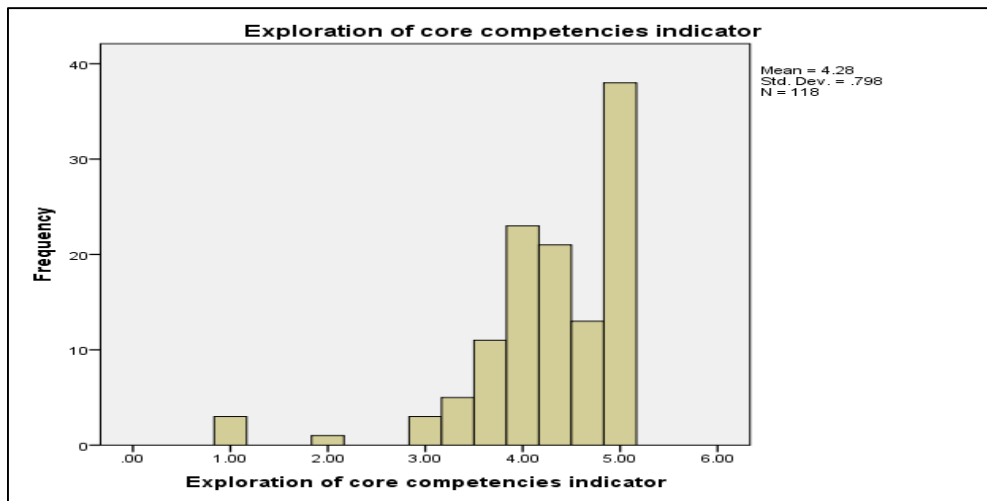
Table 5.21: Spearman correlations between Questions Q13, Q14 and Q15 for exploration of core competencies

Q		Q13	Q14	Q15
Q13	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.695	.449
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118
Q14	Correlation Coefficient	.695	1.000	.534
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118
Q15	Correlation Coefficient	.449	.534	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed <i>p</i>-value				

Figure 5.4 below provides an overview of the items for exploration of core competencies. In Figure 5.4 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'exploration of core competencies'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.4. In addition a detailed

step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.4: A summary of the items for exploration of core competencies



In Figure 5.4 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “frequently, if not always”, for the exploration of core competencies. Figure 5.4 shows that the majority of responses lie on the values of four and higher, indicating that senior managers fairly often or frequently, if not always, provided opportunities for employees to develop their competencies, encouraged employees to be creative and innovative, and nurtured and motivated employees to develop their competencies. The **hypothesis** for transformational leadership style in the context of exploration of core competencies is discussed next.

- H₀:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will have no effect on the exploration of core competencies.
- H_{1b}:** Senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will positively influence the exploration of core competencies.

A Spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between the transformational leadership style of the 118 senior managers and the exploration of core competencies. The output is given in Table 5.22 and the results are discussed after the table.

Table 5.22: SPSS output for hypothesis on transformational leadership and the exploration of core competencies

			Factor: Transformational leadership	Factor: Exploration of core competencies
Spearman's rho	Factor: Transformational leadership	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.513
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Factor: Exploration of core competencies	Correlation Coefficient	.513	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed <i>p</i>-value				

Table 5.22 shows a moderate monotonic inverse relationship between transformational leadership and exploration of core competencies ($R_s = 0.513$, $n = 118$, $p < 0.001$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.000 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transformational leadership style will positively influence the exploration of core competencies.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of transformational leadership and the exploration of core competencies, the responses of all three questions (questions Q13, Q14 and Q15) were combined into an individual score from one to five. The findings reveal that half (50.8%) of the senior managers frequently, if not always, provided opportunities for employees to develop their competencies, as well as senior managers also frequently if not always (49.2%) encouraged employees to be creative and innovative, and (45.8%) nurtured and motivated employees to develop their competencies. The findings further revealed that senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence the exploration of core competencies. The transactional leadership style and exploitation of core competencies is discussed next.

❖ Exploitation of core competencies

To assess if senior managers practiced transactional leadership style by exploiting core competencies, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all”, “once in a while”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, or “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23: Percentage and mean responses for exploitation of core competencies

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently if not always	
Q24	I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively	1.7	5.9	18.6	41.5	32.2	3.97
Q25	I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit	5.1	4.2	28.8	28.8	33.1	3.81

Any mean score above three indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q24 and Q25) the means were 3.97 and 3.81 respectively. Both means were above 3 for the exploitation of core competencies with a combined mean of 3.89 and with the majority of values falling on 3. Item Q24 shows that senior managers often identified core competencies and exploited them effectively. Whilst Q25 shows that senior managers frequently if not always leveraged the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit. Overall, this indicates that senior managers with transactional leadership styles fairly often to almost always exploited core competencies.

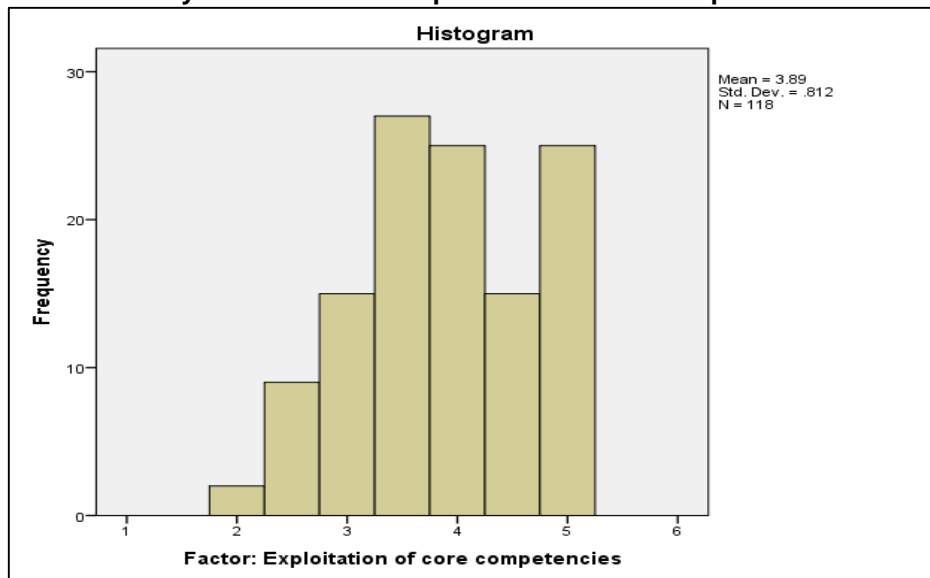
The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the items (questions) loaded onto for **exploitation of core competencies** (from questions Q24 to Q25) were all removed. Although the factor was removed by the CFA, it was important that these questions were still further investigated. Accordingly, a Spearman’s correlation was run for both questions. A small *p*-value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the *p*-value the stronger the correlation. A *p*-value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is significant, which was the case for the exploitation of core competency questions for Q24 and Q25 as depicted in Table 5.24. Thus, a senior manager who answered highly on, for instance, question Q24, would also give a high score on the Likert-type scale for questions Q25.

Table 5.24: Spearman correlations between questions Q24 and Q25 for exploration of core competencies

			Q24	Q25
Spearman's rho	Q24	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.353
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Q25	Correlation Coefficient	.353	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed p-value				

Figure 5.5 below provides an overview of the items for exploitation of core competencies. In Figure 5.5 it can be seen that the histogram is moderately skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'exploitation of core competencies'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.5. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.5: A summary of the items for exploitation of core competencies



In Figure 5.5 above the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = not at all to 5 = frequently, if not always, for the exploitation of core competencies. Figure 5.5 shows that the majority of responses lying to the right of the graph indicates that more senior managers answered values greater than 3 which shows they answered 'fairly often' or 'frequently, if not always'. The **hypothesis** for transactional leadership style in the context of the exploitation of core competencies is discussed next.

H₀: Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will have no effect on the exploitation of core competencies.

H_{2b}: Senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.

A Spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between the transactional leadership style of the 118 senior managers and the exploitation of core competencies. The output is given in Table 5.25 and the results are discussed after the table.

Table 5.25: SPSS output for the hypothesis testing on transactional leadership and the exploitation of core competencies

			Factor: Transactional leadership	Factor: Exploitation of core competencies
Spearman's rho	Factor: Transactional leadership	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.243
		Sig. (1-tailed)		0.004
		N	118	118
	Factor: Exploitation of core competencies	Correlation Coefficient	.243	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	0.004	
		N	118	118
N - Sample size				
Sig.1-tailed - one-tailed <i>p</i>-value				

Table 5.25 shows a moderate monotonic inverse relationship between transactional leadership and exploitation of core competencies ($R_s = 0.243$, $n = 118$, $p = 0.004$). Since SPSS reports the p -value for this hypothesis as being 0.004 there is very strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, i.e. senior managers portraying transactional leadership style will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of transactional leadership and the exploitation of core competencies, the responses of both questions (questions Q24 and Q25) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that senior managers (41.5%) often identified core competencies and exploited them effectively and (33.1%) frequently if not always leveraged the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit. The findings further revealed that senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.

5.2.7 Strategy implementation

Senior managers were asked seven (7) descriptive questions on strategy implementation (Q30 to Q36) to assess their achievement with strategy implementation through job satisfaction and service delivery outcomes respectively. Questions Q30 and Q31 assessed for strategy implementation through the leaders' job satisfaction and questions Q32 to Q36 assessed for

strategy implementation through service delivery outcomes. These questions were aimed to determine the extent to which senior managers perceived themselves to experience job satisfaction and delivered on their outcomes pertaining to strategy implementation.

❖ **Leaders job satisfaction**

To assess strategy implementation through a leader’s job satisfaction participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all”, “once in a while”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, or “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.26.

Table 5.26: Percentage and mean responses for strategy implementation in respect of the leaders’ job satisfaction

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q30	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction)	3.4	0.0	16.9	43.2	36.4	4.09
Q31	I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction)	5.1	4.2	18.6	50.0	22.0	3.80

Any mean score above three indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always. For item (Q30 and Q31) the means were 4.09 and 3.80 respectively. Both means were above three in respect of the job satisfaction with the majority of values falling on four Item Q30 shows that senior managers fairly often used methods of leadership to achieve job satisfaction, whilst item Q31 shows that senior managers fairly often worked with others to achieve job satisfaction. Overall, this indicates that senior managers fairly often achieved job satisfaction through different leadership methods and by working with others to implement their strategies.

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto **for leaders job satisfaction** were questions Q30 and Q31 respectively and both questions remained. Accordingly, both these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman’s correlation was run for these two questions. A small *p*-value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the *p*-value the stronger the correlation. A *p*-value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the correlation is positive and significant, which was the case for strategy implementation in

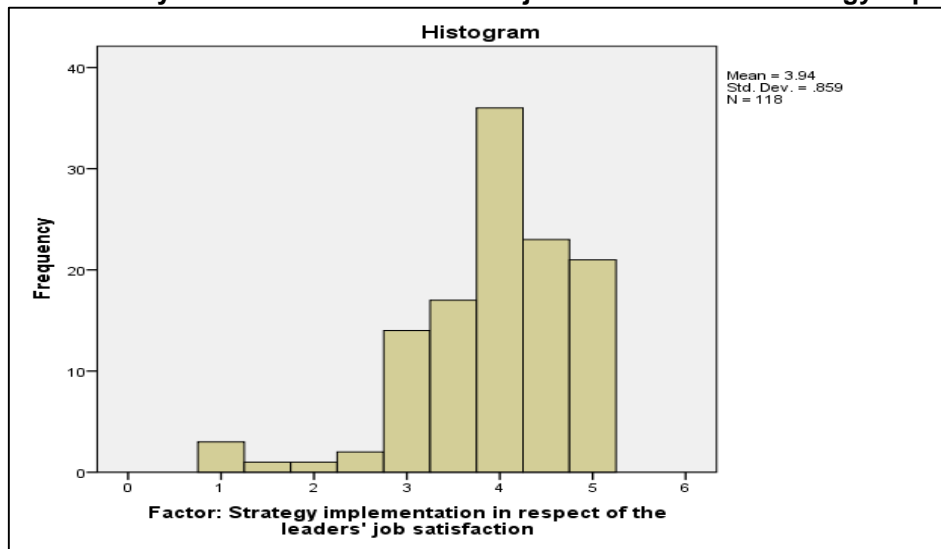
respect of questions Q30 and Q31 as depicted in Table 5.27. Thus, a participant who answered highly on question Q30 would also give a high score on the Likert-type scale for question Q31.

Table 5.27: Spearman correlations between questions Q30 and Q31 for strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction

			Q30	Q31
Spearman's rho	Q30	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.564
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
		N	118	118
	Q31	Correlation Coefficient	.564	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
		N	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value				

Figure 5.6 below provides an overview of the items of the leaders' job satisfaction for strategy implementation. In Figure 5.6 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'leaders' job satisfaction for strategy implementation'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.6. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.6: A summary of the items of the leaders' job satisfaction for strategy implementation



In Figure 5.6 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "frequently, if not always", for leaders job satisfaction. Figure 5.6 shows that the majority of responses lie towards the right side of the Likert scale, with majority of values falling on 4. This indicates that senior managers fairly often to almost always implement strategies through methods of leadership and by working with others that creates job satisfaction.

❖ Service delivery Outcomes

To assess strategy implementation through service delivery outcomes senior managers were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all”, “once in a while”, “sometimes”, “fairly often”, or “frequently, if not always”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28: Percentage and mean responses for service delivery outcomes

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not at all	2 – Once in a while	3 – Sometimes	4 – Fairly often	5 – Frequently, if not always	
Q32	The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable	4.2	0.8	16.9	28.8	49.2	4.18
Q33	I always achieve my business plan targets	0.0	1.7	11.0	49.2	38.1	4.24
Q34	I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time	10.2	9.3	26.3	39.8	14.4	3.39
Q35	I encourage training and development of skills sets required	1.7	0.8	13.6	40.7	43.2	4.23
Q36	I am always within my allocated budget	1.7	0.8	20.3	38.1	39.0	4.12

Any mean score above three indicates that the item is done fairly often to almost always respectively. All means were above three for service delivery outcomes with the majority of values falling on four. Item (Q33) had the highest mean of 4.24 which shows that senior managers fairly often to almost always achieved their business plan targets. This was followed by senior managers who indicated that their business unit/ division had key performance indicators that were specific, measurable and achievable (mean = 4.18), thereafter followed by senior managers who indicated that they encouraged training and development of the skills sets required (mean = 4.23).

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows all the items (questions) loading onto **for service delivery outcomes** (from Questions 32 to 36) items remained. Accordingly, only these items

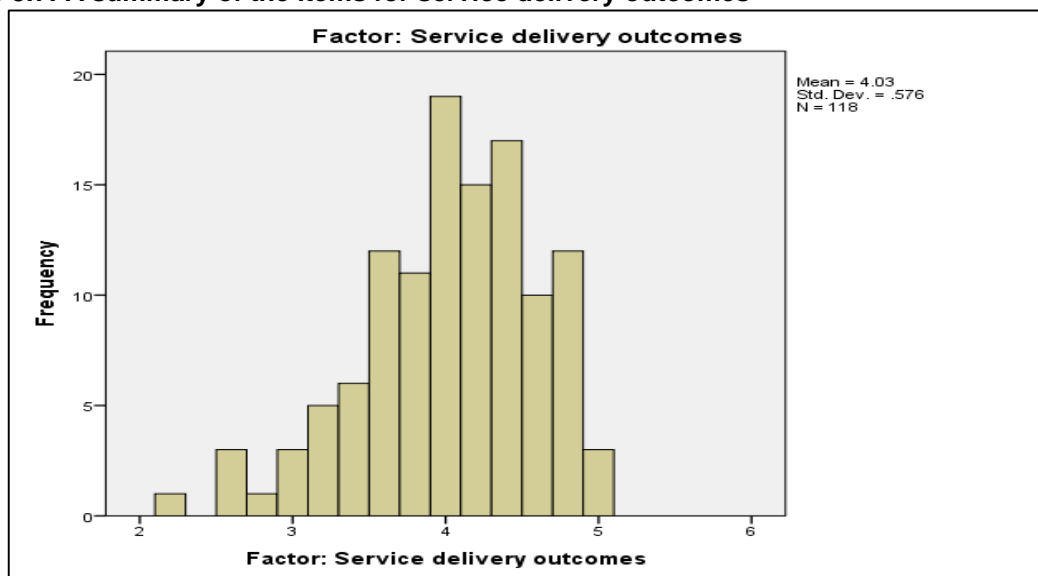
(questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was run for these questions. A small p -value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the p -value the stronger the correlation. Although not all the p -values in Table 5.29 are less than 0.05, the correlations are positive. Thus, a participant who answered highly on the Likert-type scale for any one of these questions, would also answer highly, on the Likert scale, for any other of these questions.

Table 5.29: Spearman correlations between questions Q32 to Q36 for service delivery outcomes

		Q32	Q33	Q34	Q35	Q36	
Spearman's rho	Q32	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.221	0.125	.272	0.157
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.016	0.179	0.003	0.089
		N	118	118	118	118	118
	Q33	Correlation Coefficient	.221	1.000	0.157	.251	.383
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016		0.091	0.006	0.000
		N	118	118	118	118	118
	Q34	Correlation Coefficient	0.125	0.157	1.000	.291	0.126
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.179	0.091		0.001	0.174
		N	118	118	118	118	118
	Q35	Correlation Coefficient	.272	.251	.291	1.000	.387
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.006	0.001		0.000
		N	118	118	118	118	118
	Q36	Correlation Coefficient	0.157	.383	0.126	.387	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.089	0.000	0.174	0.000	
		N	118	118	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value							

Figure 5.7 below provides an overview of the items for service delivery outcomes. In Figure 5.7 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'service delivery outcomes'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.7. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.7: A summary of the items for service delivery outcomes



In Figure 5.7 the vertical axis indicates the frequency (count) and the horizontal axis shows the Likert scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “frequently, if not always”, for service delivery outcomes. Figure 5.7 shows that the majority of responses lie towards the right side of the Likert scale, with majority of values falling on 4 to 5. This indicates that senior managers fairly often to almost always achieve their business plan targets, had key performance indicators that were specific, measurable and achievable and encouraged training and development of the skills set.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview for strategy implementation the responses from both the leaders’ job satisfaction and service delivery outcomes were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that senior managers (50%) fairly often to almost always achieved strategy implementation by working with others, 49.2% fairly often to almost always achieved their business plan targets and again 49.2% also had specific, measurable and achievable key performance indicators. These findings revealed that strategy implementation can be regarded as significant in the dti.

5.2.8 Drivers for strategy implementation

Participants were asked eleven (11) survey questions to determine/identify their drivers for strategy implementation. Questions Q37 to Q47 assess for drivers of strategy implementation that senior managers perceive could help them achieve strategy implementation.

Objective:

- **To identify factors that drive strategy implementation at the dti.**

To assess drivers for strategy implementation, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neutral”, “agree”, or “strongly agree”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.30 below:

Table 5.30: Percentage and mean responses of drivers for strategy implementation

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Mean of the responses
		1 – Strongly disagree	2 – Disagree	3 – Neutral	4 – Agree	5 – Strongly agree	
Q38	Leadership of the organization	2.5	7.6	26.3	25.4	38.1	3.89
Q39	The allocation of resources in the organization	2.5	22.0	19.5	28.0	28.0	3.57
Q40	The performance management system	13.6	20.3	10.2	34.7	21.2	3.30
Q41	Training and development in the organization	4.2	17.8	20.3	33.1	24.6	3.56
Q42	Effective strategic planning processes	7.6	8.5	25.4	35.6	22.9	3.58
Q43	We have precisely defined strategic objectives	3.4	6.8	21.2	44.9	23.7	3.79

Any mean score above three indicates that senior managers agree to strongly agree with all the drivers. Table 5.30 shows that all mean values are above three which indicates that all senior managers agreed to strongly agree with all the drivers. The top three drivers that senior managers ‘agreed’ to ‘strongly agreed’ with were leadership in the organization (Q38, mean = 3.89), precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43, mean = 3.79) and effective planning processes (Q42, mean = 3.58).

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto drivers for strategy implementation (from Questions 37 to 47) were Q38 to Q43. Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman’s correlation was only run for these questions. A small *p*-value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the *p*-value the stronger the correlation. A *p*-value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the positive correlation are significant, which was the case for the questions Q38 to Q43 on the drivers for strategy implementation as shown in Table 5.31.

Table 5.31: Spearman correlations between questions Q38 to Q43 of drivers for strategy implementation

Q		Q38	Q39	Q40	Q41	Q42	Q43
Q38	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.782	.743	.641	.743	.599
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q39	Correlation Coefficient	.782	1.000	.765	.589	.699	.564
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Q		Q38	Q39	Q40	Q41	Q42	Q43
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q40	Correlation Coefficient	.743	.765	1.000	.733	.815	.631
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q41	Correlation Coefficient	.641	.589	.733	1.000	.812	.552
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q42	Correlation Coefficient	.743	.699	.815	.812	1.000	.693
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q43	Correlation Coefficient	.599	.564	.631	.552	.693	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value							

Figure 5.8 below provides an overview of the items for drivers of strategy implementation. In Figure 5.8 it can be seen that the histogram is skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'drivers of strategy implementation'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.8. In addition a detailed step-by-step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.8: A summary of the items for drivers of strategy implementation

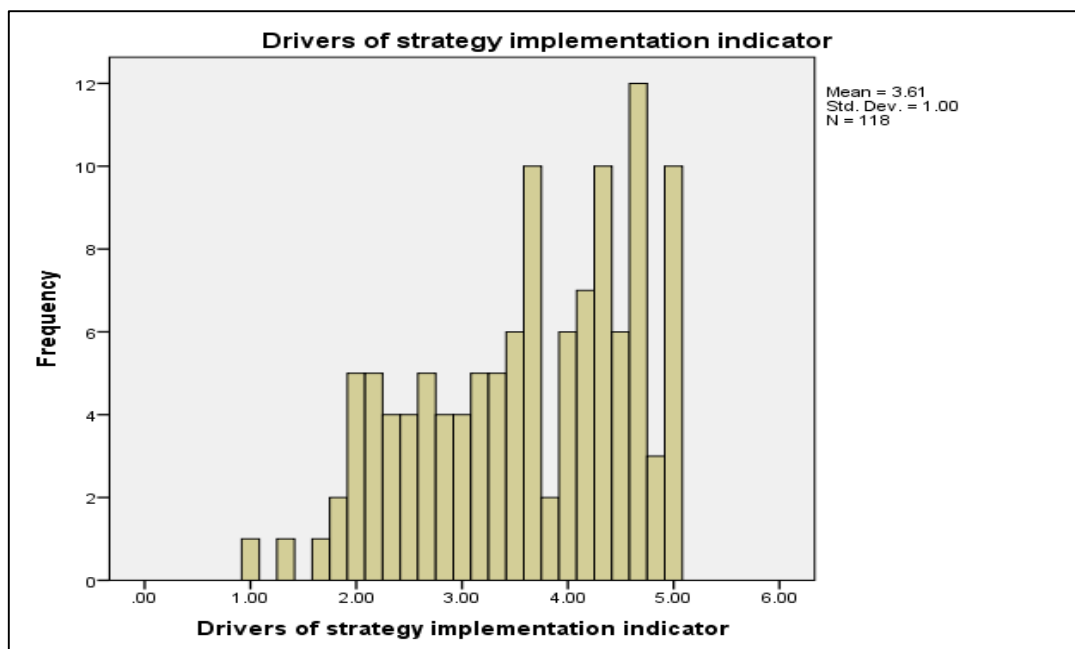


Figure 5.8 shows that the mean of the consolidated data is 3.61 (which is higher than 3) indicating that senior managers mostly 'agreed' to 'strongly agreed' with all the drivers.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of the drivers for strategy implementation, the responses of all questions (questions Q38 to Q43) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that (44.9%) of the senior managers agreed or strongly agreed that precisely defined strategic objectives are important strategy drivers. Another (38.1%) of them strongly agreed that leadership in the organisation are important while (35.6%) indicate that they agree that effective planning processes was also an important driver for strategy implementation.

5.2.9 Problems and obstacles to strategy implementation

Participants were asked twenty (20) questions regarding the problems and obstacles they experience with strategy implementation. Questions Q48 to Q55 assessed the problems experienced with strategy implementation and questions Q56 to Q67 assessed the obstacles to strategy implementation. These questions were asked to determine the factors that senior managers perceived to impede or continue to impede their progress towards strategy implementation.

Objective:

- **To identify factors that impede strategy implementation at the dti.**

❖ Problems to strategy implementation

To assess problems with strategy implementation, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neutral”, “agree”, or “strongly agree”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.32.

Table 5.32: Percentage and mean responses for problems with strategy implementation

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Strongly disagree	2 – Disagree	3 – Neutral	4 – Agree	5 – Strongly agree	
Q49	Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes	5.9	30.5	12.7	25.4	25.4	3.30
Q51	The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy	5.1	16.9	28.8	33.9	15.3	3.40
Q53	Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on	9.3	19.5	19.5	32.2	19.5	3.30
Q54	We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation	8.5	22.0	22.0	26.3	21.2	3.30
Q55	We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service	13.6	22.9	15.3	30.5	17.8	3.20

Any mean score above three indicates that senior managers agree to strongly agree with all the drivers. Table 5.32 shows that all mean values are above three which indicates that all senior managers 'agreed' to 'strongly agreed' and rarely disagreed with the problems they experience towards strategy implementation. Seniors managers mostly agreed that the department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51, mean=3.40) whilst disagreeing that employees do not understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (Q49, mean=3.30). More than half (58.5%) agreed that important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on, and that a lot of time is spent reorganising or restructuring without knowing why it is important for strategy implementation (Q53, mean=3.30) and (Q54, mean = 3.30) respectively. In addition senior managers also agreed that they were unsure whether the strategy they were implementing was worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems they face in public service (Q55, mean=3.20)

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that the only items (questions) loading onto problems for strategy implementation (from Questions Q48 to Q55) were Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55.

Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was only run for these questions. A small p -value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the p -value the stronger the correlation. A p -value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the positive correlations are significant, which was the case for the questions Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55 on the problems to strategy implementation as shown in Table 5.33. Thus, a participant who answered highly on, for instance, question Q49, would also give a high score on the Likert-type scale for questions Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55, respectively.

Table 5.33: Spearman correlations between Questions Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55 for problems with strategy implementation

Q		Q49	Q51	Q53	Q54	Q55
Q49	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.651	.585	.509	.641
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118
Q51	Correlation Coefficient	.651	1.000	.529	.433	.544
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118
Q53	Correlation Coefficient	.585	.529	1.000	.580	.586
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118
Q54	Correlation Coefficient	.509	.433	.580	1.000	.552
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118
Q55	Correlation Coefficient	.641	.544	.586	.552	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value						

Figure 5.9 below provides an overview of the items for drivers for problems to strategy implementation. In Figure 5.9 it can be seen that the histogram is moderately skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'problems to strategy implementation'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.9. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.9: A summary of the items for problems to strategy implementation

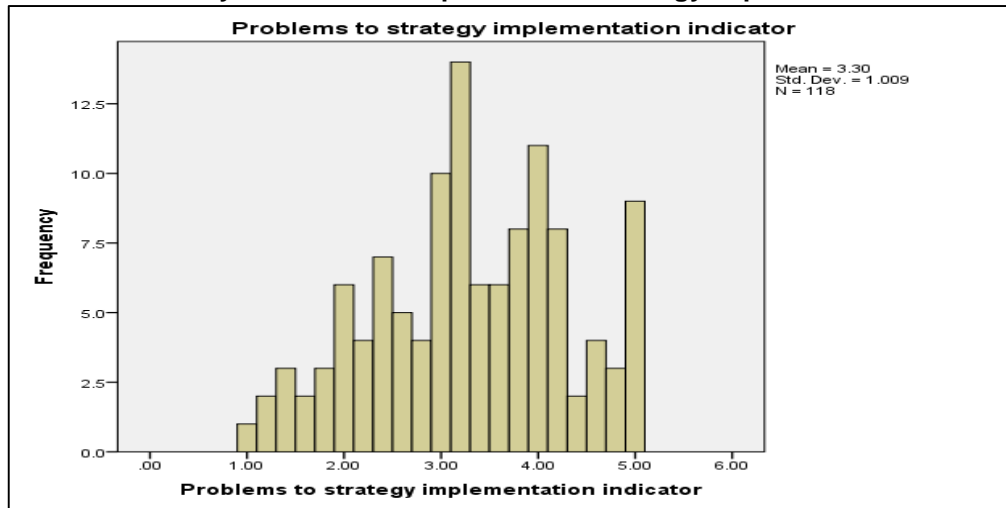


Figure 5.9 shows that the mean of the consolidated data is 3.30 (which is higher than 3) indicating that senior managers mostly ‘agree’ to ‘strongly agree’ with problems experienced with strategy implementation.

Findings

In order to create an overall overview of the problems for strategy implementation, the responses of all questions (questions Q49, Q51, Q53, Q54 and Q55) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that the majority of the senior managers mostly ‘agreed’ and ‘strongly agreed’ with the problems experienced towards strategy implementation. Senior managers mostly agreed that the department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (33.9%) whilst disagreeing that employees do not understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (30.5%). More than half (58.5%) of the senior managers agreed that important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on, and a lot of time is spent reorganising or restructuring without knowing why it is important for strategy implementation respectively. Senior managers (30.5%) also indicated that they were unsure whether the strategy they were implementing was worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service.

❖ Obstacles to strategy implementation

To assess the obstacles that senior managers experience with strategy implementation, participants were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale range of 1 to 5 and to respond with “not at all a problem”, “slight problem”, “neutral”, “some problem”, or “a major problem”. The percentage and mean responses are indicated in Table 5.34 below:

Table 5.34: Percentage and mean responses for obstacles to strategy implementation

Q	Question	Percent of responses for each option on the Likert scale					Weighted mean of the responses
		1 – Not a problem at all	2 – Slight problem	3 – Neutral	4 – Some problems	5 – A major problem	
Q57	Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts	17.8	22.9	14.4	27.1	17.8	3.04
Q59	Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure	11.0	15.3	17.8	27.1	28.8	3.47
Q60	Inability to generate “buy in” or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions	9.3	16.9	16.9	34.7	22.0	3.43
Q61	Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation	20.3	14.4	17.8	24.6	22.9	3.15
Q62	Lack of feelings of “ownership” of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees	11.9	22.0	16.1	29.7	20.3	3.25
Q63	Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives	12.7	5.9	15.3	33.1	33.1	3.68
Q64	Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation	7.6	8.5	13.6	39.8	30.5	3.77
Q65	Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions	9.3	14.4	14.4	33.1	28.8	3.58
Q66	Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process	10.2	19.5	18.6	35.6	16.1	3.28
Q67	Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance	5.9	21.2	10.2	30.5	32.2	3.62

Any mean score above three indicates that senior managers believe the obstacles are a major problem to strategy implementation. Table 5.34 shows that all the mean values are above three which indicates that senior managers experience problems or major problems with the identified obstacles towards strategy implementation. The obstacles senior managers considered to be a problem were poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals

or business units responsible for strategy implementation (Q64, mean=3.77). Obstacles which are major problems were a lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63, mean=3.68) and the inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67, mean=3.62).

The CFA (see Appendix H) shows that of the items (questions) loading onto obstacles for strategy implementation (from Questions Q56 to Q67) only Q57 and Q59 to Q67 remained. Accordingly, only these items (questions) are reported on and a Spearman's correlation was only run for these questions. A small *p*-value indicates a strong correlation, therefore the smaller the *p*-value the stronger the correlation. A *p*-value (Sig.2-tailed) less than 0.05, indicates that the positive correlation are significant, which was the case for the questions Q57 and Q59 to Q67 on obstacles to strategy implementation as shown in Table 5.35. Thus, a participant who answered highly on, for instance, question Q57, would also give a high score on the Likert-type scale for questions Q59 to Q67, respectively.

Table 5.35: Spearman correlations between Questions Q57 and Q59 to Q67 for obstacles experienced with strategy implementation

Q		Q57	Q59	Q60	Q61	Q62	Q63	Q64	Q65	Q66	Q67
Q57	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.608	.583	.537	.524	.560	.547	.605	.636	.498
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q59	Correlation Coefficient	.608	1.000	.712	.682	.650*	.417	.491	.641	.648	.619
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q60	Correlation Coefficient	.583	.712	1.000	.659	.605	.498	.542	.667	.615	.547
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q61	Correlation Coefficient	.537	.682	.659	1.000	.808	.618	.632	.616	.726	.697
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q62	Correlation Coefficient	.524	.650	.605	.808	1.000	.529	.622	.583	.675	.759
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q63	Correlation Coefficient	.560	.417	.498	.618	.529	1.000	.519	.473	.545	.436
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q64	Correlation Coefficient	.547	.491	.542	.632	.622	.519	1.000	.762	.703	.724
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118

Q		Q57	Q59	Q60	Q61	Q62	Q63	Q64	Q65	Q66	Q67
Q65	Correlation Coefficient	.605	.641	.667	.616	.583	.473	.762	1.000	.769	.671
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q66	Correlation Coefficient	.636	.648	.615	.726	.675	.545	.703	.769	1.000	.781
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q67	Correlation Coefficient	.498	.619	.547	.697	.759	.436	.724	.671	.781	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Q - Survey question number N - Sample size Sig.2-tailed - two-tailed p-value											

Figure 5.10 below provides an overview of the items for obstacles to strategy implementation. In Figure 5.10 it can be seen that the histogram is moderately skewed to the left, indicating that the majority of responses were at the higher end of the Likert scale for the factor 'obstacles to strategy implementation'. A detailed discussion on this follows after Figure 5.10. In addition a detailed step-by step guide is provided in Appendix J which provides an explanation on the construction of the histogram.

Figure 5.10: A summary of the items for obstacles to strategy implementation

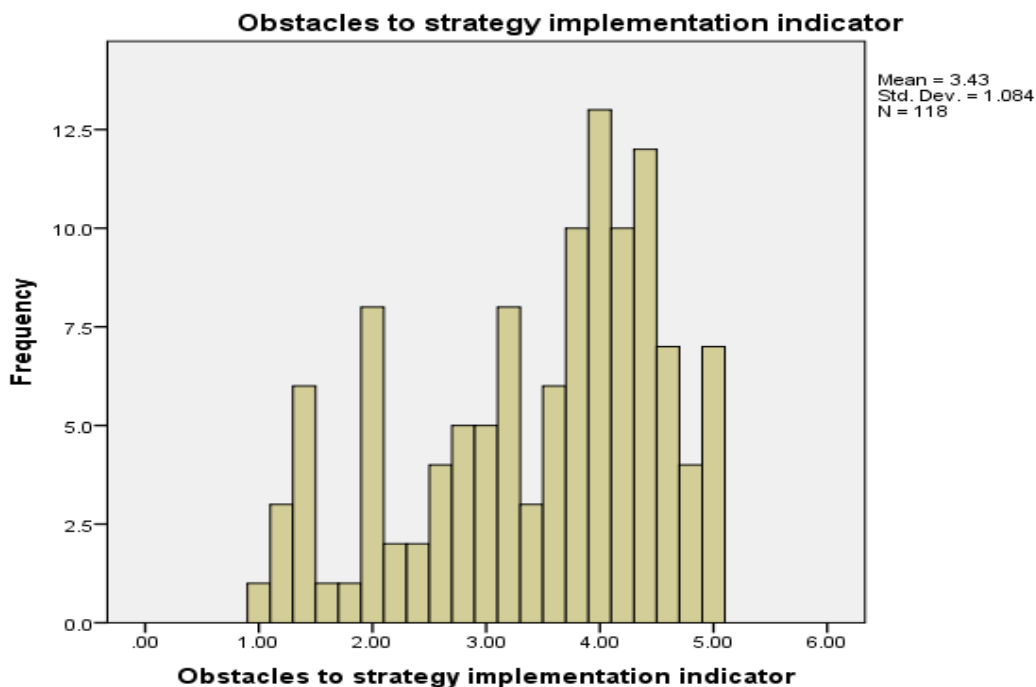


Figure 5.10 above indicates that the mean of the consolidated data is 3.43 (which is higher than 3) indicating that senior managers mostly see the obstacles as major problems.

Findings

In order to create a complete overview of the obstacles for strategy implementation, the responses of all questions (questions Q57 and Q59 to Q67) were combined into an individual score from 1 to 5. The findings reveal that the three main obstacles senior managers considered to be problems to strategy implementation were poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation (39.8%), lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (35.6%) and the inability to generate “buy in” or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (34.7%). The obstacles senior managers (33.1%) indicated as a major problem were the lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives and 32.2 % of them indicated the inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance.

5.3 Preliminary analysis from Phase 1 to inform Phase 2

According to the explanatory sequential mixed method design the survey findings obtained from Phase 1 informs the design of the interview questions for Phase 2. The data collected during the survey were analysed and the findings were used as a basis to develop the interview questions for Phase 2. The survey findings provided context for the interviews in an attempt to better understand the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation at the dti. The focus areas in the survey then became relevant and important for the interview phase.

The demographic survey results reveal that the majority (50%) of senior managers were between the ages of 40 to 49 years. Most of them who participated were male (49.2%) and the main participants were Directors (66.9%). The division that mainly supported the survey were the Industrial Development Incentive Administration Division (IDIAD). The majority of the senior managers indicated they held a Masters’ degree and (97.5%) of them had some level of experience or exposure to leadership and strategy implementation. The majority (56.8%) of senior managers indicated that the dominant public sector strategy in the department involved growth (new policies and strategies) while 39% of them indicated that consolidation (refocusing on core objectives) was the dominant public sector strategy in the department.

Leadership styles

The objectives for leadership styles were to investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation as well as to explore how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation. For transformational leadership more than half (51.7%) of the senior managers responded frequently, if not always, that they talked enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, 45.8% indicated that they fairly often articulated a compelling vision of the future and 44.1% of them indicated that they fairly often expressed confidence that goals will be achieved. The findings revealed that senior managers portraying a transformational leadership style may positively influence strategy implementation. For transactional leadership most (32.2%) senior managers responded that they fairly often direct their attention toward failures to meet standards and (32.2%) responded they sometimes concentrated their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures. The findings revealed that senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles may positively influence strategy implementation. For laissez-faire leadership the majority (80.5%) of the senior managers responded that they did not at all avoid making decisions and did not delay in responding to urgent questions. The findings revealed that senior managers portraying laissez-faire leadership styles may negatively influence strategy implementation. Overall the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation is that transformational and transactional leadership styles will have a positive effect on strategy implementation in the dti. However, the laissez-faire leadership style will have a negative effect on strategy implementation in the dti.

Exploration and exploitation of core competencies

The objectives for the exploration and exploitation of core competencies were to investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies and to further explore how senior managers at the dti explore and exploit core competencies to achieve strategy implementation. For the exploration of core competencies in respect of transformational leadership, half (50.8%) of the senior managers responded that they frequently, if not always, provided opportunities for employees to develop their competencies, 49.2% responded they also frequently if not always encouraged employees to be creative and innovative and 45.8% responded that they nurtured and motivated employees to develop their competencies. The findings revealed that senior managers portraying transformational leadership styles will positively influence the exploration of core competencies. For the exploitation of core competencies in respect of transactional leadership (41.5%) of the senior managers responded that they often identified core competencies and exploited them effectively and 33.1% responded that they frequently if not

always leveraged the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different directorates in the division/business unit. The findings revealed that senior managers portraying transactional leadership styles will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies.

Strategy Implementation

In respect of strategy implementation through the leaders' job satisfaction, 50% of the senior managers responded that they fairly often to most of the time were able to achieve strategy implementation by working with others. As far as implementing strategy through service delivery outcomes is concerned 49.2% of them responded that they fairly often to most of the time were able to achieve their business plan targets and 49.2% of them responded that they had specific, measurable and achievable key performance indicators. These findings revealed that strategy implementation and service delivery outcomes play an important role in the dti.

Drivers of strategy implementation

With regard to the drivers of strategy implementation, the majority (44.9%) of the senior managers responded that they agreed to have precisely defined strategic objectives, while (38.1%) responded that they strongly agreed that leadership in the organisation was an important driver for strategy implementation. An additional (35.6%) responded that they agreed that effective planning processes were also an important driver for strategy implementation.

Problems to strategy implementation

As far as problems to strategy implementation are concerned, the majority of the senior managers responded that they agreed with all the problems. Most senior managers (33.9%) responded that they agreed that the department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy, 30.5% responded that they disagreed that employees do not understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes and more than half (58.5%) responded that they agreed that important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on and that a lot of time is spent reorganising or restructuring without knowing why it is important for strategy implementation. In addition senior managers (30.5%) responded that they also agreed that they were unsure whether the strategy they were implementing was worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems they face in public service.

Obstacles to strategy implementation

With regard to obstacles that prevent strategy implementation, senior managers responded that they experience problems with all the obstacles, however, they responded to three main obstacles. The majority (39.8%) of the senior managers responded that there was poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation, 35.6% of them responded that there was a lack of understanding of the role of organisational structure and design in the implementation process and 34.7% responded that there was an inability to generate “buy in” or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions. The obstacles that were seen as major problems, were a lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (33.1%) and the inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (32.2%).

5.4 Qualitative data analysis (Phase 2 - Interview Results)

Phase 2 of the qualitative data results were obtained from face to face verbal exchanges with senior managers in the dti and included participants that have been part of the initial quantitative sample. The intent of the qualitative phase was to follow up on the quantitative results and explore the results in more depth. The sample size, the participants and the questions asked were determined by connecting the quantitative phase and the qualitative phase. The interview protocol was semi-structured with open ended questions posed to senior managers in the dti at the level of Deputy Director Generals, Chief Directors and Director respectively. The senior managers interviewed were asked the same set of questions. A total of nine (9) interviews were undertaken. These interviews took between 30-45 minutes and were recorded on an audio tape, with notes taken during the interviews and thereafter transcribed verbatim with transcripts developed. Participants were then given an opportunity to review their transcripts to check for correctness and accuracy of their responses. The interview questions were formulated in line with the survey objectives to support the purpose and aim of the study, which was to investigate how the leadership styles of senior managers contribute to strategy implementation.

The results of the interviews are presented in accordance with research objectives of this study. **Each objective had its own set of interview questions and has been grouped accordingly.** Overall the participants were asked eleven (11) interview questions as follows:

1. Could you please share your basic understanding of what strategy implementation is all about?

2. What do you think plays a role in strategy implementation? Why do you think this role is important?
3. How would you describe your leadership style to ensure you achieve strategy implementation?
4. How do you ensure that your strategic objectives are met and your strategy is implemented successfully?
5. How would you as a leader go about exploring core competencies in order to achieve strategy implementation?
6. How would you as a leader go about exploiting core competencies in order to achieve strategy implementation?
7. How do you ensure that your strategy is implemented successfully? How do you measure the implementation of you strategy?
8. What factors do you think is most important for strategy implementation? Why do you think these factors are important?
9. How successful or effective is strategy implementation currently in your current work/business unit?
10. What problems do you experience in the implementation of your strategic objectives? What do you think cause these problems?
11. What obstacles do you encounter in achieving strategy implementation?

For each of the interview questions the related transcripts were coded to evaluate each participants' response from which themes were drawn and grouped under each main research question. Statements in quotes indicate a participants' thoughtful and unique response to their experience as a senior manager.

5.4.1 Leadership styles

For leadership styles participants were asked a set of four (4) interview questions. The aim of these questions was to understand the extent to which senior managers perceive themselves to contribute to strategy implementation. The first question was to solicit if senior managers understood what strategy implementation was all about, in which they were asked to provide their basic understanding of strategy implementation. The second question was on their thoughts on the role of strategy implementation and why they thought strategy implementation was important. The third question involved senior managers describing their leadership style towards achieving strategy implementation. The fourth and final question sought to determine how senior managers ensure that their strategic objectives are met and how they achieve implementation success.

Objectives:

- **To investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation.**
- **To explore how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation.**

Five thematic areas emerged under this research question and includes: i) Execution of plans and identification of interventions; ii) Leadership, resources, team effort and organisational culture; iii) Consultative leadership and participative team focused leadership, iv) Team focus, assessment of milestones, alignment and leadership and v) monitoring and evaluation.

i) Execution of plans and identification of interventions.

All nine (9) participants interviewed were of the opinion that strategy implementation involves the **execution** of plans or programmes and by putting these plans or programmes into action. This is with the view to help the organisation achieve its mission, goals and objectives. Of the nine (9) participants two (2) of the participants also had an interesting perspective to strategy implementation where one participant mentioned that strategy implementation is about the **identification** of implementable interventions while the other participant mentioned that it is about (i) the improvement of socio-economic livelihoods and (ii) the monitoring of milestones / indicators.

ii) Leadership, resources, team effort and organisational culture.

Four (4) of the nine (9) participants interviewed mention that leadership was important and critical to strategy implementation. Participants that believed leadership was important, maintained that:

- *“Leadership plays a crucial role in strategy implementation.”*
- *“I think leadership is key....so if we don’t have strategic leadership we will not be able to achieve these goals or actually identify the areas that we need to focus on.”*
- *“It’s the leader or manager’s capacity to understand the strategy and understand the implementation process to be able to capture all that leads to successful implementation. So the leader is the person who is the centre of all things. If we have a weak leader you can’t succeed with implementation.”*
- *“I believe that implementation should be based on oversight informed decision making and continuous improvement underpinned on effective leadership....leadership is critical in ensuring that whatever decision is taken is communicated to employees making*

transparency an important element in ensuring that we get buy-in and commitment from employees.”

Three (3) of the participants indicated the need for adequate capacity and resources and that resources should be allocated appropriately through a resource allocation plan as this would help strategy implementation significantly. The remaining two (2) participants mentioned that strategy implementation requires a combination of team effort by identifying the appropriate team and that organisational culture plays an important role in strategy implementation.

In addition participants also provided some interesting and unique perspectives which they felt had a level of importance to the role of strategy implementation which consisted of (i) alignment between implementation plans and the high level strategy, (ii) attraction of foreign direct investment which leads to job creation and skills transfer, (iii) performance management of the team and (iv) the identification and continuous consultation of key stakeholders is critical for success.

iii) Consultative leadership and participative team focused leadership.

Three (3) out of nine (9) participants were of the opinion they have a team focused / participative leadership style. Whilst two (2) participants indicated that they have a consultative leadership style approach. The remaining participants provided some unique but different responses which included (i) inclusiveness where the participant stated, *“Inclusive in the sense of having all resources pulling towards the same objectives. This includes team members, properly directed budgets, technology, systems etc. the buy in and alignment of all these is a must for proper implementation, hence the leader must direct and co-ordinate appropriately whilst serving as the highest level of support in getting things back on track if any of these is not contributing as it should.”* One participant indicated (ii) the ability to influence and persuade others by providing direction on what is to be achieved works well. Another very interesting response came when a participant stated that (iii) *“My leadership style is about having the ability to anticipate, envision, influence and maintain flexibility whilst empowering role players especially in the event of strategic change within the processes.”*

iv) Team focus, assessment of milestones, alignment and leadership.

During this question participants provided varying responses indicating the need for effective teams, proper management and assessment of milestones or turnaround times to deliver on objectives. One participant focused on leadership stating that *“the leader has to ensure that the responsibility for certain actions is allocated appropriately and the necessary resources are available for the objectives to be met and implementation to be successful.”* In addition some

participants provided a completely different view indicating that consideration should also take into account the involvement of all relevant key players during the first step of the strategy planning process. To support this, another participant stated *“I ensure that my strategic objectives are met through consultation and communication with staff and key influences”*.

v) Monitoring and evaluation.

During the interview participants consistently emphasised the importance of monitoring and evaluation. Eight out of the nine participants mention monitoring in the forms of basic monitoring, monitoring of goals, effective monitoring, monitoring of performance and monitoring progress. In addition four (4) participants also mentioned evaluation in the forms of evaluating whether goals are achieved and having an effective evaluation system. However, one participant made an interesting viewpoint stating that *“If the desired goals and objectives are met, within the prescribed time-frames and allocated resources then implementation could be considered successful.”*

The above is a summary of interview questions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7. The main areas that emerged related to the senior manager perceptions of how their leadership style contributes to strategy implementation and included the execution of plans and identification of interventions; leadership, resources, team effort, organisational culture; consultative leadership and participative leadership; team focus, assessment of milestones, alignment of objectives, monitoring and evaluation. It has to be noted that the majority of the participants had a fairly good understanding of strategy implementation. In addition the majority of the participants also emphasised that leadership was key to strategy implementation. Some participants indicated that a consultative and participative leadership approach is required for strategy implementation in the dti, and focus should be on team efforts taking into account the organisations culture, an assessment of its milestones and proper alignment of strategy to its objectives. However the majority of the participants also emphasised that overall monitoring and evaluation is important for strategy implementation.

5.4.2 Exploration and exploitation of core competencies

For the exploration and exploitation of core competencies participants were asked two (2) interview questions. These questions were aimed at determining the extent to which senior managers perceived their leadership style to influence the exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation. The first interview question relates to leaders exploring of core competencies and the second to the exploitation of core competencies.

Objectives:

- **To investigate the relationship between styles of leadership in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies.**
- **To explore how senior managers at the dti explore and exploit core competencies.**

Two main thematic areas emerged under this research question, that is i) team focus and ii) the utilisation of teams.

i) Team focus

Team focus has been the main and dominant theme that has emerged during the answering of this question. The majority of the participants indicated the importance of team focus in respect of identification of strengths and skills within a team and most importantly the leaders' awareness of his/her teams potential skills and competencies. Three (3) participants however had different and interesting viewpoints indicating that exploration and exploitation of core competencies should be dependent on line management and it should be aligned and apportioned to proper resource allocation.

ii) Utilisation of teams

Most of the participants, five (5) out of nine (9) focused on the utilisation of team and provided very specific answers on how the team should be tested and utilised. One participant indicated that they allocate strategic related tasks to test the response from their teams. Some participants indicated that team members are assigned tasks based on their strengths or core competencies and that they partner weaker team members with those that are more skilled in respect of core competencies to promoting skills transfer. One (1) participant mentioned that the manner in which the team is utilised is important. One (1) participant preferred not answer this question. Three (3) participants provided some unique responses on their leadership style by arguing that:

- *“Importantly for me it is to provide strategic direction and leadership by virtue of a robust institutional framework, ensuring prudence of resource, maintaining policy alignment and coherence and implementation of risk management mechanisms”.*
- *“I look at previous programmes implemented well and draw on key strengths and lessons learnt.”*
- *“I also try to benchmark against other departments and companies”.*

The above is a summary of interview questions five and six. The majority of the participants emphasised that they explore core competencies by identifying the strengths and skills of their team members. Participants indicated that this is done by understanding the team's potential by exposing them to different tasks at hand and identifying skills through the performance management and development process. With regard to the exploitation of core competencies, the majority of the participants focus on the utilisation of teams where participants indicated that they place weaker team members with stronger team members to learn and they allocate team members with more strategic related tasks as a way of testing how team members respond. Some participants indicated that team members that have advanced core competencies are allocated tasks with more high level responsibilities.

5.4.3 Drivers for strategy implementation

Regarding the drivers for strategy implementation participants were asked two (2) interview questions. The aim of these questions was to determine the most important factors that senior managers perceive could help them achieve strategy implementation. The first interview question was asked to identify the factors that senior managers believe are important for strategy implementation and secondly to share their experience on how successful or effective strategy implementation is currently in their work or business unit.

Objective:

- **To identify factors that drive strategy implementation at the dti.**

Two (2) thematic areas emerged under this question, that is i) resources and communication and ii) Successful and effective or unsuccessful and ineffective strategy implementation.

i) Resources and communication

A number of factors were mentioned, however, two main factors dominated and were emphasised by the majority of participants, namely, resources and communication. Seven (7) out of the nine (9) participants mentioned resources, arguing that there was a need to align resources and to have sufficient resources to implement strategies. Five (5) out of nine (9) participants mention communication as key, in as far as communication is key, or should be key, but also indicating that there was a lack of proper communication. Some other factors participants mentioned were (i) proper planning, (ii) good co-ordination, (iii) identifying risks, (iv) organisational culture, (v) performance management and (vi) stakeholder engagements. One (1) participant listed many unique factors and we quote the participants response here:

“Conducting a socio-economic impact assessment including consideration to the unintended consequences of the strategy; a fully participatory and inclusive stakeholder engagement process; the current and future institutional framework that will deliver the capacity to implement; and a communication plan. Other important factors during the strategy development phase is that the strategy is a national effort which is fully inclusive and reviewed through a national consultative process. There is a need to build on and integrate national and sub-national plans which also is comprehensive in scope. There is also a need to reaffirm a needs-based and market-led priorities that is specific and measurable.”

ii) Successful or unsuccessful vs effective or ineffective strategy implementation

Four (4) out of the nine (9) participants answered positively indicating that there is some level of success and effectiveness in the implementation of their strategy. Three (3) out of the nine (9) participants mention that the success and effectiveness are not quite where it should be, and that it's not terrible, but neither is it great. Two participants responded negatively but did not indicate outright that implementation was unsuccessful or ineffective. These participants responded as follows:

- *“...human resources constraints especially at top management position.”*
- *“...lack of alignment, whereby high level strategies are either not very well developed which leads to problems with implementing it. A poorly developed strategy cannot be executed. There are also instances of disconnect between a high level strategy and the initiatives or projects undertaken at an implementation stage. These are symptoms of a strategy that is either not very well communicated or of a lack of leadership and ownership of the strategy”.*

The above is a summary of interview questions eight and nine. The important factors identified that senior managers perceived to help achieve strategy implementation in the dti include resources and communication. Some participants indicated that it should not only include finance and human resources but all forms of resources. Another important factor that the majority of the participants believed to be key was communication, which participants found to be lacking in the dti and believed should be made more effective. With regards to the participants' experience on the effectiveness of strategy implementation, the majority of the participants indicated that strategy implementation is fairly effective and successful. No participant indicated that strategy implementation was unsuccessful or ineffective but participants indicated areas for improvement relating to non-alignment between high level strategies and divisional/ business unit strategies.

5.4.4 Problems and obstacles in or with strategy implementation

With regard to the problems and obstacles with strategy implementation participants were asked two (2) interview questions. The aim of these questions was to determine the factors that senior managers perceived as impeding or continuing to impede their progress towards strategy implementation. The first interview question was asked to identify the problems senior managers experience in the implementation of their strategic objectives and the second interview question was to identify the obstacles senior managers faced in achieving implementation success.

Objective:

- **To identify factors that impede strategy implementation at the dti.**

Two (2) thematic areas emerged under this question which included i) resources, stakeholders, communication and leadership and ii) Lack of understanding and lack of resources.

i) Resources, stakeholders, communication and leadership

Five (5) out of nine (9) participants were of the opinion that the lack of resources, that is, human and financial resources, and the misalignment of resources impede strategy implementation. On the other hand three (3) out of the nine (9) participants mentioned challenges with stakeholders which included, for example, buy in from stakeholders, not getting cooperation from stakeholders and stakeholders not being forthcoming. Two (2) out of the nine (9) participants mention a lack of proper communication. Two (2) out of the nine (9) participants mentioned a lack of clear leadership and insufficient support from leadership due to leadership not fully understanding the value or impact of the strategic objectives. Two (2) participants also made mention of monitoring and evaluation challenges. Other interesting responses included concerns around legislative processes and instruments where two (2) participants provided very interesting perspectives as follows:

- *“... sometimes prolonging the processes that are the legislative processes”.*
- *“... the lack of appetite for the legislative instrument which could potentially enhance the capacity to deliver support services and strengthen the implementation thereof by affected parties and address administrative and other regulatory challenges that impedes the optimal growth and development of the strategic objectives”.*

ii) Lack of understanding of strategy implementation and lack of resources

Four (4) out of the nine (9) participants indicated that a lack of understanding of strategy implementation is a major obstacle. This includes a lack of understanding of the department's

mandate, a lack of understanding of the impact of unsuccessful implementation and a lack of understanding by stakeholders. Three (3) out of the nine (9) participants mentioned lack of resources and these included human and financial resources. However some participants provided some different and interesting responses which included a lack of control, a lack of willingness to accept extra tasks or learn new things, and policy or regulatory frameworks that were not suited for a particular strategic objective.

One (1) participant provided a very different perspective and I quote it here: *“A comprehensive approach is required to create an enabling environment; the global environmental issues; developmental challenges; strong political support that ensures that there is an unambiguous policy direction in creating a conducive environment”*.

Another unique response was, *“In my experience, some managers are reluctant to participate in divisional Excocs etc. as they find the reporting processes to laborious. This may in part relate to too many requests that are received for the same information. Also, sometimes managers may not want to be exposed to audit queries, etc. Internal audit does provide assurance to the Director General on the effectiveness of internal controls in the department. This together with sound standard operating procedures and risk strategy are a first line of defence”*.

The above is a summary of interview questions ten and eleven. The main problems perceived by senior managers as impeding progress towards strategy implementation in the dti included misalignment of financial and human resources, lack of cooperation from stakeholders to support the implementation of strategy and lack of proper communication. Participants expressed their views on the lack of leadership support and understanding of the importance of implementation. In respect of the main obstacles identified, the majority of the participants emphasised that the department’s mandate as well as the impact of implementation is not fully understood. Participants also found that financial and human resources were also major obstacles to strategy implementation in the dti.

5.5 Chapter summary

Chapter 5 presented the data analysis and findings of Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this study. Phase 1 of the survey provided an analysis of the leadership styles of senior managers in relation to a transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style as well as the interaction of these leadership styles on the exploitation and exploration of core competencies towards strategy implementation. The Statistical Package for Social Science Software (SPSS) and AMOS were used to undertake the statistical analysis of the survey data. SPSS was used to compute Cronbach alphas, frequency distributions, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and

Spearman correlation coefficients. A preliminary analysis of the survey results was then presented to inform the development of the interview questions for Phase 2. The qualitative data analysis explained in detail the quantitative results as well as the survey responses. The qualitative data analysis involved the collection of raw data and was prepared for analysis. The analysis involved the close reading of the data to gain a sense of the information which was then coded and revised continuously to determine a category system in which thematic areas were identified. The quantitative data and the qualitative data results will be interpreted and explained in the next chapter together with a discussion and conclusion of this study.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The knowledge and experience gained from this study are assessed to develop an understanding of the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation. This chapter sets out the interpretation of the findings, followed by a discussion and conclusions. The interpretation of the findings is discussed holistically in relation to the research questions by connecting and aligning it to Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study. In addition presenting how Phase 2 provided a deeper level of understanding and insight into leadership styles and strategy implementation. The implications for senior managers in the public service, limitations, delimitations and recommendations for future research are also presented. To put this study into perspective the interpretation of the findings have been aligned to the research questions and are presented first with a discussion, followed by recommendations to the dti.

6.2 Interpretation of findings for research question 1: On completion of the formulation of their strategic plans, to what extent do senior managers perceive their leadership styles to contribute to strategy implementation?

The objectives of this research question was first to investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers and strategy implementation, and secondly, to explore how senior managers at the dti perceive their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation. The findings of this study showed that senior managers who portray transformational and transactional leadership styles will positively influence strategy implementation. Senior managers who portray a laissez-faire leadership style will have a negative effect on strategy implementation. The survey findings are consistent with the hypotheses as stated in Chapter 3 of this study on leadership styles and strategy implementation. This indicates that a positive relationship exists between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and strategy implementation. There is a negative relationship between the laissez-faire leadership style and strategy implementation. In addition the findings from the interviews on how senior managers perceived their leadership styles to contribute to strategy implementation, revealed that most senior managers indicated that this was done through the execution of plans and identification of interventions; leadership, resources, team effort, organisational culture; participative leadership; team focus, assessment of milestones, alignment of objectives, monitoring and evaluation. Most senior managers perceived leadership to be key to strategy implementation and had a fairly good understanding of the requirements for strategy implementation. They were able to resonate

with the importance of strategy implementation. In respect of the leaders' job satisfaction and service delivery outcomes, senior managers perceived that they were able to achieve strategy implementation by working with others, the majority indicated that they were able to achieve their business plan targets and had specific, measurable and achievable key performance indicators. It was determined that strategy implementation is seen as important and significant in the dti and senior managers made efforts to ensure that their strategies were implemented.

The above findings complement and support the literature on transformational leadership, indicating that positive organisational outcomes will arise from this leadership style. The literature indicates that a transformational leadership style serves as an agent of change to develop capabilities, provide direction, support followers, maximise resources and address challenges (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013) to bring about organisational effectiveness. This type of leadership style requires followers to look beyond the interests of their higher order needs and to focus on the needs of the organisation, with the view to providing a meaningful, committed and modern approach to leadership that will shape employee behaviour (Wright *et al.*, 2012). Research on transformational leadership style indicates that this style of leadership is suited for fostering organisational change in the context of performance reforms (Yukl, 2008:712). Some empirical evidence advocates that employee satisfaction and performance are mainly associated to transformational leadership (Oberfield, 2012; Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang, 2008). However, the general view of transformational leadership in relation to strategy implementation is that implementation presents a major problem that needs to be considered due to the fact that organisations and more specifically public organisations normally pursue multiple mandates, goals and objectives concurrently many of which do not have any economic purpose (Van Slyke and Alexander, 2006). O'Connell *et al.* (2011:103-125) indicated that there are two psychological processes of transformational leadership that will help shape strategy implementation conditions in the public service namely the creation of vision and setting of goals. When complimented with transformational leadership these two processes will influence the success of strategy implementation (O'Connell *et al.*, 2011).

However, the literature on transactional leadership has shown mixed results. A study by Moynihan and Pandey (2004) looked at environmental and internal organisational influences to determine effectiveness in an organisation. Their study found that from an environmental perspective support from elected officials, public and the media showed a positive influence on organisational effectiveness. From the organisational perspective through internal management choices in respect of culture, structure and technology the researchers also found a positive influence on organisational effectiveness. Their findings revealed that if employees were clear about the goals in the organisation then the perception was that the organisation was operating effectively. Research undertaken by Trottier *et al.* (2008) examines

the relationship between transactional leadership and employee satisfaction. Their study determined that the dimensions of transactional leadership are positively associated with satisfaction in respect of contingent rewards and management by exception. Another study by Choi and Rainey (2010) examined the perceptions of employees on performance and established that a significant relationship exists between the culture for results and perceived performance in favour of the transactional leadership. The transactional leadership style assumes that motivation is dependent on punishment or reward; employees have to follow and conform to instructions given by their managers and self-motivation by employees is absent with the result that employees need to be observed, managed and monitored (Oberfield, 2012). According to Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) subordinates who accomplish their tasks given by the transactional leader will be rewarded, however if a subordinate act against the instructions of the leader then the subordinated may receive punishment. This indicates an exchange process between the leader and subordinate to ensure performance towards the realisation of goals and standards (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2013). Lowe *et al.* (1996) considered transactional leadership a functional management responsibility in a system that already exists and which has a risk avoidance preference; it gives attention to time constraints and efficiency, and maintains control through substantive work performance rather than through processes. In the context of the public service such systems are mainly found in contractual agreements and followers or employees seek ways to use established performance criteria and indicators to receive performance awards (Wright *et al.*, 2012).

On the laissez-faire leadership style, this study determines that senior managers who portray a laissez-faire leadership style will negatively influence strategy implementation. This finding is consistent with the literature view on the laissez-faire leadership style. This type of leadership style is considered anarchic and lacks leadership (Bradford and Lippit, 1945; Northouse, 2010). Leaders who practice this kind of leadership delay or do not make decisions when required, they are reluctant to give rewards, employees are not empowered or motivated under this style of leadership and these leaders make no effort to support the needs of their employees (Westerlaken and Woods, 2013). This is the most unpopular leadership style as this style of leadership is accompanied with many problems, it provides minimal or no direction to employees and allows employees with as much freedom as possible (Tarsik *et al.*, 2014). Laissez-faire leaders avoid responsibility with little being conveyed or communicated between the leaders and their followers (Avolio *et al.*, 1999). This leadership style commonly represents “non-leadership behaviour and such leaders are believed to be with no capacity to get involved or participate” (Sarros and Santora, 2001:389), which will have a negative impact on strategy implementation.

However, although this study focused on transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, it was interesting to find that most senior managers felt that by adopting a participative leadership style they were able to contribute to strategy implementation. Participative leadership involves consulting with employees to provide ideas and suggestions to help inform decision making while the final decision still remains with the leader. This leadership style has an all-encompassing approach to an employees' duties where responsibilities are shared from the preparatory work, the decision making process and in implementation (House and Mitchell, 1974). According to Hersey and Blanchard (2010), participative leadership style motivates employees to become an inspired and results driven team who take responsibility and ownership of their tasks. This type of leadership style involves a high degree of consultation between the leader and subordinates in which employees are highly trained, high performers, committed, valued and appreciative of their work (Lumbasi, K'Aol and Ouma, 2016:4).

During the interviews it was interesting to note that senior managers made no specific mention of a transformational, transactional or a laissez-faire leadership style. However they indicated that focus should be on team effort taking into account the organisation's culture, an assessment of its milestones and alignment of the strategy to its objectives. These are all elements of a democratic or participative leadership style. Some senior managers mentioned that overall monitoring and evaluation was important for strategy implementation which was not related to their perception of leadership styles.

Recommendations for the dti: Leaderships Styles

Leadership styles are key to any organisation and the dti is no exception. Shapiro (2005:1) states, "Leadership is an action, not a title, and the ability to lead can be found in every person. Each of us must claim our authority to lead at the right time and in the right place." It is therefore recommended that:

- a) Leadership programmes in the dti should be designed specifically for the needs of senior managers to address the leadership skills gaps where they exist and these programmes should include simulations. This should in turn form part of the senior managers' career development and should involve development of skills through mentoring, training, and coaching to achieve the required leadership style. This should also be extended to fostering a practice of reflection and the development of self-awareness. The department should encourage and adopt this within its human resource system by providing structured opportunities for reflection. Given that this could present itself as a challenge especially in a bureaucratic setting, there is a need to make space for senior managers to reflect, as

this will assist towards developing a leadership culture in the department to enact strategy implementation. Senior managers should also undergo psychometric evaluations to determine their current leadership styles.

- b) Although many leadership development programmes rely greatly on competency frameworks, the department is encouraged to identify a wide range of leadership skills and qualities key to strategy implementation by avoiding a reductionist or a mechanistic approach. As part of efforts to develop leadership styles at the department, senior managers should be trained to acquire coaching skills in order to provide better leadership potential for their teams and junior staff. Equally so senior managers should have clarity and understanding that they are accountable to those in authority and should ensure that their priorities are aligned with the department's goals and objectives and also ensure that policies are adhered to and established procedures followed.
- c) Given that this study has provided insight into the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation, senior managers can assess their own performance appraisal. However, this will depend on how senior managers align themselves with this role and make their leadership styles count for the greater good of the department.
- d) In addition, it is important to recognise that leadership strengths can also be seen as a weakness especially when senior managers are pushed to an extreme where it becomes important for senior managers to be cognisant of this. The development of leadership styles should be a continuous process of reflection, learning and self-development.

6.3 Interpretation of findings for research question 2: To what extent do senior managers perceive their leadership style to influence the exploration and exploitation of core competencies to achieve strategy implementation?

The objectives for this research question were to investigate the relationship between leadership styles of senior managers in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies and to explore how senior managers at the dti explored and exploited core competencies to achieve strategy implementation. The findings revealed that senior managers who portray a transformational leadership style will positively influence the exploration of core competencies and those who portray a transactional leadership style will positively influence the exploitation of core competencies. These findings were consistent with the hypotheses as stated in Chapter 3 of this study. This indicates that a positive relationship exists between the transformational leadership style and the exploration of core competencies as well as a positive relationship between the transactional leadership style and the exploitation of core

competencies. The findings regarding how senior managers perceived themselves to explore and exploit core competencies to achieve strategy implementation, indicate that most senior managers are of the opinion that this was done by team focus and the appropriate utilisation of teams. The majority of the senior managers perceived that they explore core competencies by identifying the strengths and skills of their team members whilst others perceived that they did this by understanding the team's potential by exposing them to different tasks at hand and identifying skills through the performance management and development process.

The findings of this study on the transformational leadership style and the exploration of core competencies corresponds positively with the research views in the literature that indicate that organisational performance is rooted in exploring new opportunities (Gibson and Birkinshaw, 2004). However, there is very little evidence of how a transformational leadership style affects the exploration of core competencies in strategic management processes. The study revealed that transformational leaders appear to be well suited for exploring core competencies because they are willing to take risks and challenge assumptions. Leaders with a transformational leadership style recognise the importance of competencies and are able to identify them as their own and will try to explore core competencies throughout the organisation (Jansen *et al.*, 2009).

On the exploitation of core competencies, the findings showed that the majority of the senior managers perceived that this was done by focusing on the utilisation of teams where they placed weaker team members with stronger team members to learn; by allocating team members with more strategic related tasks as a way of testing how team members responded. Some senior managers indicated that team members who had advanced core competencies were allocated tasks with more high level responsibilities.

Even with transactional leadership and the exploitation of core competencies, there is very little evidence in the literature of how transactional leadership behaviours affect the exploitation of core competencies in strategic management processes. There is evidence in the literature that decisions made by senior managers of an organisation aid the organisation's development as well as assisting with leveraging of its core competencies. The authors also indicate that transactional leaders will tend to share the organisation's resources across business units through the exploitation of core competencies (Hamel and Prahalad, 1993; Jansen *et al.*, 2009). Therefore a transactional leadership style will be able to exploit core competencies in relation to resources and capabilities that will not be easy to imitate, and can become an organisation's source of competitive advantage (Hagen *et al.*, 1998:40). It is important to recognise that transactional leadership is considered a functional management responsibility where public service systems are mainly found in contractual arrangements, in which

employees establish key performance criteria, indicators, outputs and outcomes to ensure the realisation of goals and standards. Therefore the relevance of contingent rewards is applicable and exists in the public service. Further to this, the monitoring of work and regular performance assessments take place to address performance non-conformities making management by exception also applicable to the public service (Wright *et al.*, 2012). The manner in which transactional leaders influence strategy implementation is currently unclear and underdeveloped (Jansen, Vera and Crossan, 2009) and will require further research in this area.

Recommendation for the dti: Core competency engagement

Core competencies are important because they prescribe the behaviours required to achieve strategic objectives and goals. It is recommended that senior managers in the dti should drive the core competencies of their directorates and or chief directorates to develop its full potential. This will require senior managers to identify the required core competencies and focus should be placed on the important areas for strategy implementation. According to Prahalad and Hamel (1990:6) managers are assessed by their ability to identify, explore and exploit their core competencies. Senior managers in the dti should obtain a clear understanding of their core competencies and find ways to leverage them within their respective directorates.

It is further recommended that senior managers should:

- work closely with the departments' organisational development team,
- develop core competency scorecards tailored for each employee directed specifically towards strategy implementation, and
- merge and complement their core competencies with the government wide monitoring and evaluation framework.

6.4 Interpretation of findings for research question 3: What are the most important factors that senior managers perceive might help them to achieve strategy implementation?

The objective of this question was to identify factors that drive strategy implementation in the dti. During the survey phase senior managers identified precisely defined strategic objectives, and leadership in the organisation as the most important drivers for strategy implementation. In addition having effective planning processes in place was also highlighted as an important driver. During the interviews the most important factors that emerged for strategy implementation were resources and communication, which are not limited to finance and human resources but inclusive to all forms of resources including assets, natural resources and society. The most important factor that senior managers believed to be key was

communication which they found to be lacking in the dti. The findings indicate that in addition to the most important drivers that were perceived in Phase 1, senior managers in Phase 2 indicated that all forms of resources were also important factors to drive strategy implementation. In addition the majority of the senior managers indicated that strategy implementation was fairly effective and successful in the dti.

The above findings on the drivers for strategy implementation were consistent with the literature. A broad spectrum of strategy implementation drivers was found in the strategy implementation texts. Some of the variables that have played a major role in the strategy implementation process included formulation of strategy, organisational structure, people, control, monitoring and evaluation, resource allocation, communication, planning and leadership (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Miller, 1997; Al Ghamdi, 1998; Birbbaum, 2007; Hrebiniak, 2008; Čater and Pučko, 2010 and Salih and Doll, 2013). The major driver identified in the literature was organisational structure whereas senior managers in the dti believed that communication was the most important driver for strategy implementation. Various researchers like (Alexander, 1985; Beer and Eisenstat, 2000; Li *et al.*, 2008; Cocks, 2010; Schaap, 2012; Salih and Doll, 2013) have indicated that communication plays an integral part in strategy implementation and that it is critical for the public sector but difficult to achieve.

The definition of communication within the context of strategy implementation by Okumus (2003:877) is stated as the “mechanisms that send formal and informal messages about the new strategy”. Alexander (1985:96) has the same view indicating that in the implementation process communication plays an important part in keeping track as to what is actually happening, analysing how to address emerging problems as well as assisting in deciding what modifications are required. Alexander (1985) further points out that communication has come out as the most commonly identified single factor promoting strategy implementation. An attempt to understand the organisations’ strategy and its strategic intent requires effective and continuous communication (Salih and Doll, 2013:35) and it is the responsibility of top management to clearly communicate with its employees what the strategic direction of the organisation is about as well as clearly defining and expressing roles responsibilities and tasks that need to be performed. Cocks (2010) indicates that failing to communicate an organisations strategic direction to its employees leads to misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the strategic intents creating perception gaps and this has the potential to lead to implementation failure.

A study by Schaap (2012) concluded that top level managers do not communicate the organisations direction and strategy to all of their employees. Communication should be a two

way channel to allow for questions to be solicited from employees affected by the organisation's strategy and for top management to understand their issues and problems so that they can be considered (Alexander, 1985:96). It should also include communicating the why, especially when change in tasks occur and more importantly the thinking behind or reasons as to why new strategic decisions were made. Kotter (1995) argues that when vision is communicated to employees every communication tool and channel should be used as they are central elements in the success of any strategy.

Recommendation for the dti: Communication

Communication is an important function for any organization despite its size. Taking into account the above findings, it is recommended that:

- a) A strategic approach to communication be taken with the development of a dti wide communication strategy to serve as a blueprint that details and guides the strategic processes and actions that are required to stimulate strategy implementation. The communication process should start internally and ensure alignment and commitment within the organisation. Therefore senior managers should be able to determine which elements of the communication strategy should be communicated to their teams and all messages communicated should be clear and consistent with the overall strategic goals in mind and should resonate with employees within the organisation
- b) Equally important a communication feedback mechanism should be developed and implemented where senior managers should be fully involved and understand the importance of communication as well as the know how to leverage communication strategically. Given that outcomes based measures are gaining popularity in communication, senior managers must make efforts to recognise the value that communication brings to the implementation of strategy and they should recognise the critical role they must play in its efforts.
- c) It is also recommended that communication should be integrated with the culture of the organisation and not be considered a separate function. This can be achieved by ensuring that all communication arising within business units in the department are aligned and support the department's overall strategy.
- d) All communication should be broken down to specific messages such as its mandate or objectives and it should be the responsibility of senior managers to deliver these messages to further the strategic goals of the department.

6.5 Interpretation of findings for research question 4: What factors do senior managers perceive to impede or continue to impede their progress towards strategy implementation?

The objective of this question was to identify factors that impede strategy implementation in the dti. In this respect senior managers were asked to identify problems and obstacles they perceived were impeding strategy implementation. During the survey phase the problems senior managers identified as impeding strategy implementation included all the problems mentioned in the survey. These problems include “employees don’t understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes”; “the department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy”; “important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on”; “we spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don’t seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation” and “we are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service”. However most senior managers perceived that the department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy and were not in agreement that employees did not understand how their jobs contributed to important implementation outcomes. More than half of the senior managers perceived that important information is often overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on resulting in unnecessary time being spent reorganising or restructuring without knowing why it is important for strategy implementation. In addition, senior managers were also unsure whether the strategy they were implementing was worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems they faced in the public service. During the interview phase the main problems perceived by senior managers as impeding progress towards strategy implementation in the dti were the misalignment of financial and human resources, lack of cooperation from stakeholders to support the implementation of strategy and lack of proper communication. Senior managers strongly perceived that there was a lack of leadership support and understanding of the importance of strategy implementation.

The findings of the problems to strategy implementation showed a positive correlation with the findings in the literature. The most common and recurring problem found in the literature to be impeding strategy implementation efforts included communication, coordination, lack of skills and capabilities, inadequate training and development, lack of leadership, unclear roles and responsibilities (Alexander, 1985; Al Ghamdi, 1988; Reed and Buckley, 1998; Beer and Eisentat, 2000; Hrebiniak, 2005; Cocks, 2010; Blahova and Knapkova, 2011 and Kohtamaki et.al., 2012). The review of prior and recent studies indicates that lack of leadership is a major strategy implementation problem, however the least frequently occurring challenges that were found to have emerged and should be given attention to included, lack of alignment between

strategy and structure or incongruence between strategy and structure (Reed and Buckley, 1998), as well as lack of monitoring and evaluation (Hrebiniak, 2005).

In relation to the obstacles, senior managers indicated that they experienced problems with all the obstacles mentioned in the survey. However, they perceived there were three main obstacles. The first was poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation, the second was a lack of understanding of the role of organisational structure and design in the implementation process and thirdly there was an inability to generate “buy in” or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions. Over and above senior managers perceived that the obstacles that were seen as a major problem was a lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives and the inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance. During the interview phase the obstacles that senior managers identified as a major problem were that the departments’ mandate and the impact of implementation was not fully understood. In addition senior managers also perceived that financial and human resources were a major obstacle to strategy implementation in the dti.

The findings of the obstacles to strategy implementation displayed a positive correlation with the findings in the literature. A study by Salih and Doll (2013) established that one of the obstacles they uncovered was ineffective management of change and stated that “management change is a complex process because of the interconnectedness of causes and consequences” (Salih and Doll, 2013: 36). According to Freedman and Tregoe, 2003:117) “top teams should know that reluctance or incompetence in crafting the process for implementing strategic change is the single and most reliable predictor of its failure.” The same obstacle was perceived by senior managers in the dti as a major problem. In addition a new obstacle that emerged in this study that senior managers believed to be a problem was lack of understanding of the organisational mandate and its impact on implementation.

It is apparent from the literature that effective strategy implementation is faced with many problems and there is no clear cut approach, methodology or process that indicates how to combat or minimise these obstacles that accompany it, given that strategy implementation is a key component of the strategic management discipline.

Recommendation for the dti: Leadership and change management

To overcome and minimise the obstacles to strategy implementation will require senior managers to have a full understanding of the obstacles that impede strategy implementation in the department and it is therefore recommended that:

- a) Senior managers must provide leadership to drive the strategy implementation process as this would send a strong level of leadership commitment to the process which will result in a level of acceptance from employees.

- b) Likewise it is just as important to have and lead a process of change to achieve successful strategy implementation. Concerns that may arise could be eliminated through a change management process that is effective which will allow the department to maintain a good level of tolerance and productivity. It is therefore recommended that the dti introduce change agents to specifically address strategy implementation obstacles and develop score cards to address these obstacles, which must be introduced on a gradual scale and embedded within the strategic planning processes.

6.6 Discussion of findings

This study explained how senior managers at the dti perceived their leadership styles as contributing to strategy implementation and providing an understanding why some senior managers have not yet managed to implement their strategies successfully. Through the understanding of the role of leadership styles, exploration and exploitation of core competencies, the obstacles and problems senior managers face in strategy implementation, assisted with decisions that could be taken arising from the findings of this study. This study offers attention to strategy implementation from a different perspective which described the role of different leadership styles, to enable a better understanding of the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation. This study went beyond the strategy implementation-leadership style relationship and described how the dimensions of strategy (i.e. exploration and exploitation of core competencies) interacted with the role of transactional and transformational leadership styles of senior managers at the dti to jointly lead to strategy implementation.

This study has contributed to filling the knowledge gap in two research domains. The first was from a leadership perspective, on the role of leadership as part of strategy implementation. The second was from a strategy perspective by connecting the dimensions of strategy, which are exploration and exploitation and its link to transformational and transactional leadership styles.

The study has also made a methodological contribution by combining qualitative and quantitative methods and adopting an explanatory sequential mixed methods design to investigate and explore the role of different leadership styles as part of strategy implementation.

As far as strategy implementation is concerned the study makes a significant practical contribution to senior managers in the dti as it provides guidance to 1) ensuring senior managers have a better understanding of the importance of the role of leadership styles in the strategy implementation process so that strategy implementation initiatives can be properly directed, 2) it provides an effective foundation to support implementation planning interventions, 3) it emphasises the importance of exercising different leadership styles required for achieving strategy implementation and 4) it identifies critical factors that drive and impede strategy implementation. If the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation is ignored and neglected, organisations and in particular the public service may find their strategic plans failing at implementation. In addition this study is of particular interest to senior managers in the dti who are faced with strategy implementation challenges, as the findings from this study will help them to better understand the nature of strategy implementation and its importance for improving performance outcomes. It will also provide them with guiding principles to put into practice when dealing with leadership measures. In the public service all senior managers should work towards acquiring skills by combining transformational and transactional leadership styles to enact and ensure successful strategy implementation.

6.7 Implications for senior managers in the public service

Even though this study contributes to research, it also makes a contribution to practice. This study is important to private and public organisations and persons interested in successful strategy implementation and specifically for senior managers in the dti. This study would be equally important to strategists and policy formulators in organisations who pay close attention to the nature of strategy implementation (Kohtamäki *et al.*, 2012). The style of leadership is critical to strategy implementation and is beneficial to public and private organisations (Ćater and Pučko, 2010). The findings of this study suggest that leadership styles are important for strategy implementation outcomes in any organisation and they can be developed. The level of drive in public service organisations plays a meaningful role in the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation. This study suggests that public service organisations and their senior managers have a bigger role to play and need to be more cognisant of how they provide direction through their leadership styles while at the same time exploring and exploiting core competencies. Hence, it is important to have leadership development programmes tailored to help senior managers in the public service to acquire the skills and knowledge of transformational and transactional leadership styles in support of exploration and exploitation to achieve strategy implementation. According to Du, Swaen, Lingreen and Sen (2013:165) leadership styles play an essential role in an organisation, especially transformational leadership style which they found to be suitable for starting and designing best practices while transactional leadership style was best suitable for

implementing and ensuring the organisation benefits from these best practices. This indicates the importance of transformational and transactional leadership styles that are required to lead successful strategy implementation.

The findings of this study suggest that senior managers in the dti and across the public service should follow or adopt a varied approach to leadership and exercise transformational leadership by combining it with transactional leadership. This recommendation is in line with Quinn's (1988) thinking on the concept of the "master manager", who selects and adopts a transformational or transactional leadership style depending on the situation or context in which they find themselves. In essence the use of both leadership styles will assist to reinforce strategy implementation efforts. This study is of particular interest to senior managers in the dti who are faced with strategy implementation challenges, as this study will help them to better understand the nature of strategy implementation and its importance for improving performance outcomes. In addition it will provide them with guiding principles to put into practice when dealing with leadership measures.

6.8 Limitations

All research undertaken face limitations and this research was no exception. Herewith are some limitations that were experienced in this study. Firstly, the research only took into account the role of leadership styles as a stimulus towards strategy implementation, other influencing variables existed, but were isolated during the design of the experimental structure. Secondly a low response and lack of confidence due to the sensitivity of information, as well as constraints in time was experienced from the target population. The research was limited only to the South African Department of Trade & Industry, a public service entity at the national sphere which impact on the results being generalised.

6.9 Delimitations

Although it would have been useful to understand the perceptions of middle and lower level managers towards strategy implementation, these levels were not included in the present study. This study was confined to the examination of answers from the questionnaire that was only provided to senior managers in the dti, because it was the view that middle and lower level managers were not involved in the initial strategy planning processes, as a result this group of managers was excluded.

6.10 Recommendations for future research

While this study offers insights into understanding the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation, it also provides an opportunity to explore further research within the leadership and strategy domains. The following recommendations are made for future research:

- 1) It is recommended that future research could explicitly connect the dimensions of strategy (i.e. exploration and exploitation) and test its link with other leadership styles e.g. participative and consultative leadership or adopt an integrated leadership style approach to strategy implementation.
- 2) Some of the findings in this study are new and there has been a lack of empirical studies that examined the role of leadership styles and strategy implementation. This was found to be the “missing link” to most of the strategy implementation research (Andrews et. al., 2011). It is therefore recommended that researchers or practitioners could use these new findings as an area of focus to explore deeper with other leadership styles and strategy implementation.
- 3) This study focused exclusively on the perceptions of the senior managers’ leadership styles and strategy implementation in the Department of Trade and Industry (dti). It is recommended that future research examine the generalisability of the findings in this study within the broader public service entities. This could be explored by comparing and testing leadership styles and strategy implementation practices of other public service entities.
- 4) Most strategy implementation studies involved a proliferation of in-depth single multiple case studies with large surveys still dominating. It is therefore recommended that other research methods could be explored to test for leadership styles and strategy implementation. Comparative case studies or longitudinal case studies could be used which could provide information about how leadership styles influence strategy implementation and performance.

6.11 Conclusion

This chapter set out the interpretation of the findings in relation to the research questions that needed to be answered with recommendations for consideration by dti, other public and private organisations and persons interested in successful strategy implementation. This study investigated three leadership styles (i.e. transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and

its relationship to strategy implementation. It explored how senior managers at the dti perceived their leadership style to contribute to strategy implementation. It further investigated the styles of leadership within the dimensions of strategy in the context of exploration and exploitation of core competencies. This study in addition explored how senior managers at the dti explored and exploited core competencies to achieve strategy implementation.

The findings in this study revealed that transformational and transactional leadership have a positive influence on strategy implementation, while laissez-faire leadership has a negative influence on strategy implementation. In addition transformational leadership has a positive influence on the exploration of core competencies while transactional leadership has a positive influence on the exploitation of core competencies. This study has provided clarity and an encouraging insight into understanding the relationship between leadership styles and strategy implementation in the public service. The findings of this research have the potential to assist policy makers to develop an all-inclusive view of leadership styles and strategy implementation to address the required administrative changes. This includes senior managers, strategists and policy practitioners.

It is trusted that this study will not only contribute to the scholarly field of research but also the realisation by senior managers and or leaders in the public service, to understand the importance of acquiring the transformational and transactional leadership styles for achieving successful strategy implementation. This area of study will require more empirical studies to be undertaken to bring closer and stimulate even more research between the fields of leadership and strategy.

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APPENDIX A: Approval letter to undertake research at the dti



Private Bag X84, PRETORIA, 0001, the dti Campus, 77 Meintjies Street, Sunnyside, 0002, Tel: (012) 394 0000
the dti Customer Contact Centre local: 0861 843 384 International: +27 12 394 9500, www.thedti.gov.za

Enquiries: Leighanne Naicker
Telephone: (012) 394 3577
E-mail LNaicker@thedti.gov.za

Ms Tina Reddy
Department of Trade and Industry
Pretoria
0002

Dear Ms Reddy

RE: REQUEST FOR APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT the dti

Your submission requesting approval to conduct research at the Department of Trade and Industry (the dti) refers.

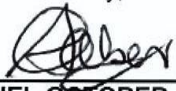
the dti is in support of your research towards an investigation of how the leadership styles of senior managers contribute to the success of strategy implementation at the Department and is willing to provide you with the necessary support to make the project a success. We trust that the recommendation you will provide will contribute to a better understanding of the nature of strategy implementation and its importance for improving performance outcomes.

Kindly note that approval has been granted on the following conditions:

- a) That you complete a Confidentiality Declaration form to ensure compliance with Departmental policies;
- b) That you participate in a briefing discussion with the Vetting Unit before commencement of the research;
- c) That you provide the dti with a detailed research plan and draft questionnaires, surveys and/or interview questionnaires (where applicable); and
- d) That you submit a copy of your research report once you have published the final document.

Should you have any further enquiries regarding the content herein, please contact the Director: Human Resource Development, Ms Angie Ontong on 012 394 5980 or email AOntong@thedti.gov.za.

Yours sincerely,



LIONEL OCTOBER
DIRECTOR-GENERAL
DATE: 04/07/2016

Lefapha la Dikgwebisano le Diintaseteni • Lefapha la Kgwebo le Indasteri • uMnyango wezoRhwebo noZimbani • Muhasho wa zwa Mbambadzo na Indasiteri • Department van Handel en Nywerheid • Kgoro ya Kgwebo le Indasteri • Ndzawulo ya to Mabindzu na Tindasteri • LiTiko leTekuhweba netiMboni • ISebe lezoRhwebo noShishino • UmNyango wezokuRhwebelana namaBubufo

Batho Pele - putting people first



APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form (Phase 1)

Informed consent for participation in a Doctoral Research Study THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in an academic research study on the role of leadership styles as part of strategy implementation. The purpose of the study is to explain how senior managers at the Department of Trade and Industry (dti) perceive their leadership styles to contribute to strategy implementation.

This study involves completing the survey questionnaire attached and requires the participation of Deputy Director Generals, Chief Directors and Directors. It is expected to take about 20-30 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire.

Your confidentiality will be protected throughout the study and your name will not appear on the questionnaire. You will not be able to be identified in person on the basis of the answers you provide. Any data obtained from you will not be viewed by anyone but the researcher and will be retained in a locked storage area.

Your participation in this survey is very important and is voluntary with the option to withdraw at any time without penalty.

There are no anticipated benefits or risks to you as a participant, apart from helping the researcher to better understand how leadership styles of senior managers contribute to the success or failure of strategy implementation in the dti. Others may benefit in the future from the information found in this study.

The results of this study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. A summary of the results will be provided to the dti or to you directly on request. Should you have any further queries or concerns you are most welcome to contact me, Tina Reddy on (012) 3941430 or 0825667282 or alternatively my research supervisor, Dr Christoffel Hendriks on (051) 401 3040 or 082 819 1471, hendrikscj@ufs.ac.za.

Thank you for your participation!

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understood the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Researcher: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX C: Informed Consent Form (Phase 2)

Informed consent for participation in a Doctoral Research Study THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in an academic research study on the role of leadership styles as part of strategy implementation. The purpose of the study is to explain how senior managers at the Department of Trade and Industry (dti) perceive their leadership styles to contribute to strategy implementation.

This study involves you taking part in an interview which requires the participation of Deputy Director Generals, Chief Directors and Directors. The interview is expected to take about 45 minutes to an hour of your time.

Your confidentiality will be protected throughout the study and your name will not appear on the questionnaire. You will not be able to be identified in person on the basis of the answers you provide. Any audio tapes of the interview and any other data obtained from you will not be viewed by anyone but the researcher and will be retained in a locked storage area. The tapes will be erased at the completion of the research.

Your participation in this interview is very important and is voluntary with the option to withdraw at any time without penalty.

There are no anticipated benefits or risks to you as a participant, apart from helping the researcher to better understand how leadership styles of senior managers contribute to the success or failure of strategy implementation in the dti. Others may benefit in the future from the information found in this study.

The results of this study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. A summary of the results will be provided to the dti or to you directly on request. Should you have any further queries or concerns you are most welcome to contact me, Tina Reddy on (012) 3941430 or 0825667282 or alternatively my research supervisor, Dr Christoffel Hendriks on (051) 401 3040 or 082 819 1471, hendriksci@ufs.ac.za.

Thank you for your participation!

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understood the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix D: Quantitative Survey (Phase 1)

Introduction

This questionnaire seeks to elicit information on the styles of leadership towards strategy implementation at the Department of Trade and Industry (dti). You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire as accurately and honestly as possible. This survey is for the purpose of obtaining a PhD degree by the researcher. The Director General of the Department of Trade and Industry has kindly granted permission for this study to be undertaken. Therefore, you are requested to feel free to providing your opinions. All responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality, anonymity and will not prejudice anyone. Your assistance and cooperation will be highly appreciated. Completing this questionnaire will take approximately between 25-30 minutes of your time.

Section 1

Demographic Information

Instruction: This section **deals with obtaining demographic information pertaining to you**. Please be assured that this information is **CONFIDENTIAL** and will only be used to compare groups of respondents.

Please mark your response with a tick (✓) in the appropriate answer box.

Your age category?	
Younger than 30 years	1
30-39 years	2
40-49 years	3
50-59 years	4
60-69 years	5
Your gender?	
Male	1
Female	2
Which ONE of the following divisions do you belong to in the dti?	
International Trade and Economic Development (ITED)	1
Trade and Investment South Africa(TISA)	2
Consumer and Corporate Regulation (CCRD)	3
Group Systems and Support Services GSSSD)	4
Industrial Development Incentive Administration Division (IDIAD)	5
Industrial Development and Policy Development (IDPD)	6
Broadening Participation Division (BPD)	7
InvestSA (ISA)	8

Which ONE of the following BEST describes your current job title?	
Deputy Director General	1
Chief Director	2
Director	3
Other (please specify)	4
Which ONE of the following BEST describes your highest academic qualification?	
Phd or Doctorate	1
Master's degree	2
Honor's Degree	3
Undergraduate degree	4
Diploma	5

Other (please specify)	6
Number of completed years involved in leadership and strategy implementation in any organisation?	
Less than 1 year	1
1 to 3 years	2
4 to 7 years	3
8 to 10 years	4
11 to 15 years	5
15 or more years	6
Which ONE of the following BEST describes the DOMINANT public sector strategy in your department?	
Consolidation (refocusing on core objectives)	1
Growth (new policies and strategies)	2
Other (please specify)	3

Section 2

Leadership Styles

Instruction: This section requires you to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Twenty nine (29) descriptive statements are listed below, please judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Please use the following rating scale:

Not at all 0	Once in a while 1	Sometimes 2	Fairly often 3	Frequently, if not always 4	
1. I talk about my most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
2. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
3. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
4. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
5. I talk optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
6. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
7. I articulate a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
8. I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
9. I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
10. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
11. I get others to look at problems from many angles	0	1	2	3	4
12. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
13. I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies	0	1	2	3	4
14. I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies	0	1	2	3	4
15. I encourage employees to be creative and innovative.	0	1	2	3	4
16. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort					
17. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
18. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
19. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
20. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
21. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures	0	1	2	3	4
22. I keep track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
23. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
24. I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively	0	1	2	3	4
25. I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit	0	1	2	3	4
26. I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked	0	1	2	3	4
27. I am absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
28. I avoid making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29. I delay to responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4

Section 3
Strategy implementation

Instruction: This section requires you to describe strategy implementation. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Seven (7) descriptive statements are listed below.

Please use the following rating scale:

Not at all 0	Once in a while 1	Sometimes 2	Fairly often 3		Frequently, if not always 4		
30. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction)			0	1	2	3	4
31. I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction)			0	1	2	3	4
32. The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable.			0	1	2	3	4
33. I always achieve my business plan targets			0	1	2	3	4
34. I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time.			0	1	2	3	4
35. I encourage training and development of skills sets required			0	1	2	3	4
36. I am always within my allocated budget.			0	1	2	3	4

Section 4
Drivers of strategy implementation

Instruction: This section requires you to identify drivers to strategy implementation. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Eleven (11) descriptive statements are listed below.

Please use the following rating scale:

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4		Strongly Agree 5	
37. The structure of the organization		1	2	3	4	5
38. Leadership of the organization		1	2	3	4	5
39. The allocation of resources in the organization		1	2	3	4	5
40. The performance management system		1	2	3	4	5
41. Training and development in the organization		1	2	3	4	5
42. Effective strategic planning processes		1	2	3	4	5
43. We have precisely defined strategic objectives		1	2	3	4	5
44. We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives		1	2	3	4	5
45. Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit		1	2	3	4	5
46. Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit		1	2	3	4	5
47. Upward and downward communication of the organizations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate		1	2	3	4	5

Section 5
Problems with strategy implementation

Instruction: This section requires you to identify problems you have with strategy implementation. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Eight (8) descriptive statements are listed below.

Please use the following rating scale:

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4		Strongly Agree 5	
48. Implementation decisions takes too long to make	1	2	3	4	5	
49. Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes	1	2	3	4	5	
50. Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement	1	2	3	4	5	
51. The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy	1	2	3	4	5	
52. Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process	1	2	3	4	5	
53. Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on	1	2	3	4	5	
54. We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	
55. We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service	1	2	3	4	5	

Section 6
Obstacles to strategy implementation

Instruction: This section requires you to identify obstacles to implementing strategy. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Twelve (12) descriptive statements are listed below.

Please use the following rating scale:

Not at all a problem 1	Slight problem 2	Neutral 3	Some problems 4		A major problem 5	
56. Poor or vague strategy	1	2	3	4	5	
57. Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts	1	2	3	4	5	
58. Insufficient financial resources to implement strategy	1	2	3	4	5	
59. Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure	1	2	3	4	5	
60. In ability to generate "buy in" or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions	1	2	3	4	5	
61. Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	
62. Lack of feelings of "ownership" of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees	1	2	3	4	5	
63. Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives	1	2	3	4	5	
64. Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	
65. Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions	1	2	3	4	5	

Not at all a problem 1	Slight problem 2	Neutral 3	Some problems 4	A major problem 5	
66. Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process	1	2	3	4	5
67. Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for taking time to complete this questionnaire and your contribution to this research. Please forward completed questionnaire to:

Ms Tina Reddy

Fax: (012) 3942430 or Email: TReddy@thedti.gov.za

Appendix E: Qualitative Questionnaire (Phase 2)

Deputy Director General

Chief Director

Director

Other

1. Could you please share your basic understanding of what strategy implementation is all about?
2. What do you think plays a role in strategy implementation? Why do you think this role is important?
3. How would you describe your leadership style to ensure you achieve strategy implementation?
4. How do you ensure that your strategic objectives are met and your strategy is implemented successfully?
5. How would you as a leader go about exploring core competencies in order to achieve strategy implementation?
6. How would you as a leader go about exploiting core competencies in order to achieve strategy implementation?
7. How do you ensure that your strategy is implemented successfully? How do you measure the implementation of you strategy?
8. What factors do you think is most important for strategy implementation? Why do you think these factors are important?
9. How successful or effective is strategy implementation currently in your current work/business unit?
10. What problems do you experience in the implementation of your strategic objectives? What do you think cause these problems?
11. What obstacles do you encounter in achieving strategy implementation?

Appendix F: Cronbach Alpha Values

Table F1: Cronbach Alpha

Construct number	Construct	Items	Cronbach alpha
1	Transformational leadership	Twelve items: 1-12	0.867
2	Transactional leadership:	Eight items: 16-29	0.842
3	Laissez-faire leadership	Four items: 26-29	0.831
4	Exploration of core competencies	Three items: 13-15	0.867
5	Exploitation of core competencies	Two items: 24-25	0.537
6	Strategy implementation success in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Two items: 30-31	0.802
7	Service delivery outcomes	Five items: 32-36	0.552
8	Drivers of strategy implementation	Five items: 37-41 (Adapted) Five items: 42-47 (Developed)	0.918
9	Problems to strategy implementation	Eight items: 48-55	0.893
10	Obstacles to strategy implementation	Twelve items: 56-67	0.942

For this study, reliability was estimated using the internal consistency method referred to as Cronbach's alpha. The purpose of using the Cronbach's alpha was to check for consistency of the questionnaire. Any Cronbach alpha value less than 0.5 is considered unacceptable (Goforth, 2015). Since all the p-values in Table F1 are greater than 0.5, this indicates that the questionnaire was found to be reliable.

APPENDIX G: Frequency distributions for all Likert-type questions

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Table G1: I talk about my most important values and beliefs (Q1)

	Q1	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Once in a while	4	3.4	3.4	5.1
	Sometimes	38	32.2	32.5	37.6
	Fairly often	49	41.5	41.9	79.5
	Frequently, if not always	24	20.3	20.5	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G1: I talk about my most important values and beliefs (Q1)

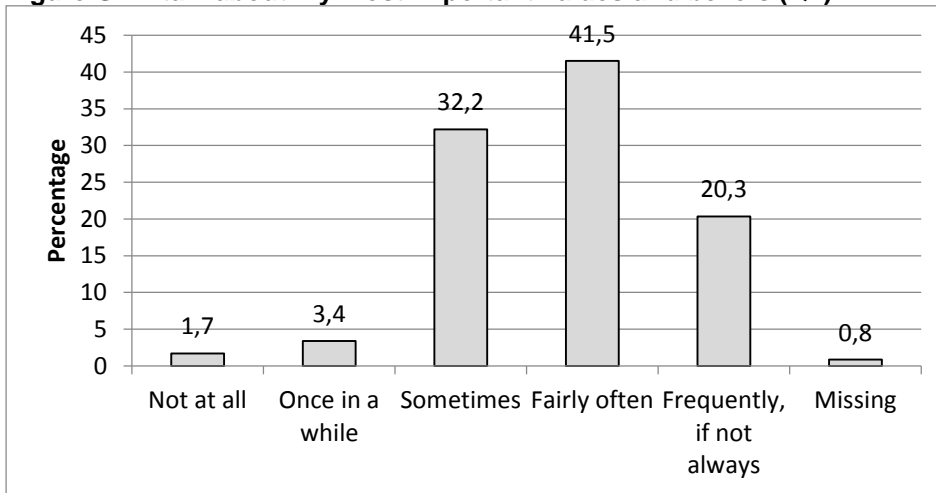


Table G2: I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (Q2)

	Q2	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Once in a while	3	2.5	2.6	3.4
	Sometimes	21	17.8	17.9	21.4
	Fairly often	52	44.1	44.4	65.8
	Frequently, if not always	40	33.9	34.2	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G2: I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (Q2)

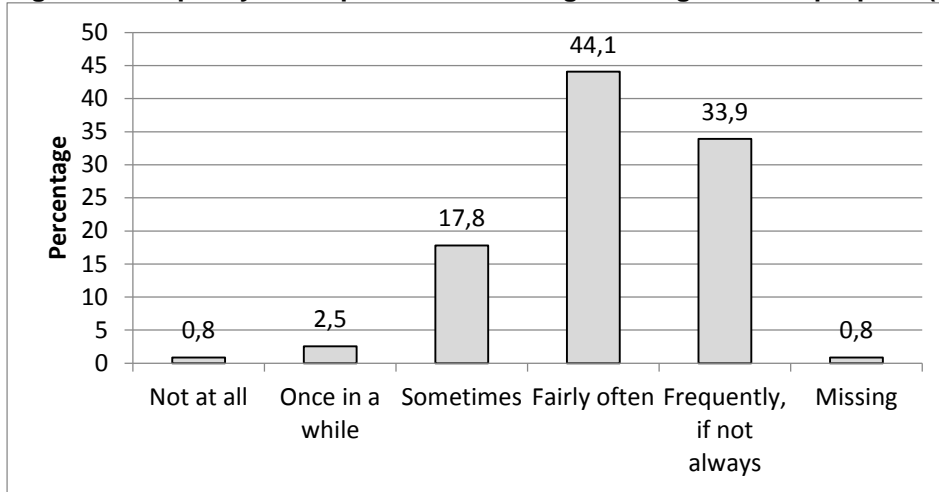


Table G3: I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (Q3)

	Q3	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Not at all	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Once in a while	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valid	Sometimes	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Fairly often	22	18.6	19.0	21.6
	Frequently, if not always	91	77.1	78.4	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G3: I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (Q3)

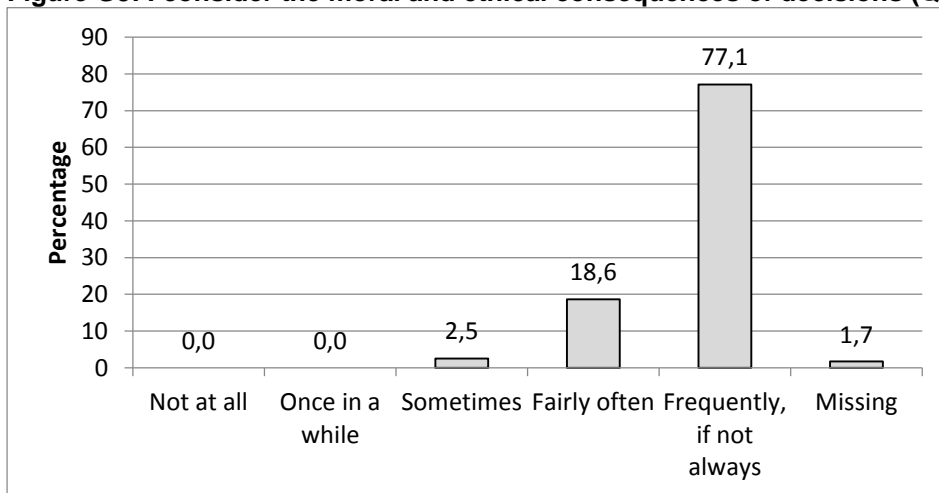


Table G4: I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission (Q4)

	Q4	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Not at all	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Once in a while	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valid	Sometimes	12	10.2	10.3	10.3
	Fairly often	59	50.0	50.4	60.7
	Frequently, if not always	46	39.0	39.3	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G4: I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission (Q4)

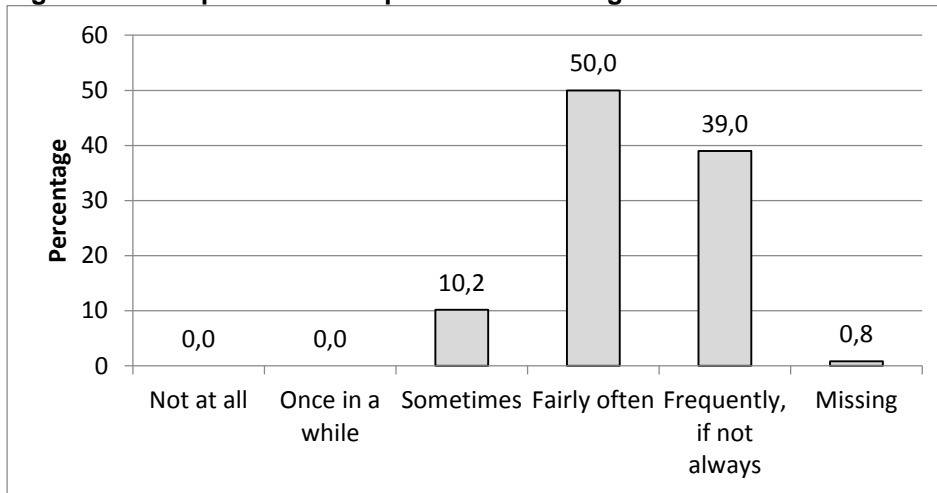


Table G5: I talk optimistically about the future (Q5)

	Q5	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	1.7
	Sometimes	17	14.4	14.5	16.2
	Fairly often	51	43.2	43.6	59.8
	Frequently, if not always	47	39.8	40.2	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G5: I talk optimistically about the future (Q5)

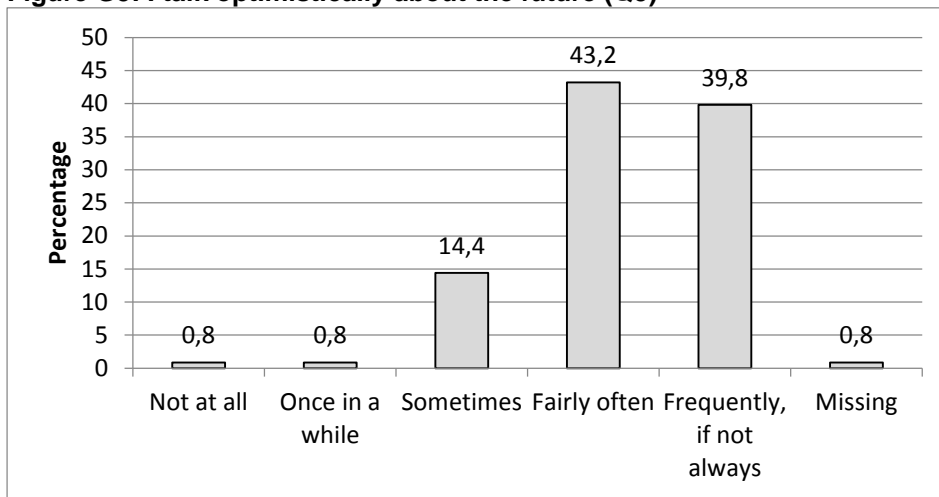


Table G6: I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (Q6)

	Q6	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
	Fairly often	0	0.0	0.0	0.8
	Once in a while	2	1.7	1.7	2.5
	Sometimes	12	10.2	10.2	12.7
	Fairly often	42	35.6	35.6	48.3
	Frequently, if not always	61	51.7	51.7	100.0
	Total	118	100.0	100.0	
	Missing	0	0.0		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G6: I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (Q6)

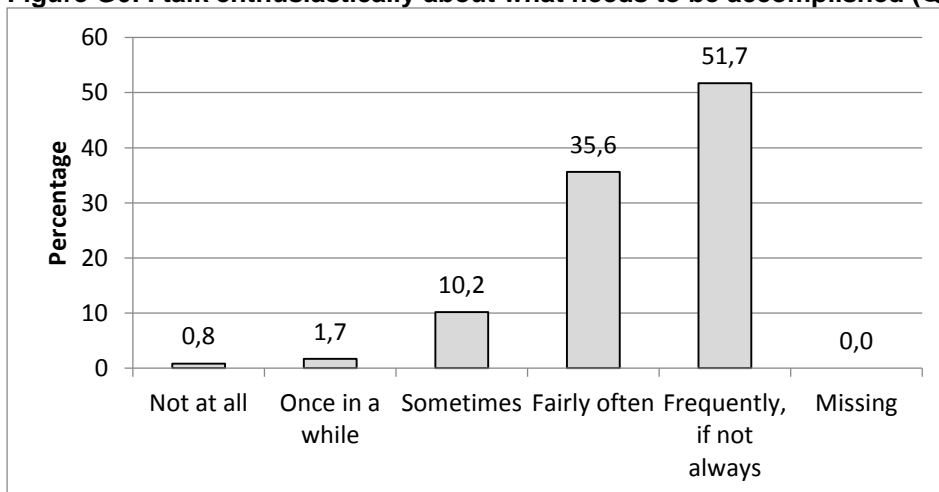


Table G7: I articulate a compelling vision of the future (Q7)

	Q7	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	3.4
	Sometimes	26	22.0	22.4	25.9
	Fairly often	54	45.8	46.6	72.4
	Frequently, if not always	32	27.1	27.6	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G7: I articulate a compelling vision of the future (Q7)

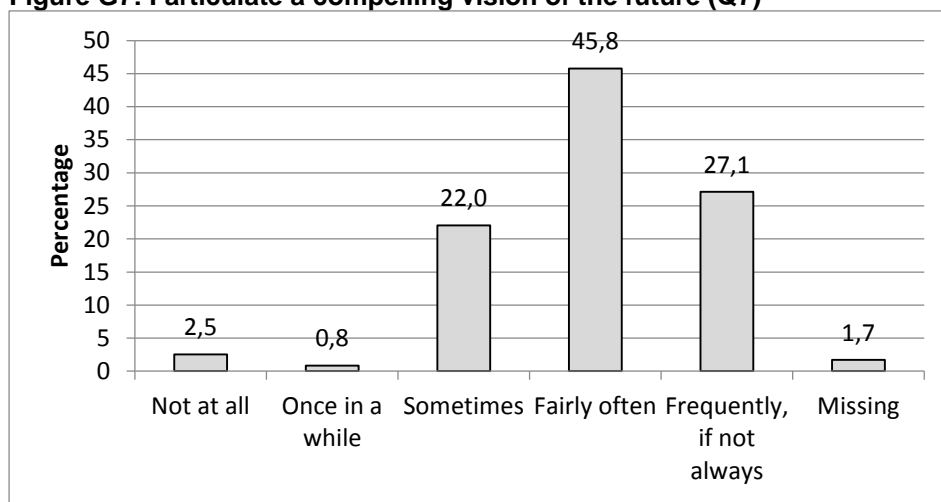


Table G8: I express confidence that goals will be achieved (Q8)

	Q8	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Once in a while	6	5.1	5.1	6.0
	Sometimes	17	14.4	14.5	20.5
	Fairly often	52	44.1	44.4	65.0
	Frequently, if not always	41	34.7	35.0	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G8: I express confidence that goals will be achieved (Q8)

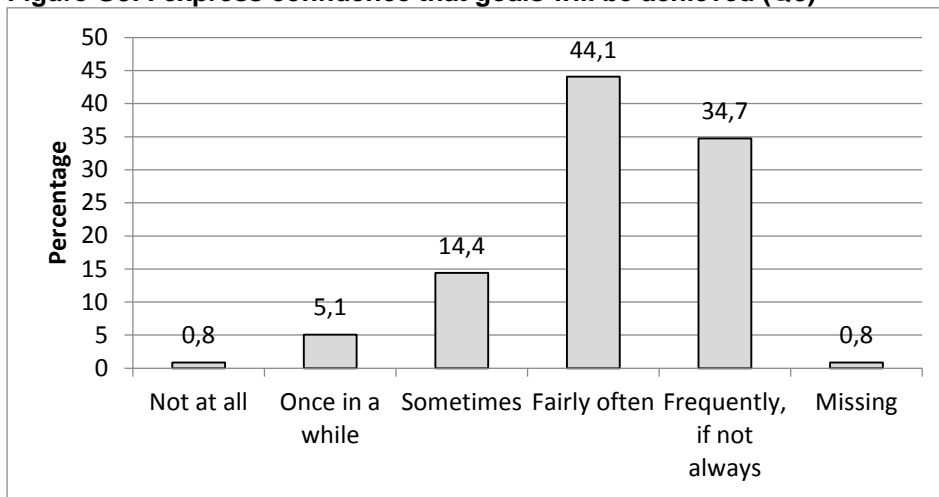


Table G9: I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate (Q9)

	Q9	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	1.7
	Sometimes	17	14.4	14.5	16.2
	Fairly often	62	52.5	53.0	69.2
	Frequently, if not always	36	30.5	30.8	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G9: I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate (Q9)

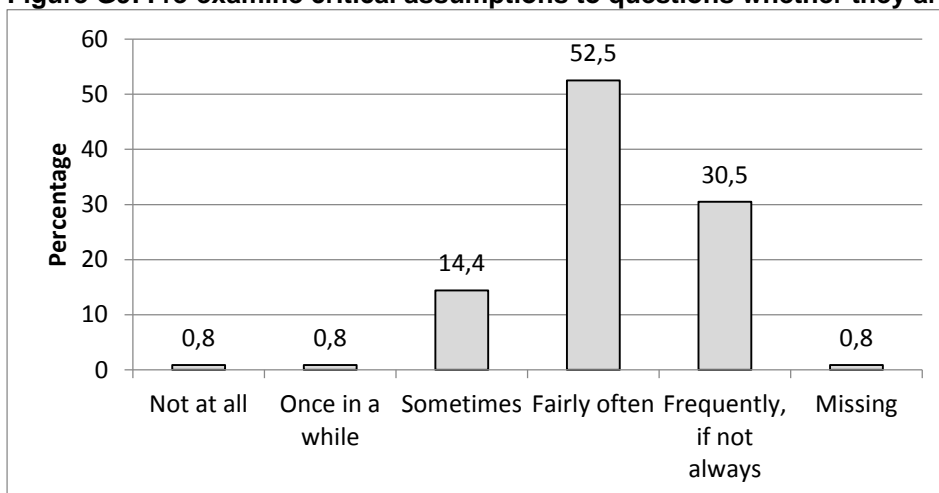


Table G10: I seek differing perspectives when solving problems (Q10)

	Q10	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Not at all	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valid	Once in a while	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Sometimes	17	14.4	14.8	16.5
	Fairly often	38	32.2	33.0	49.6
	Frequently, if not always	58	49.2	50.4	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G10: I seek differing perspectives when solving problems (Q10)

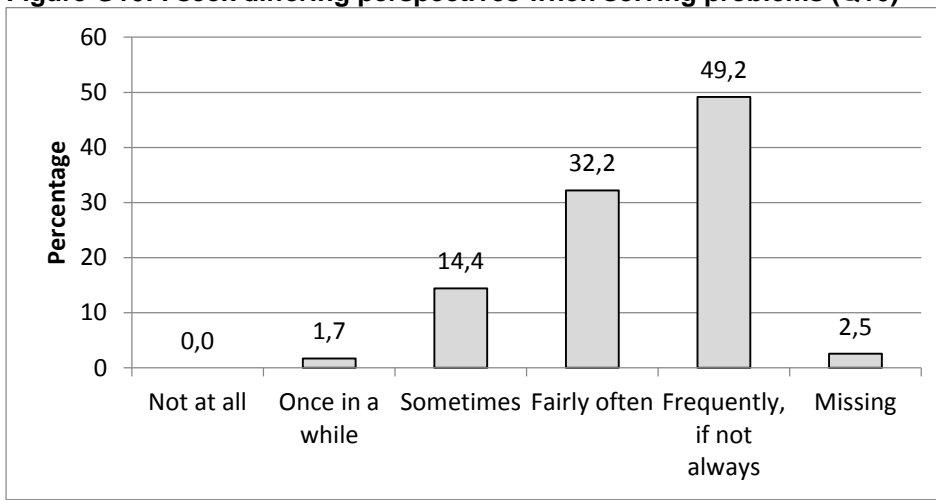


Table G11: I get others to look at problems from many angles (Q11)

	Q11	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Once in a while	5	4.2	4.3	6.8
	Sometimes	23	19.5	19.7	26.5
	Fairly often	43	36.4	36.8	63.2
	Frequently, if not always	43	36.4	36.8	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G11: I get others to look at problems from many angles (Q11)

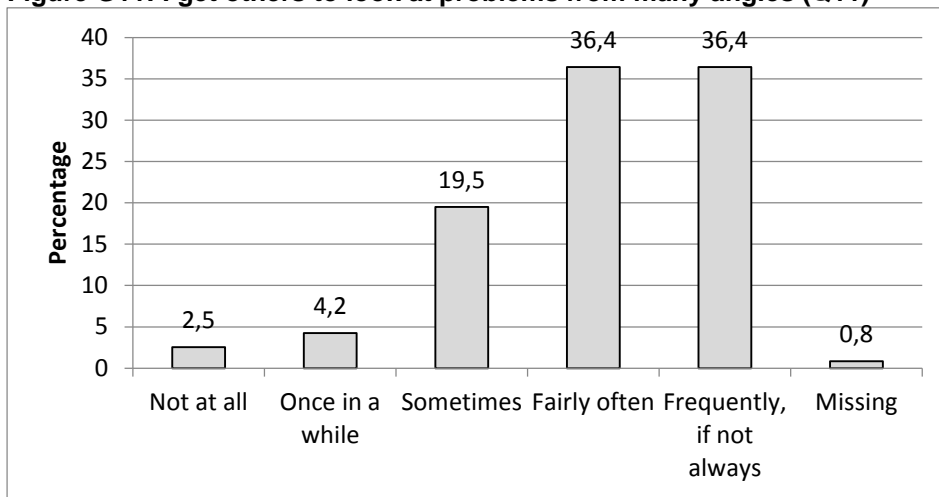


Table G12: I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (Q12)

	Q12	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Not at all	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valid	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Sometimes	25	21.2	21.6	22.4
	Fairly often	48	40.7	41.4	63.8
	Frequently, if not always	42	35.6	36.2	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G12: I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (Q12)

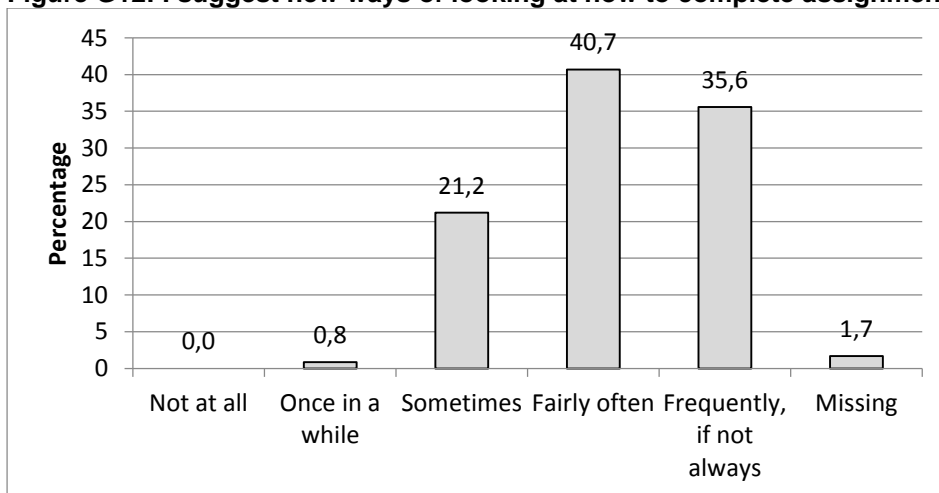


Table G13: I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies (Q13)

	Q13	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Once in a while	0	0.0	0.0	2.6
	Sometimes	8	6.8	6.8	9.4
	Fairly often	46	39.0	39.3	48.7
	Frequently, if not always	60	50.8	51.3	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G13: I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies (Q13)



Table G14: I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies (Q14)

	Q14	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	4	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	4.3
	Sometimes	11	9.3	9.5	13.8
	Fairly often	46	39.0	39.7	53.4
	Frequently, if not always	54	45.8	46.6	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G14: I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies (Q14)

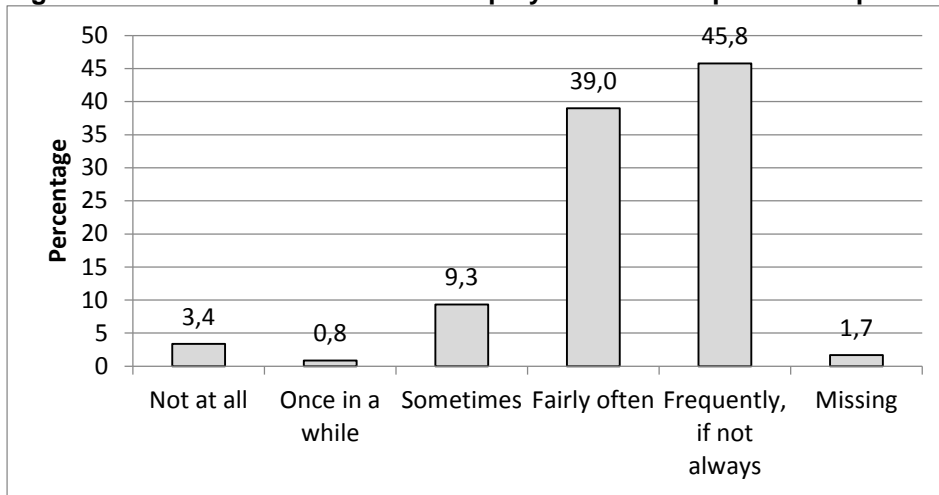


Table G15: I encourage employees to be creative and innovative (Q15)

	Q15	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	4	3.4	3.5	3.5
	Once in a while	0	0.0	0.0	3.5
	Sometimes	17	14.4	14.9	18.4
	Fairly often	36	30.5	31.6	50.0
	Frequently, if not always	57	48.3	50.0	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G15: I encourage employees to be creative and innovative (Q15)

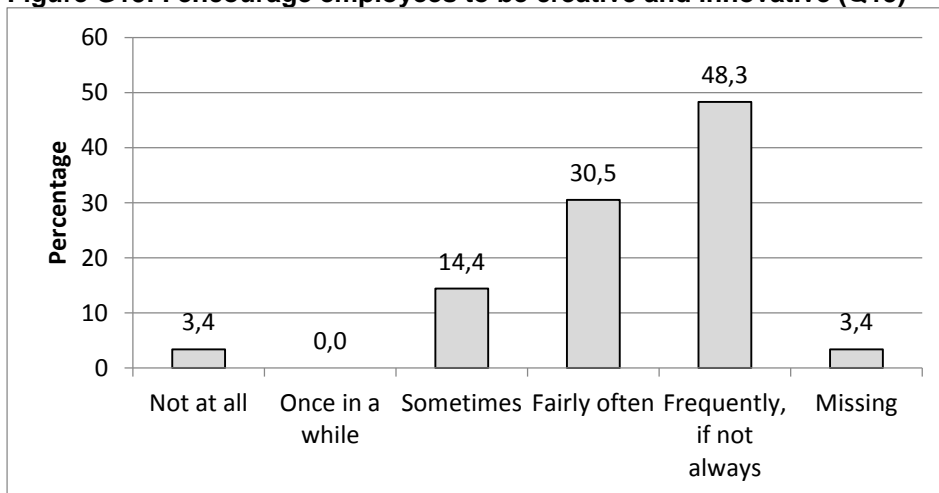


Table G16: I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort (Q16)

	Q16	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	4	3.4	3.5	3.5
	Once in a while	2	1.7	1.7	5.2
	Sometimes	24	20.3	20.9	26.1
	Fairly often	57	48.3	49.6	75.7
	Frequently, if not always	28	23.7	24.3	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G16: I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort (Q16)

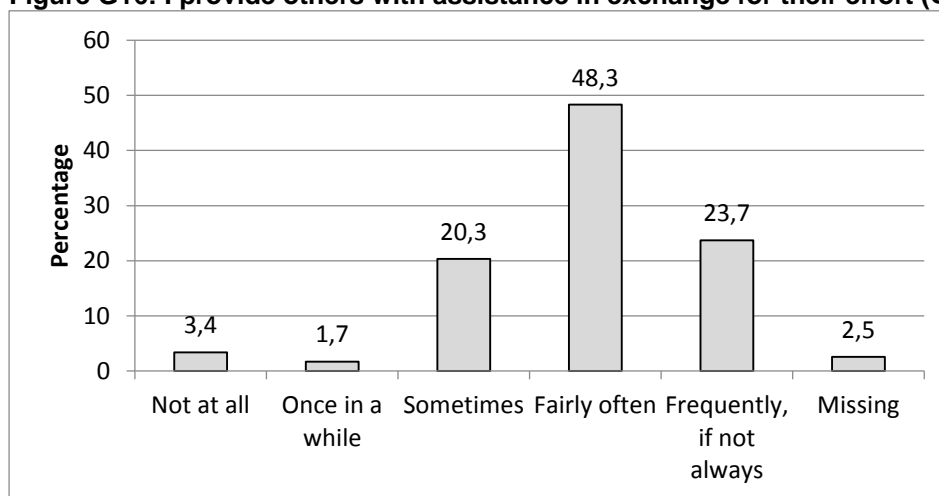


Table G17: I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (Q17)

	Q17	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	3	2.5	2.7	2.7
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	3.6
	Sometimes	12	10.2	10.7	14.3
	Fairly often	54	45.8	48.2	62.5
	Frequently, if not always	42	35.6	37.5	100.0
	Total	112	94.9	100.0	
Missing	Missing	6	5.1		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G17: I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (Q17)

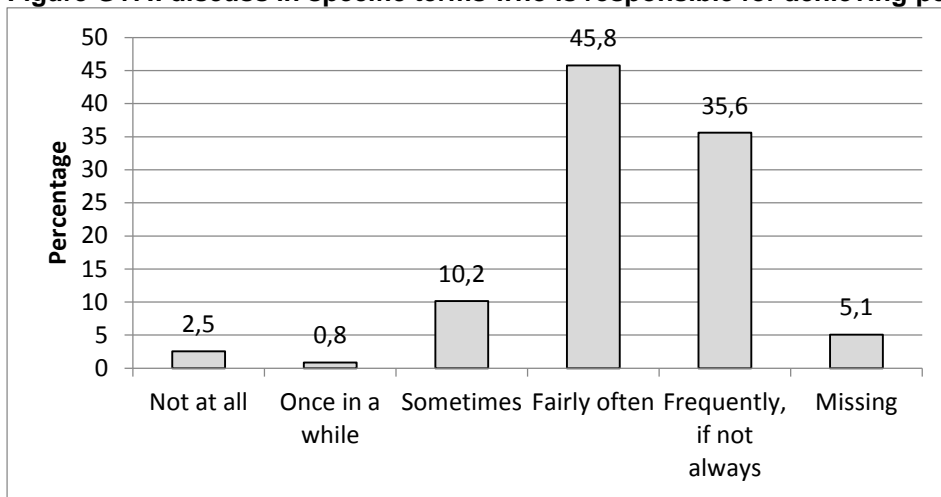


Table G18: I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (Q18)

	Q18	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	4	3.4	3.5	3.5
	Once in a while	3	2.5	2.6	6.1
	Sometimes	23	19.5	20.0	26.1
	Fairly often	50	42.4	43.5	69.6
	Frequently, if not always	35	29.7	30.4	100.0
	Total		115	97.5	100.0
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G18: I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (Q18)

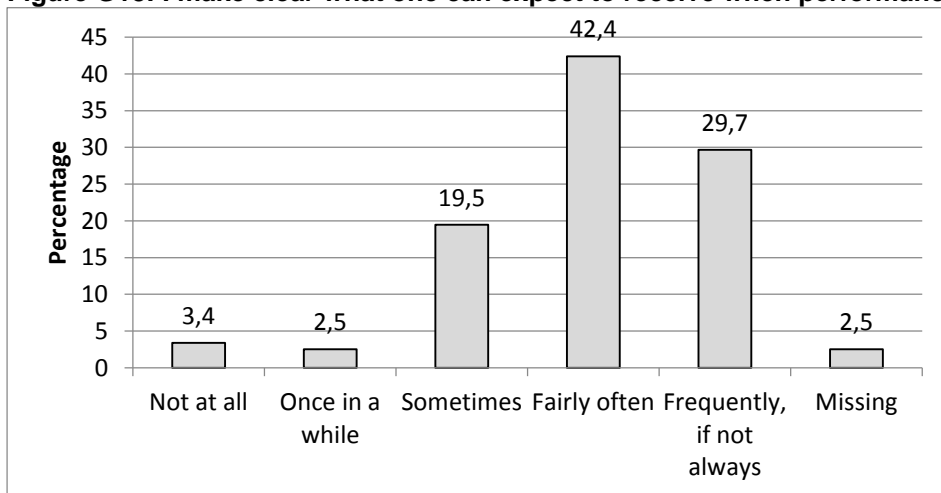


Table G19: I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Q19)

	Q19	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Once in a while	3	2.5	2.6	4.3
	Sometimes	5	4.2	4.3	8.6
	Fairly often	38	32.2	32.8	41.4
	Frequently, if not always	68	57.6	58.6	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G19: I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Q19)

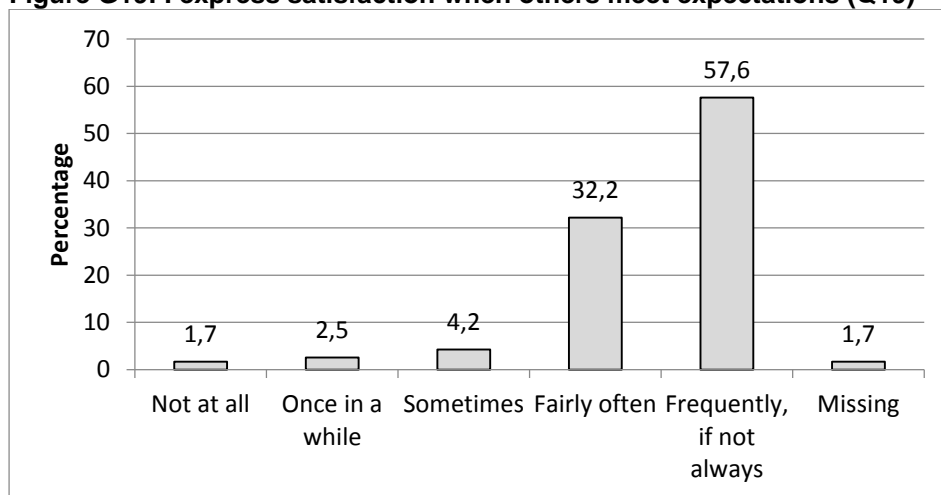


Table G20: I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards (Q20)

	Q20	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	5	4.2	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	24	20.3	20.7	25.0
	Sometimes	26	22.0	22.4	47.4
	Fairly often	34	28.8	29.3	76.7
	Frequently, if not always	27	22.9	23.3	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G20: I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards (Q20)

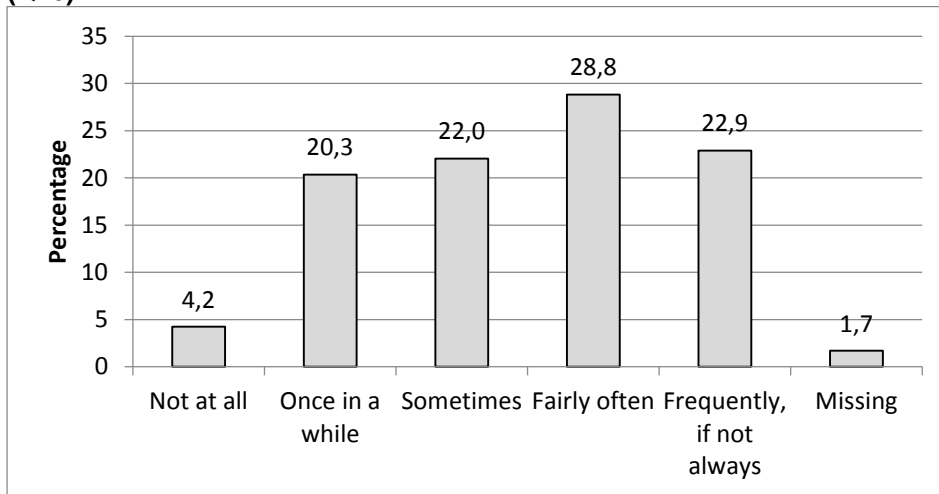


Table G21: I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (Q21)

	Q21	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	9	7.6	7.8	7.8
	Once in a while	15	12.7	12.9	20.7
	Sometimes	38	32.2	32.8	53.4
	Fairly often	35	29.7	30.2	83.6
	Frequently, if not always	19	16.1	16.4	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G21: I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (Q21)

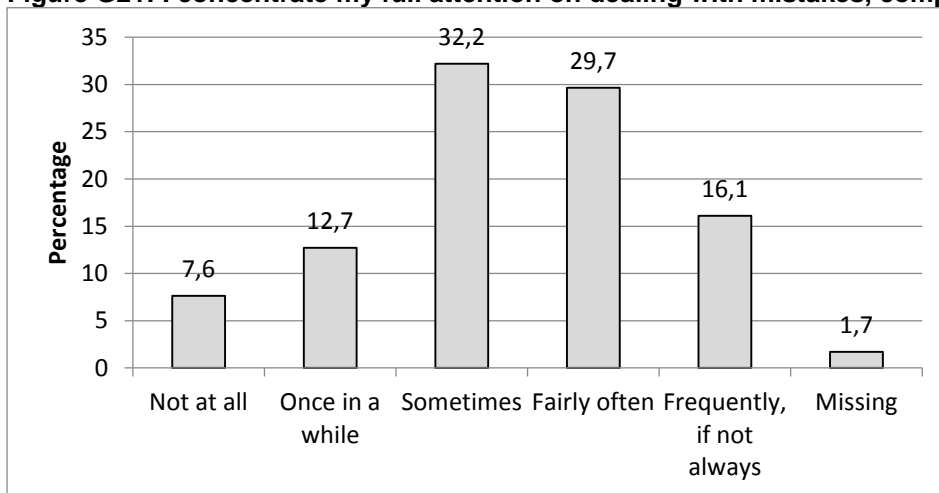


Table G22: I keep track of all mistakes (Q22)

	Q22	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	18	15.3	15.5	15.5
	Once in a while	33	28.0	28.4	44.0
	Sometimes	31	26.3	26.7	70.7
	Fairly often	18	15.3	15.5	86.2
	Frequently, if not always	16	13.6	13.8	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G22: I keep track of all mistakes (Q22)

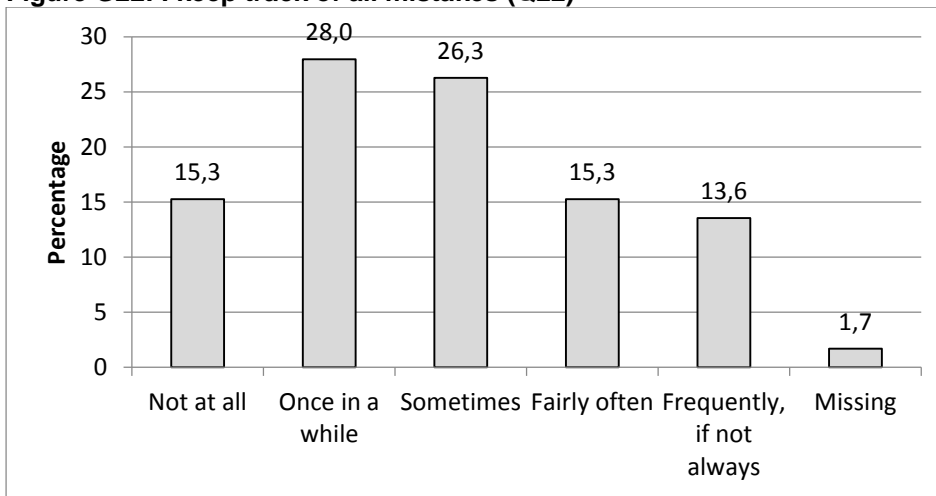


Table G23: I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (Q23)

	Q23	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	11	9.3	9.5	9.5
	Once in a while	28	23.7	24.1	33.6
	Sometimes	26	22.0	22.4	56.0
	Fairly often	37	31.4	31.9	87.9
	Frequently, if not always	14	11.9	12.1	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G23: I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (Q23)

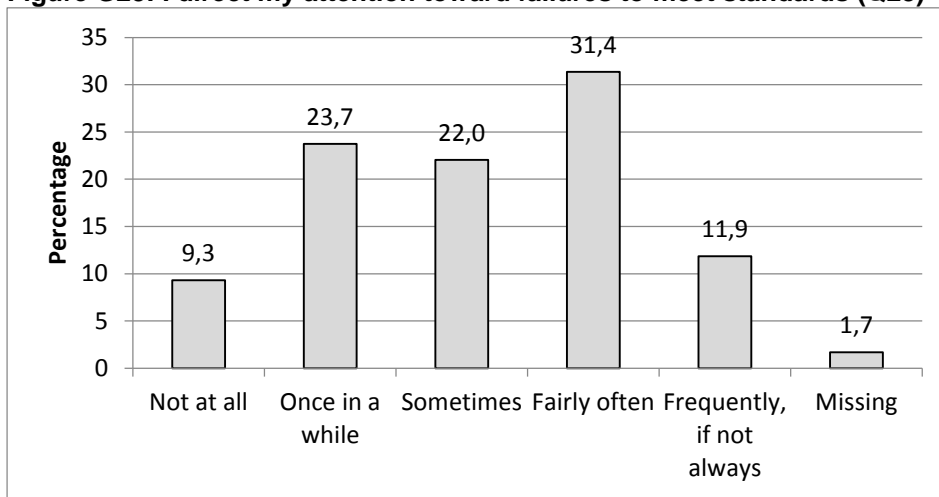


Table G24: I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively (Q24)

	Q24	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.8	1.8
	Once in a while	6	5.1	5.3	7.0
	Sometimes	22	18.6	19.3	26.3
	Fairly often	48	40.7	42.1	68.4
	Frequently, if not always	36	30.5	31.6	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G24: I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively (Q24)

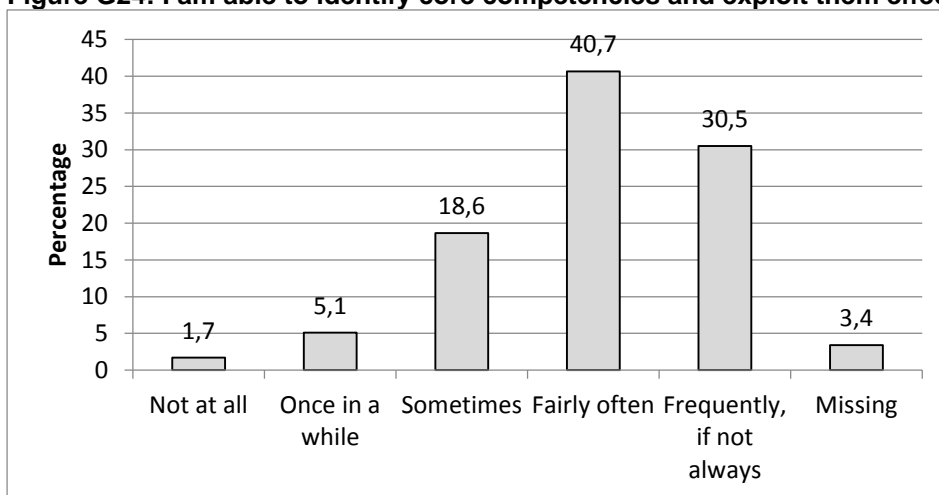


Table G25: I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit (Q25)

	Q25	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	3	2.5	2.9	2.9
	Once in a while	3	2.5	2.9	5.7
	Sometimes	32	27.1	30.5	36.2
	Fairly often	33	28.0	31.4	67.6
	Frequently, if not always	34	28.8	32.4	100.0
	Total	105	89.0	100.0	
Missing	Missing	13	11.0		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G25: I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit (Q25)

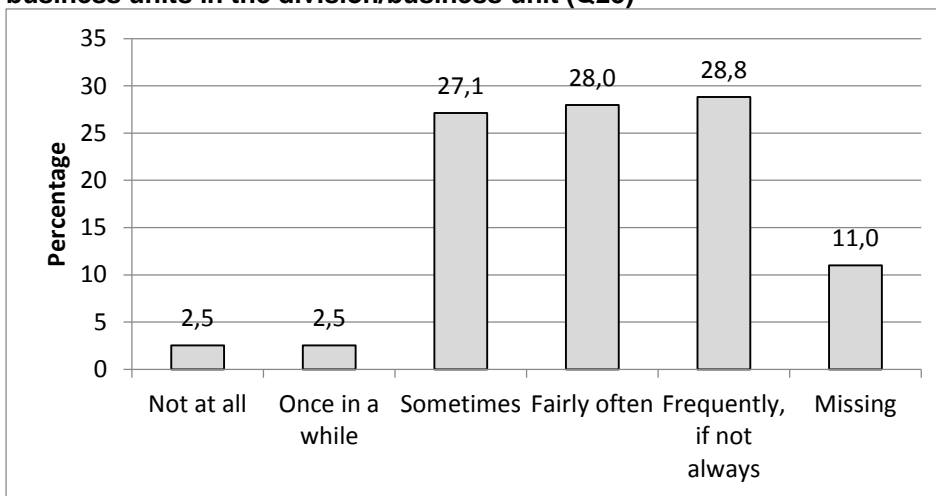


Table G26: I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked (Q26)

	Q26	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	78	66.1	67.8	67.8
	Once in a while	18	15.3	15.7	83.5
	Sometimes	12	10.2	10.4	93.9
	Fairly often	7	5.9	6.1	100.0
	Frequently, if not always	0	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G 26: I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked (Q26)

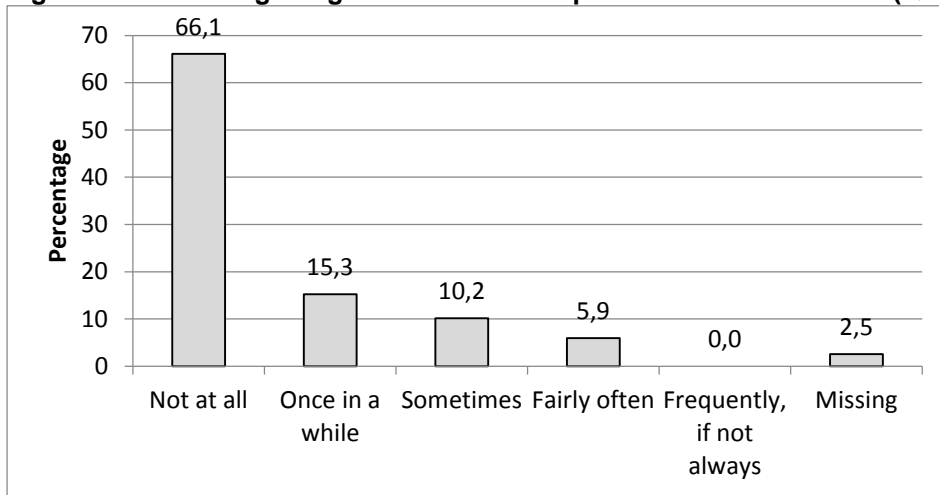


Table G27: I am absent when needed (Q27)

	Q27	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	100	84.7	84.7	84.7
	Once in a while	13	11.0	11.0	95.8
	Sometimes	4	3.4	3.4	99.2
	Fairly often	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
	Frequently, if not always	0	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Total	118	100.0	100.0	
	Missing	0	0.0		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G27: I am absent when needed (Q27)

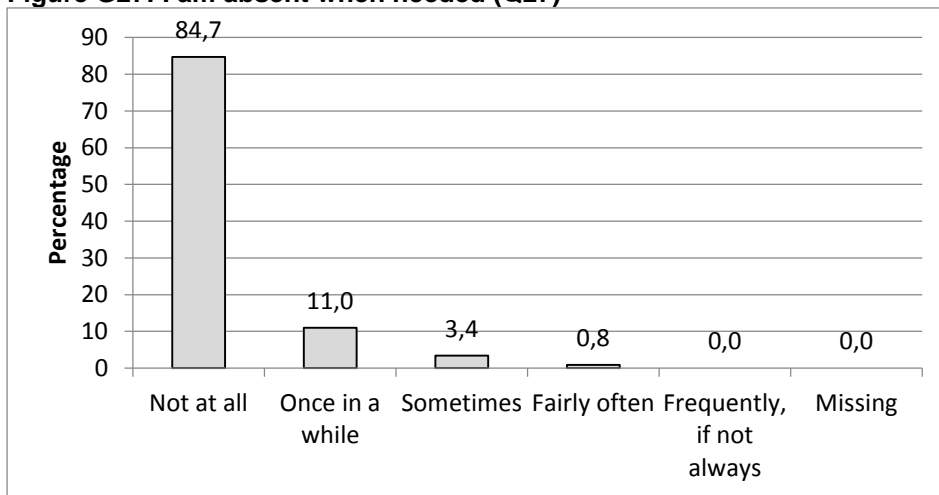


Table G28: I avoid making decisions (Q28)

	Q28	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	94	79.7	80.3	80.3
	Once in a while	14	11.9	12.0	92.3
	Sometimes	7	5.9	6.0	98.3
	Fairly often	1	0.8	0.9	99.1
	Frequently, if not always	1	0.8	0.9	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G28: I avoid making decisions (Q28)

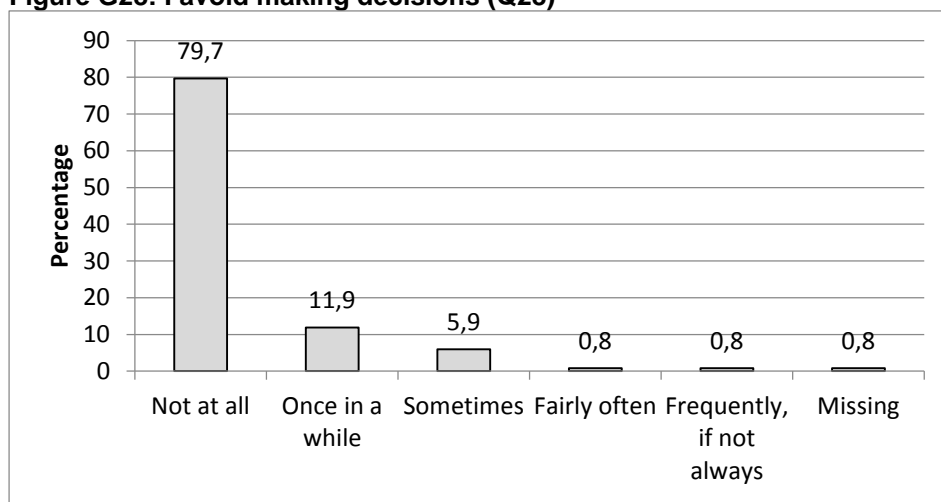
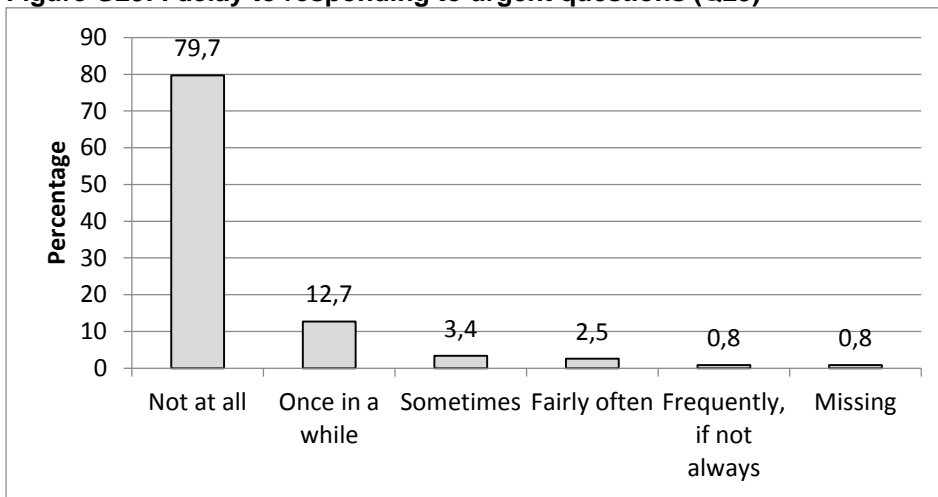


Table G29: I delay to responding to urgent questions (Q29)

	Q29	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	94	79.7	80.3	80.3
	Once in a while	15	12.7	12.8	93.2
	Sometimes	4	3.4	3.4	96.6
	Fairly often	3	2.5	2.6	99.1
	Frequently, if not always	1	0.8	0.9	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G29: I delay to responding to urgent questions (Q29)



STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION SUCCESS

Table G30: I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q30)

	Q30	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	4	3.4	3.6	3.6
	Once in a while	0	0.0	0.0	3.6
	Sometimes	18	15.3	16.4	20.0
	Fairly often	48	40.7	43.6	63.6
	Frequently, if not always	40	33.9	36.4	100.0
	Total	110	93.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	8	6.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G30: I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q30)

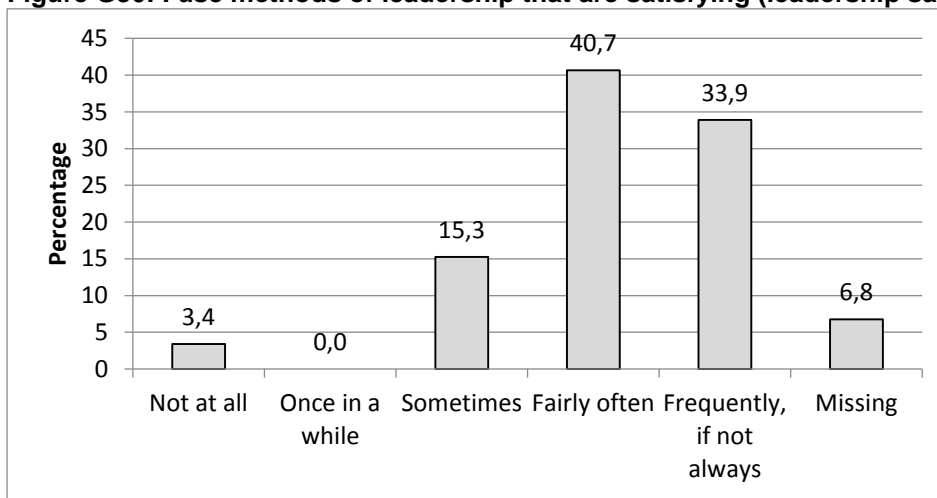


Table G31: I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q31)

	Q31	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	5	4.2	4.4	4.4
	Once in a while	5	4.2	4.4	8.8
	Sometimes	21	17.8	18.6	27.4
	Fairly often	57	48.3	50.4	77.9
	Frequently, if not always	25	21.2	22.1	100.0
	Total	113	95.8	100.0	
Missing	Missing	5	4.2		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G31: I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q31)

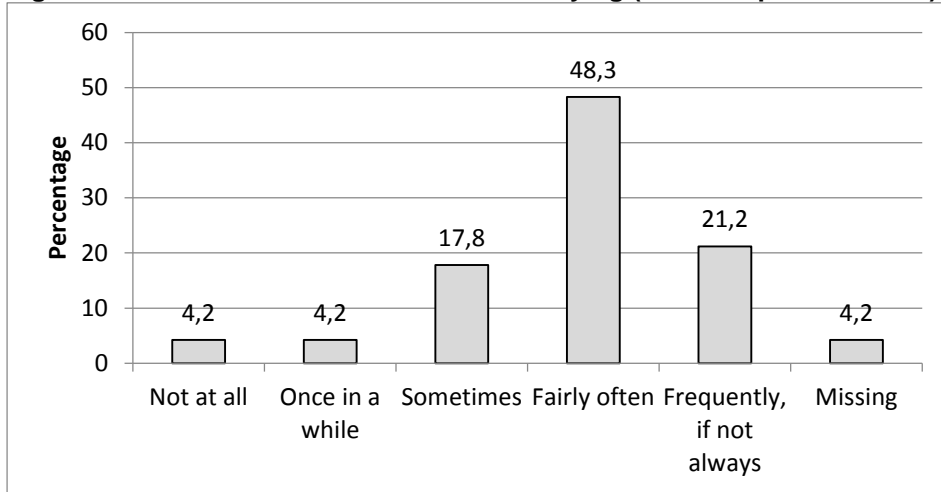


Table G32: The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable (Q32)

	Q32	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	5	4.2	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	5.1
	Sometimes	19	16.1	16.2	21.4
	Fairly often	34	28.8	29.1	50.4
	Frequently, if not always	58	49.2	49.6	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G32: The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable (Q32)

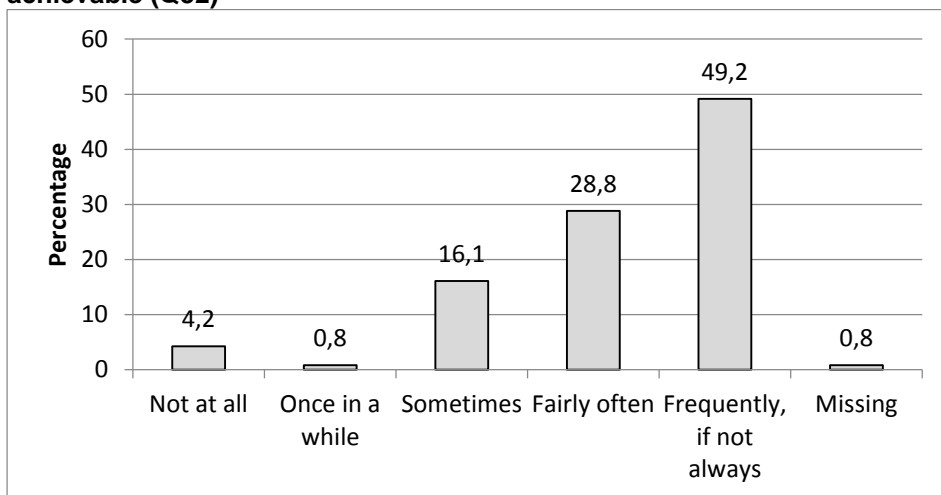


Table G33: I always achieve my business plan targets (Q33)

	Q33	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Not at all	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valid	Once in a while	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Sometimes	12	10.2	10.4	12.2
	Fairly often	57	48.3	49.6	61.7
	Frequently, if not always	44	37.3	38.3	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G33: I always achieve my business plan targets (Q33)

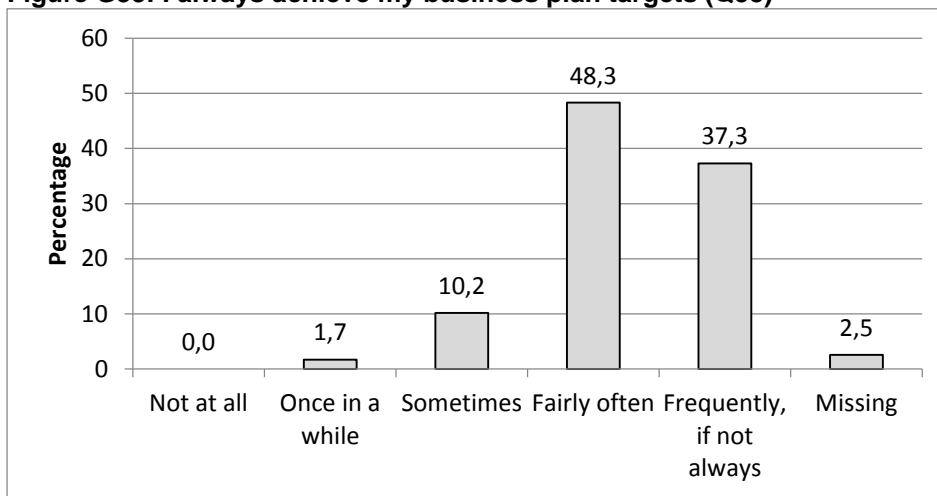


Table G34: I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time (Q34)

	Q34	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	12	10.2	10.3	10.3
	Once in a while	11	9.3	9.4	19.7
	Sometimes	30	25.4	25.6	45.3
	Fairly often	47	39.8	40.2	85.5
	Frequently, if not always	17	14.4	14.5	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G34: I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time (Q34)

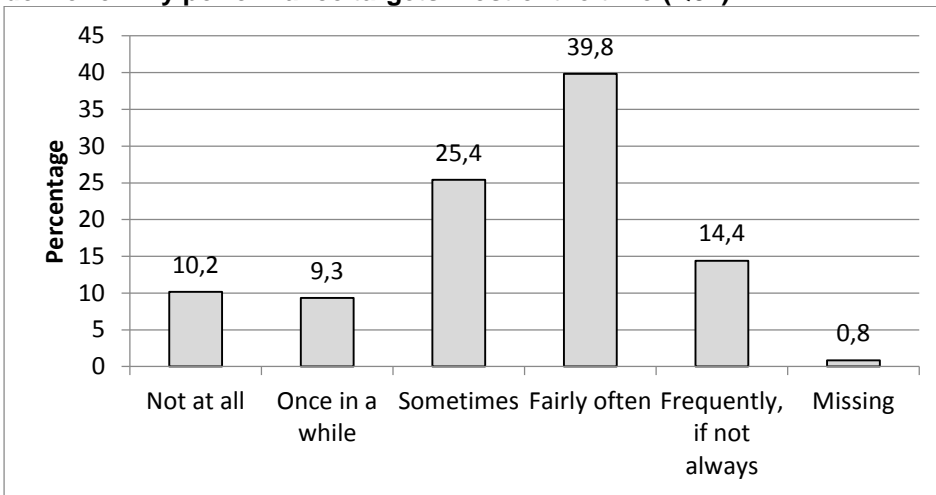


Table G35: I encourage training and development of skills sets required (Q35)

	Q35	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	2.6
	Sometimes	13	11.0	11.3	13.9
	Fairly often	48	40.7	41.7	55.7
	Frequently, if not always	51	43.2	44.3	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G35: I encourage training and development of skills sets required (Q35)

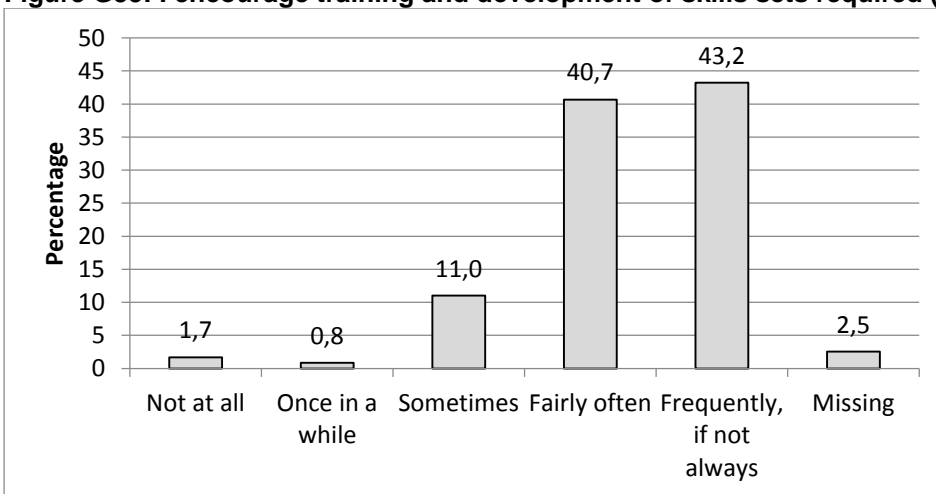
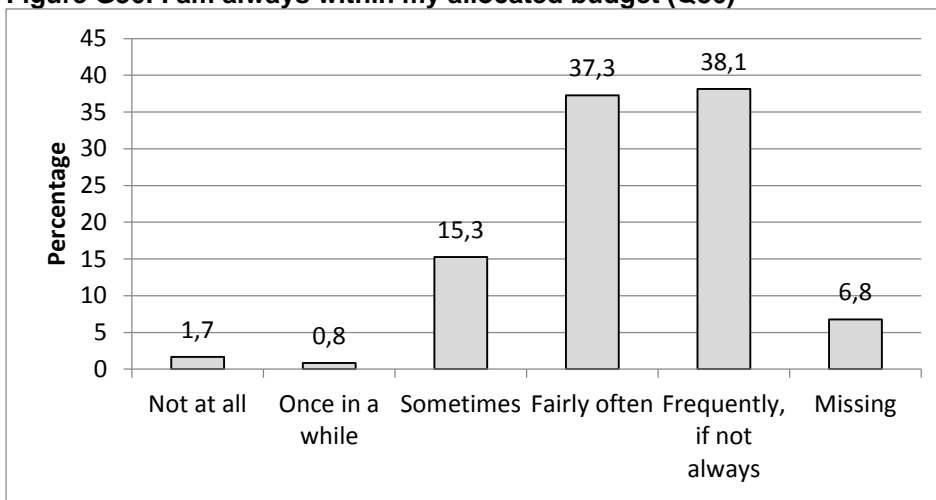


Table G36: I am always within my allocated budget (Q36)

	Q36	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.8	1.8
	Once in a while	1	0.8	0.9	2.7
	Sometimes	18	15.3	16.4	19.1
	Fairly often	44	37.3	40.0	59.1
	Frequently, if not always	45	38.1	40.9	100.0
	Total	110	93.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	8	6.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G36: I am always within my allocated budget (Q36)



DRIVERS OF STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

Table G37: The structure of the organization (Q37)

	Q37	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	5.9	6.1	6.1
	Disagree	5	4.2	4.4	10.5
	Neutral	20	16.9	17.5	28.1
	Agree	50	42.4	43.9	71.9
	Strongly agree	32	27.1	28.1	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G37: The structure of the organization (Q37)

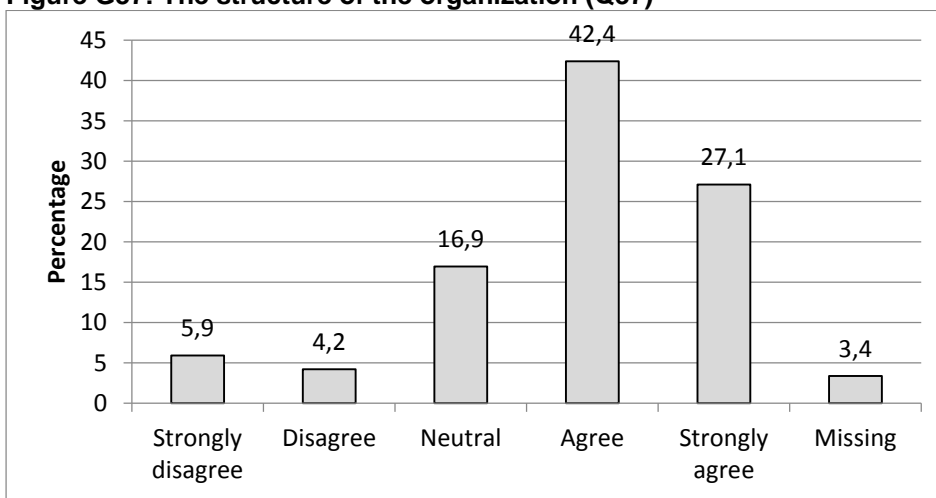


Table G38: Leadership of the organization (Q37)

	Q38	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	9	7.6	7.9	10.5
	Neutral	29	24.6	25.4	36.0
	Agree	30	25.4	26.3	62.3
	Strongly agree	43	36.4	37.7	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G38: Leadership of the organization (Q38)

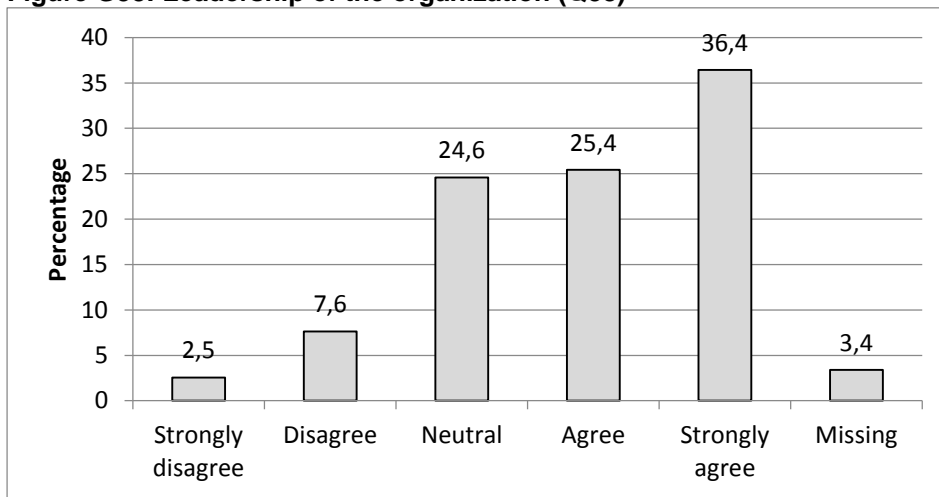


Table G39: The allocation of resources in the organisation (Q39)

	Q39	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	24	20.3	21.1	23.7
	Neutral	22	18.6	19.3	43.0
	Agree	33	28.0	28.9	71.9
	Strongly agree	32	27.1	28.1	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G39: The allocation of resources in the organisation (Q39)

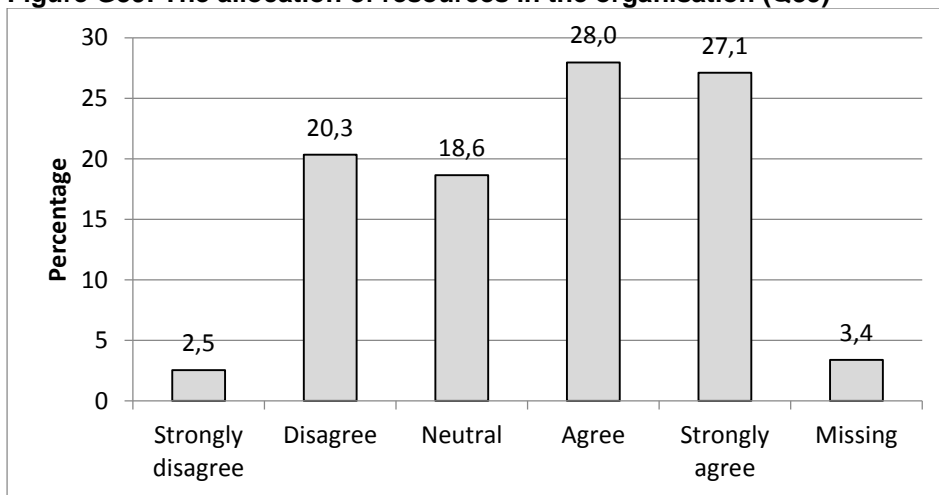


Table G40: The performance management system (Q40)

	Q40	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	15	12.7	13.0	13.0
	Disagree	24	20.3	20.9	33.9
	Neutral	12	10.2	10.4	44.3
	Agree	40	33.9	34.8	79.1
	Strongly agree	24	20.3	20.9	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G40: The performance management system (Q40)

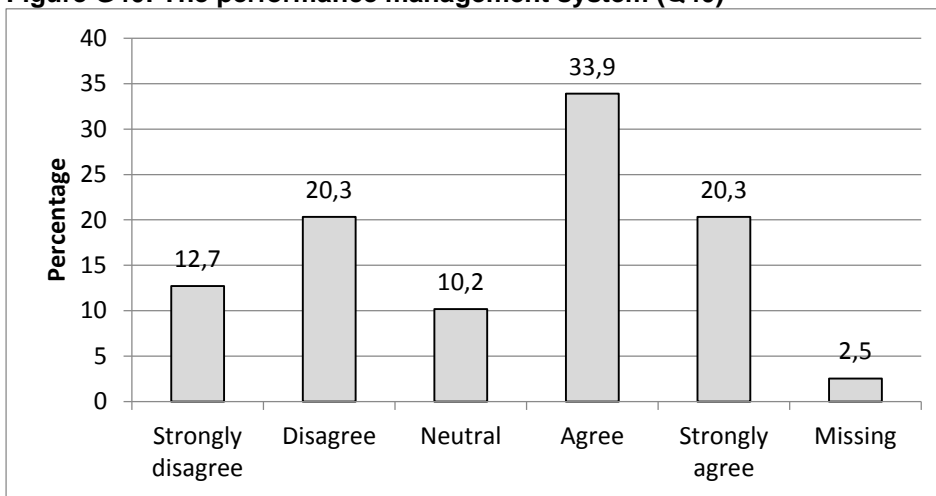


Table G41: Training and development in the organisation (Q41)

	Q41	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	3.4	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	21	17.8	18.4	21.9
	Neutral	22	18.6	19.3	41.2
	Agree	38	32.2	33.3	74.6
	Strongly agree	29	24.6	25.4	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G41: Training and development in the organisation (Q41)

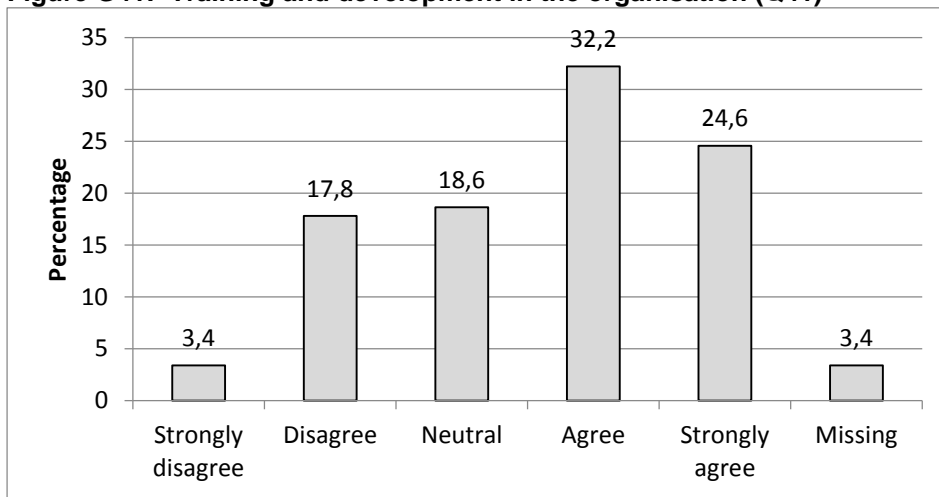


Table G42: Effective strategic planning processes (Q42)

	Q42	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	7.6	7.7	7.7
	Disagree	10	8.5	8.5	16.2
	Neutral	30	25.4	25.6	41.9
	Agree	41	34.7	35.0	76.9
	Strongly agree	27	22.9	23.1	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G42: Effective strategic planning processes (Q42)

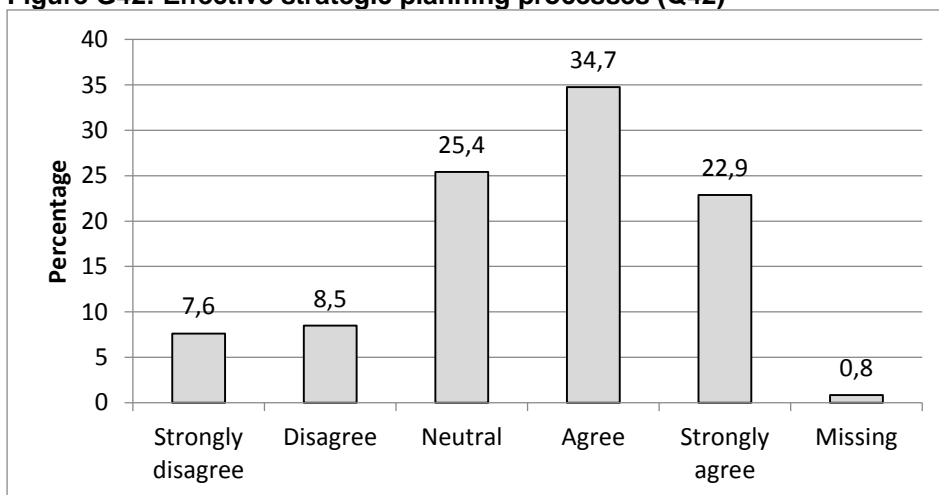


Table G43: We have precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43)

	Q43	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Disagree	8	6.8	6.8	10.3
	Neutral	25	21.2	21.4	31.6
	Agree	52	44.1	44.4	76.1
	Strongly agree	28	23.7	23.9	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G43: We have precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43)

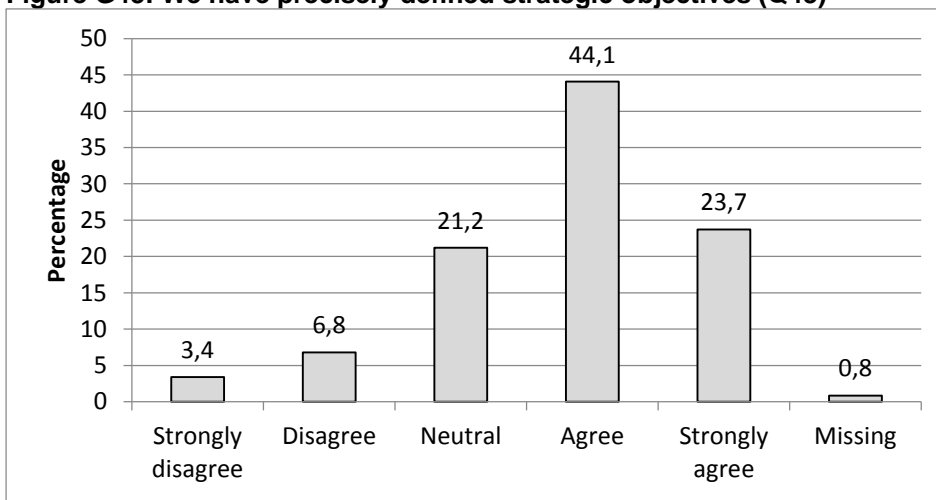


Table G44: We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives (Q44)

	Q44	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	4.2	4.3	4.3
	Disagree	13	11.0	11.3	15.7
	Neutral	42	35.6	36.5	52.2
	Agree	35	29.7	30.4	82.6
	Strongly agree	20	16.9	17.4	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G44: We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives (Q44)

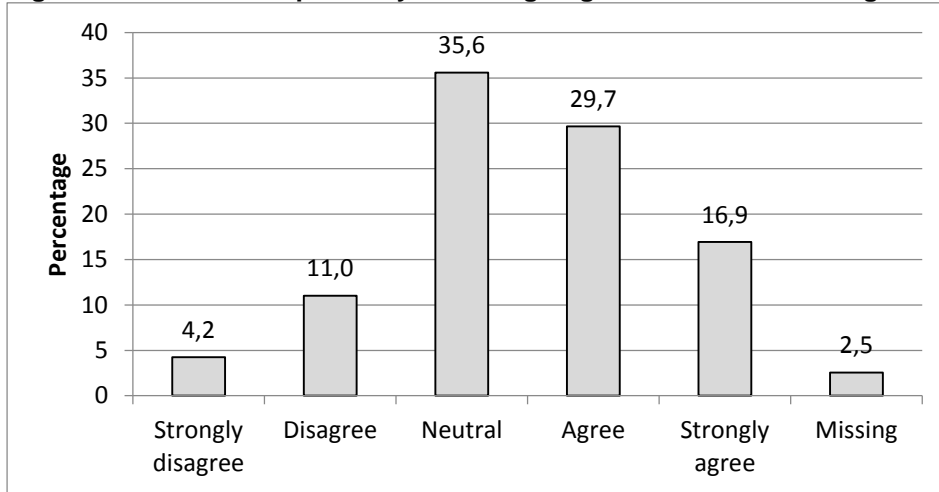


Table G45: Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit (Q45)

	Q45	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	5.1	5.1	5.1
	Disagree	20	16.9	17.1	22.2
	Neutral	23	19.5	19.7	41.9
	Agree	54	45.8	46.2	88.0
	Strongly agree	14	11.9	12.0	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G45: Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit (Q45)

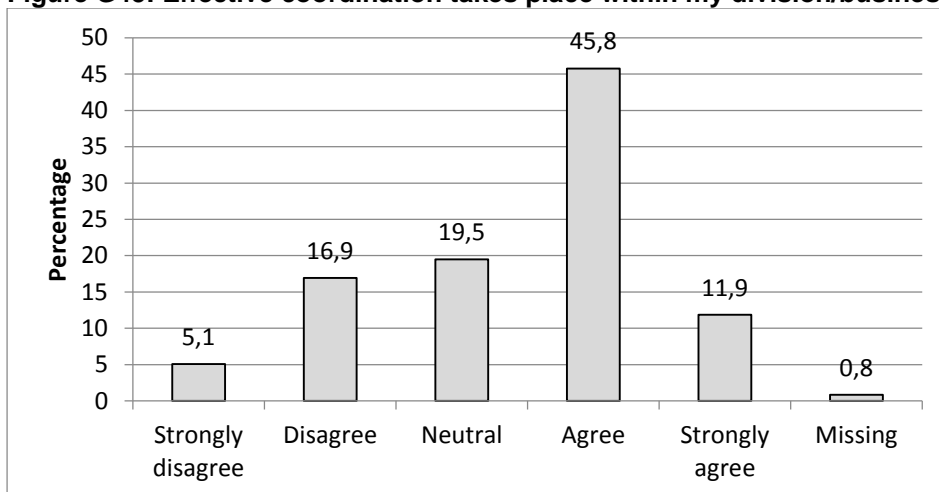


Table G46: Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit (Q46)

	Q46	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	14	11.9	12.3	14.9
	Neutral	29	24.6	25.4	40.4
	Agree	56	47.5	49.1	89.5
	Strongly agree	12	10.2	10.5	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G46: Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit (Q46)

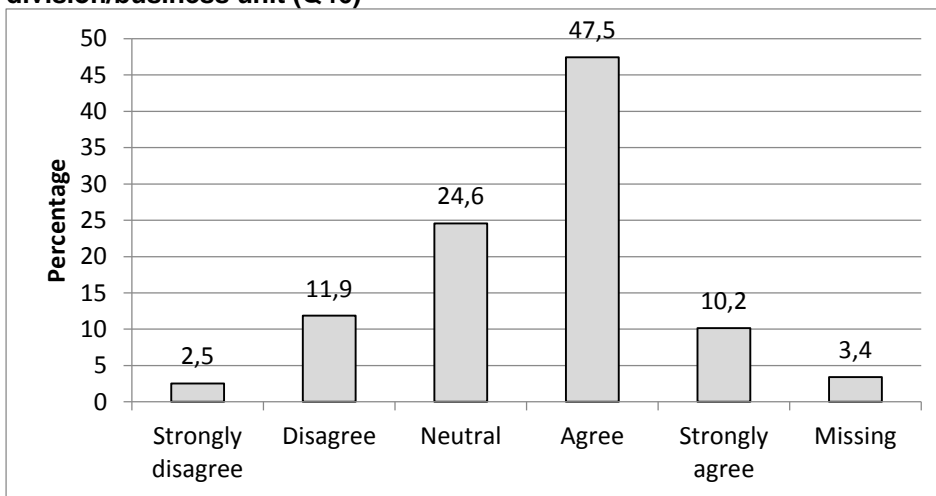
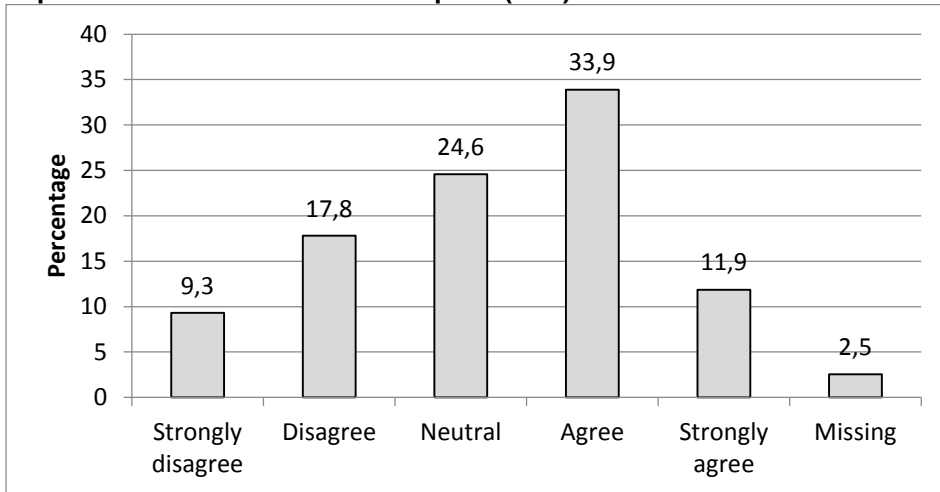


Table G47: Upward and downward communication of the organisations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate (Q47)

	Q47	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	11	9.3	9.6	9.6
	Disagree	21	17.8	18.3	27.8
	Neutral	29	24.6	25.2	53.0
	Agree	40	33.9	34.8	87.8
	Strongly agree	14	11.9	12.2	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G47: Upward and downward communication of the organisations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate (Q47)



PROBLEMS WITH STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

Table G48: Implementation decisions takes too long to make (Q48)

	Q48	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Disagree	14	11.9	12.1	13.8
	Neutral	29	24.6	25.0	38.8
	Agree	47	39.8	40.5	79.3
	Strongly agree	24	20.3	20.7	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G48: Implementation decisions takes too long to make (Q48)

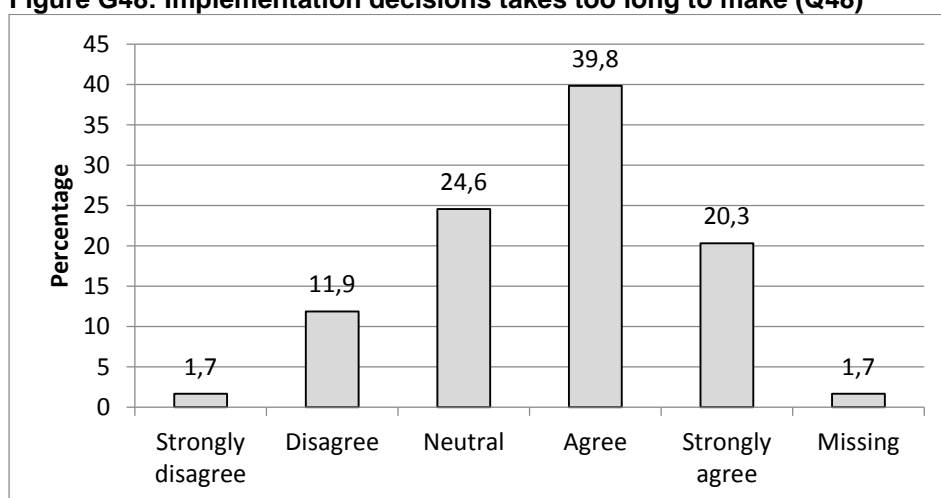


Table G49: Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (Q49)

	Q49	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	36	30.5	30.5	36.4
	Neutral	15	12.7	12.7	49.2
	Agree	30	25.4	25.4	74.6
	Strongly agree	30	25.4	25.4	100.0
	Total	118	100.0	100.0	
	Missing	0	0.0		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G49: Employees don't understand how their jobs contribute to important implementation outcomes (Q49)

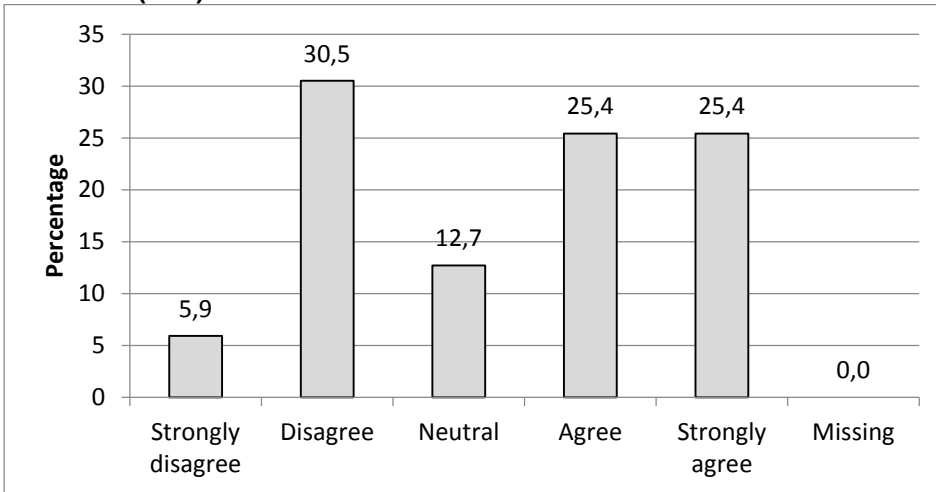


Table G50: Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement (Q50)

	Q50	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	5.9	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	22	18.6	19.5	25.7
	Neutral	27	22.9	23.9	49.6
	Agree	34	28.8	30.1	79.6
	Strongly agree	23	19.5	20.4	100.0
	Total	113	95.8	100.0	
Missing	Missing	5	4.2		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G50: Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement (Q50)

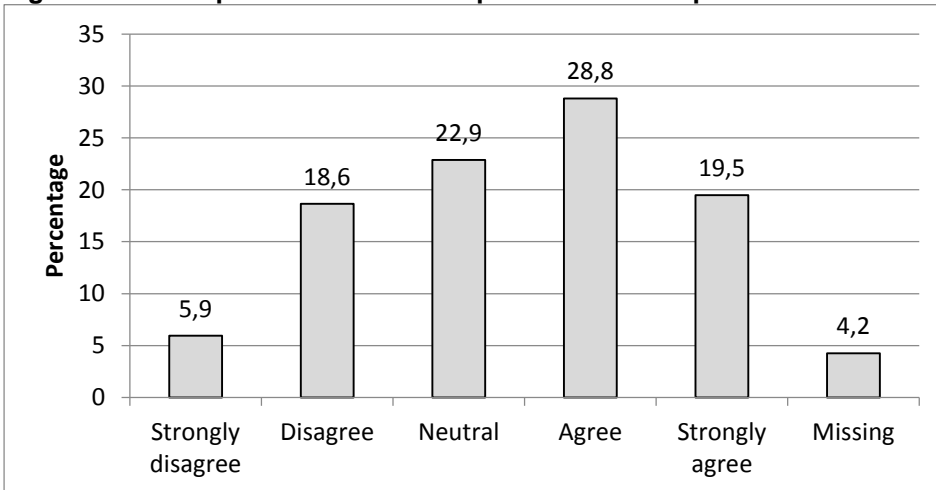


Table G51: The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51)

	Q51	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	5.1	5.1	5.1
	Disagree	20	16.9	17.1	22.2
	Neutral	33	28.0	28.2	50.4
	Agree	40	33.9	34.2	84.6
	Strongly agree	18	15.3	15.4	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G51: The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51)

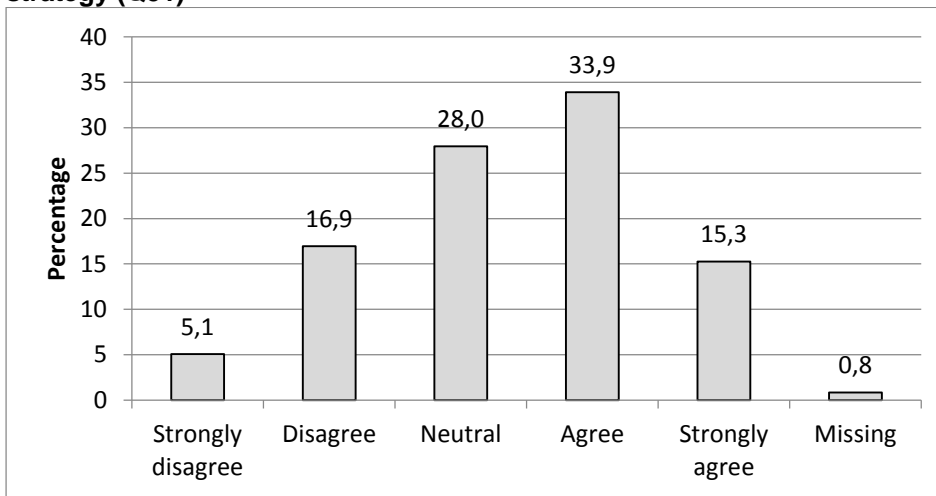


Table G52: Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process (Q52)

	Q52	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	13	11.0	11.1	11.1
	Disagree	16	13.6	13.7	24.8
	Neutral	16	13.6	13.7	38.5
	Agree	46	39.0	39.3	77.8
	Strongly agree	26	22.0	22.2	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G52: Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process (Q52)

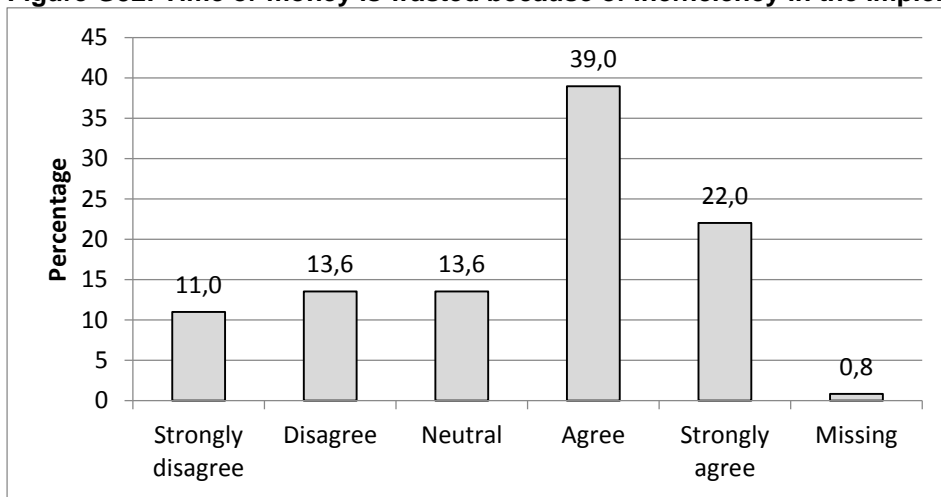


Table G53: Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on (Q53)

	Q53	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	11	9.3	9.5	9.5
	Disagree	23	19.5	19.8	29.3
	Neutral	22	18.6	19.0	48.3
	Agree	37	31.4	31.9	80.2
	Strongly agree	23	19.5	19.8	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G53: Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on (Q53)

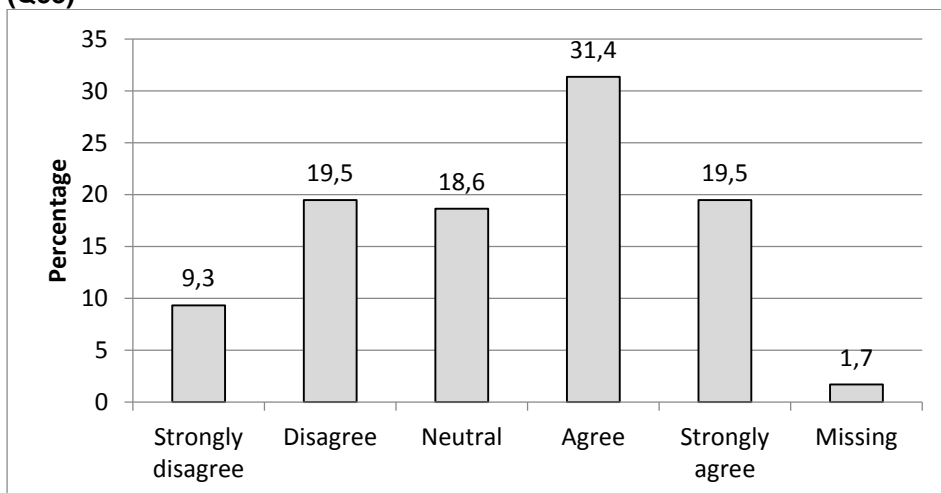


Table G54: We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation (Q53)

	Q54	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	7.6	7.8	7.8
	Disagree	26	22.0	22.4	30.2
	Neutral	25	21.2	21.6	51.7
	Agree	31	26.3	26.7	78.4
	Strongly agree	25	21.2	21.6	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G54: We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation (Q54)

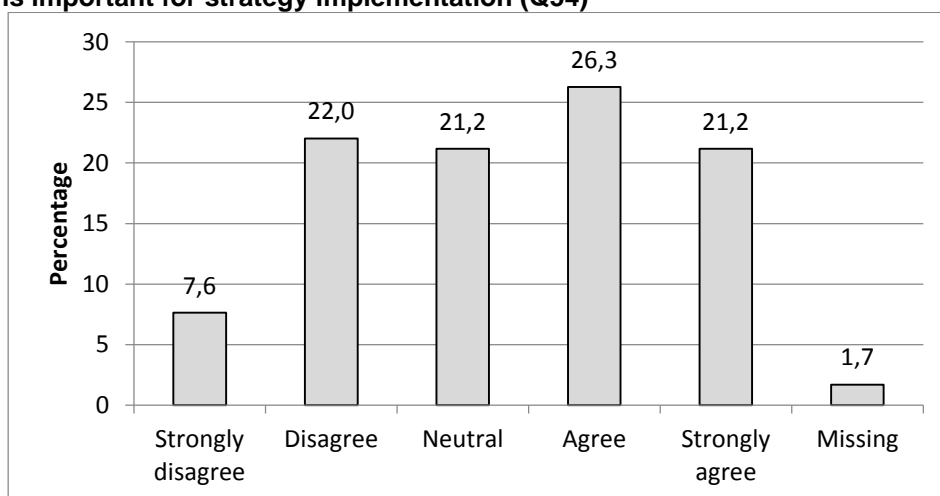
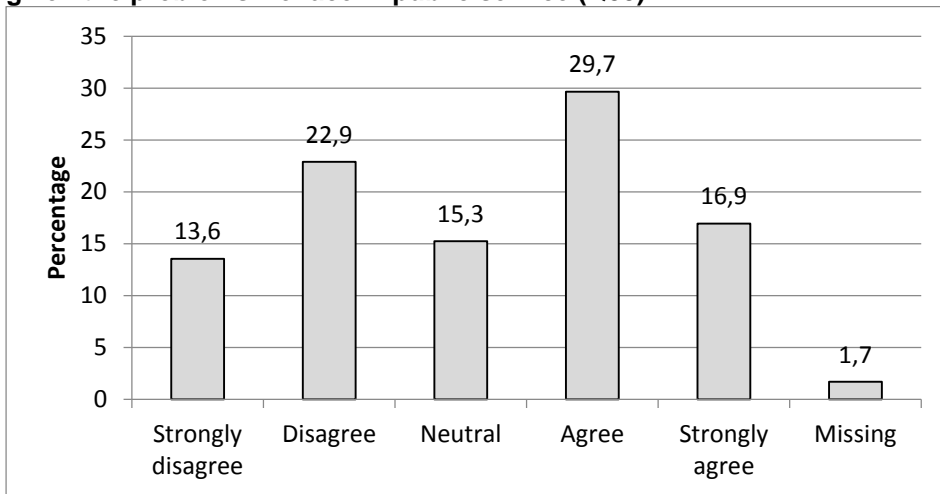


Table G55: We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service (Q55)

	Q55	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	16	13.6	13.8	13.8
	Disagree	27	22.9	23.3	37.1
	Neutral	18	15.3	15.5	52.6
	Agree	35	29.7	30.2	82.8
	Strongly agree	20	16.9	17.2	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G55: We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service (Q55)



OBSTACLES TO STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

Table G56: Poor or vague strategy (Q56)

	Q56	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	20	16.9	17.2	17.2
	Slight problem	28	23.7	24.1	41.4
	Neutral	26	22.0	22.4	63.8
	Some problems	17	14.4	14.7	78.4
	A major problem	25	21.2	21.6	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G56: Poor or vague strategy (Q56)

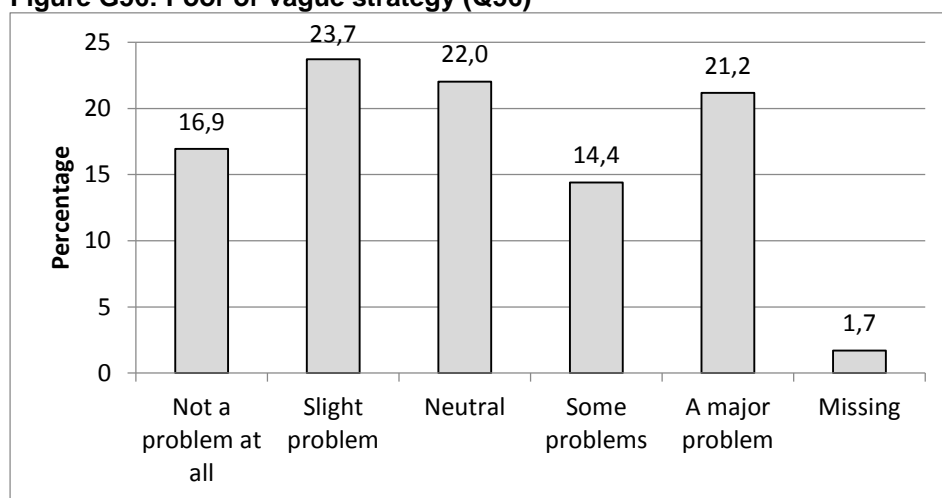


Table G57: Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts (Q57)

	Q57	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	21	17.8	17.9	17.9
	Slight problem	27	22.9	23.1	41.0
	Neutral	17	14.4	14.5	55.6
	Some problems	31	26.3	26.5	82.1
	A major problem	21	17.8	17.9	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G57: Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts (Q57)

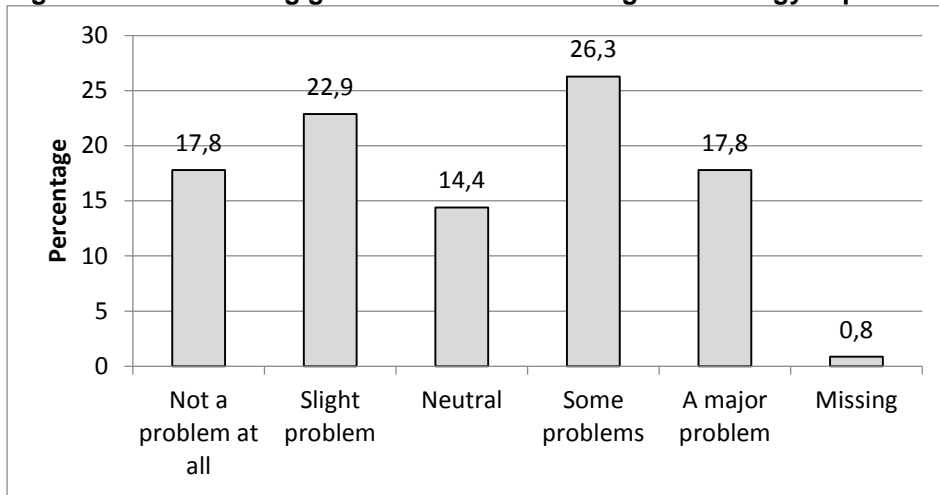


Table G58: Insufficient financial resources to implement strategy (Q57)

	Q58	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	8	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Slight problem	15	12.7	12.7	19.5
	Neutral	8	6.8	6.8	26.3
	Some problems	38	32.2	32.2	58.5
	A major problem	49	41.5	41.5	100.0
	Total	118	100.0	100.0	
	Missing	0	0.0		
	Total	118	100.0		

Figure G58: Insufficient financial resources to implement strategy (Q58)

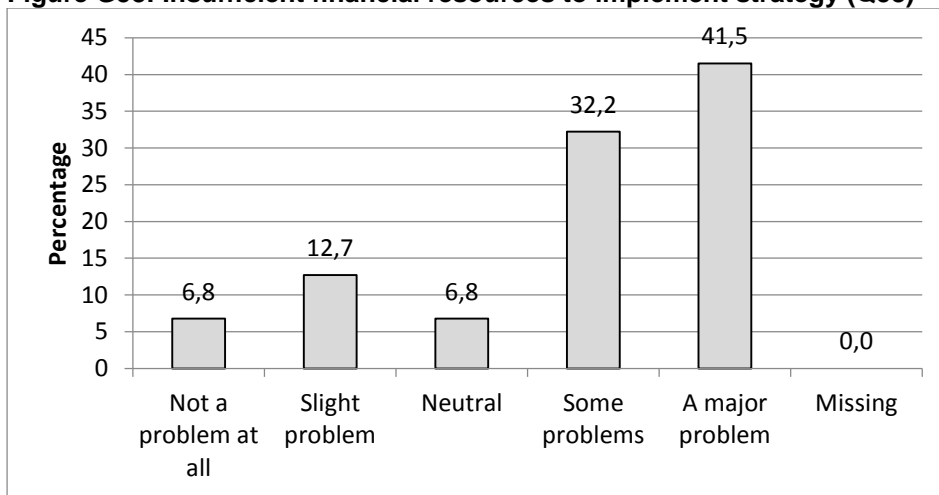


Table G59: Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure (Q59)

	Q59	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	13	11.0	11.1	11.1
	Slight problem	18	15.3	15.4	26.5
	Neutral	21	17.8	17.9	44.4
	Some problems	31	26.3	26.5	70.9
	A major problem	34	28.8	29.1	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G59: Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure (Q59)

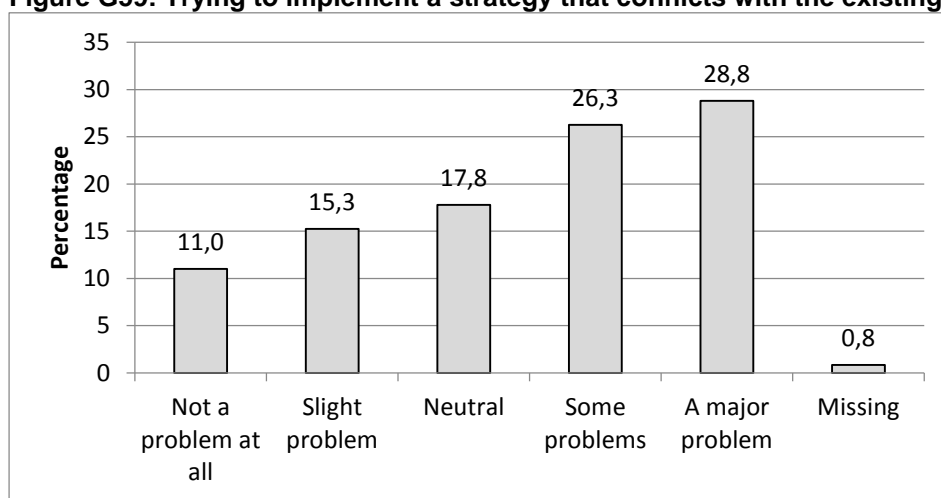


Table G60: Inability to generate buy in or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (Q60)

	Q60	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	11	9.3	9.4	9.4
	Slight problem	19	16.1	16.2	25.6
	Neutral	20	16.9	17.1	42.7
	Some problems	41	34.7	35.0	77.8
	A major problem	26	22.0	22.2	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G60: Inability to generate buy in or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (Q60)

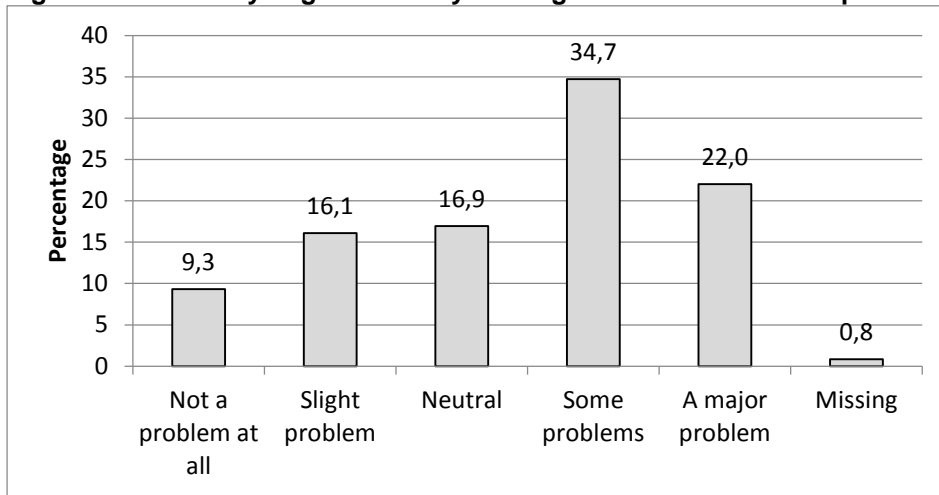


Table G61: Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation (Q61)

	Q61	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	23	19.5	20.2	20.2
	Slight problem	16	13.6	14.0	34.2
	Neutral	19	16.1	16.7	50.9
	Some problems	29	24.6	25.4	76.3
	A major problem	27	22.9	23.7	100.0
	Total	114	96.6	100.0	
Missing	Missing	4	3.4		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G61: Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation (Q61)

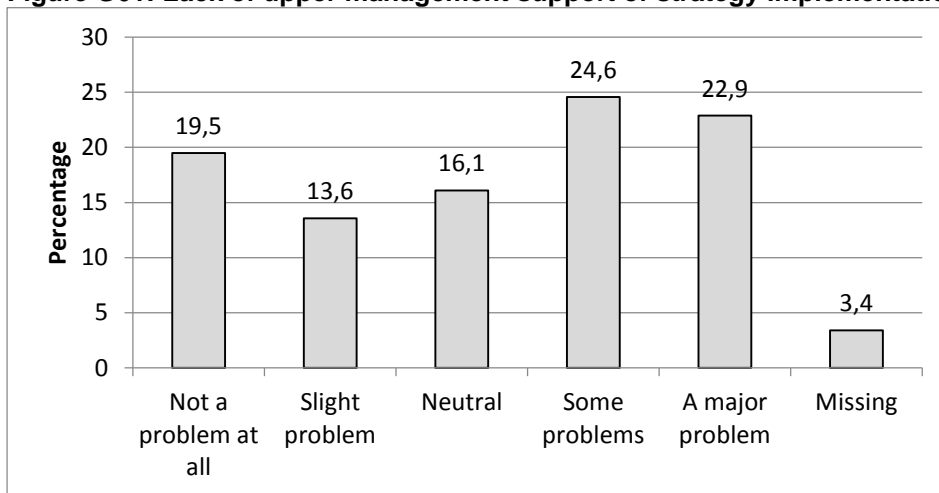


Table G62: Lack of feelings of ownership of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees (Q62)

	Q62	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	14	11.9	12.0	12.0
	Slight problem	26	22.0	22.2	34.2
	Neutral	19	16.1	16.2	50.4
	Some problems	34	28.8	29.1	79.5
	A major problem	24	20.3	20.5	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G62: Lack of feelings of ownership of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees (Q62)

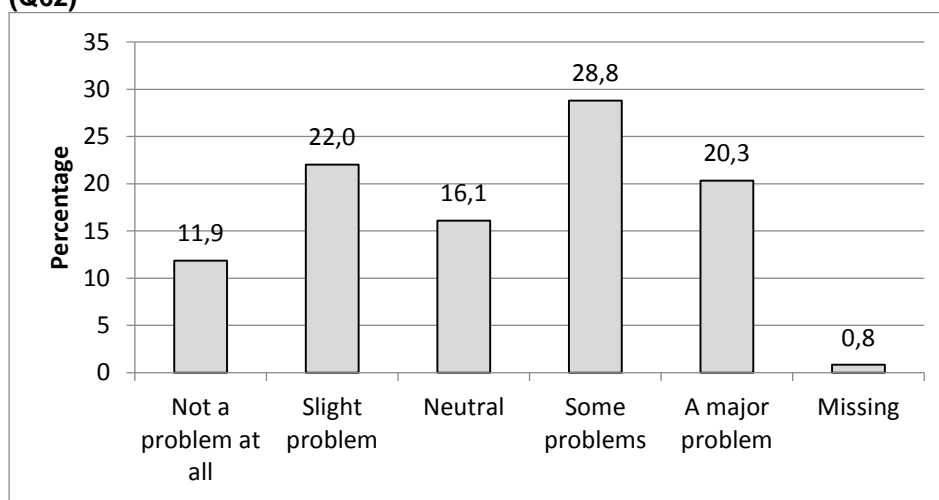


Table G63: Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63)

	Q63	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	15	12.7	12.9	12.9
	Slight problem	7	5.9	6.0	19.0
	Neutral	18	15.3	15.5	34.5
	Some problems	38	32.2	32.8	67.2
	A major problem	38	32.2	32.8	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G63: Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63)

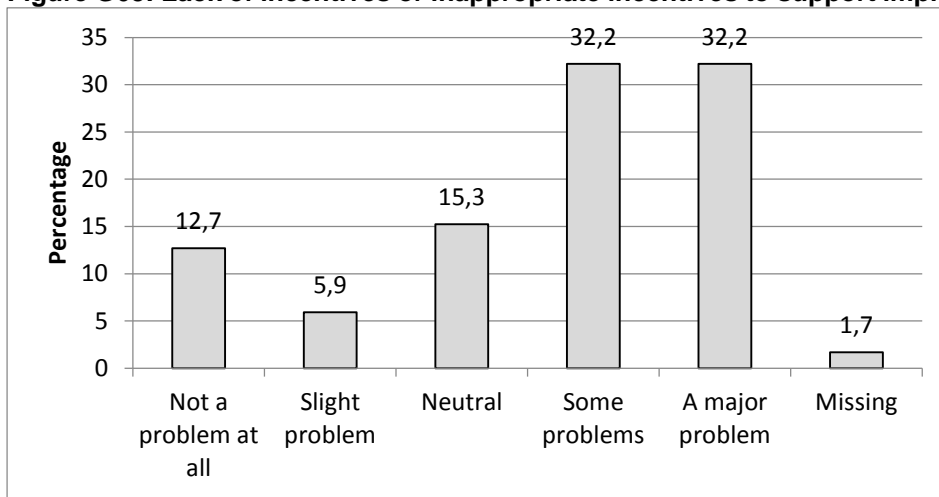


Table G64: Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation (Q64)

	Q64	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	9	7.6	7.6	7.6
	Slight problem	10	8.5	8.5	16.1
	Neutral	16	13.6	13.6	29.7
	Some problems	47	39.8	39.8	69.5
	A major problem	36	30.5	30.5	100.0
	Total	118	100.0	100.0	
	Missing	0	0.0		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G64: Poor or inadequate information sharing between individuals or business units responsible for strategy implementation (Q64)

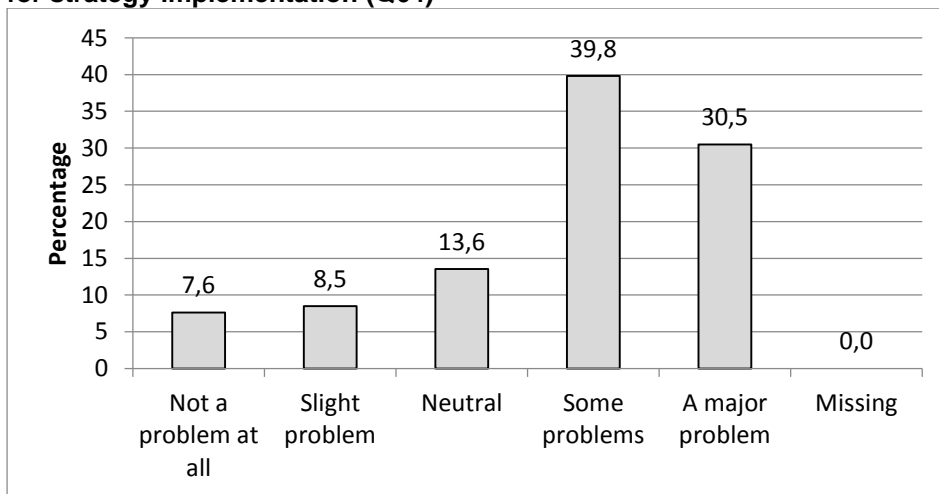


Table G65: Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions (Q65)

	Q65	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	11	9.3	9.5	9.5
	Slight problem	15	12.7	12.9	22.4
	Neutral	17	14.4	14.7	37.1
	Some problems	39	33.1	33.6	70.7
	A major problem	34	28.8	29.3	100.0
	Total	116	98.3	100.0	
Missing	Missing	2	1.7		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G65: Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions (Q65)

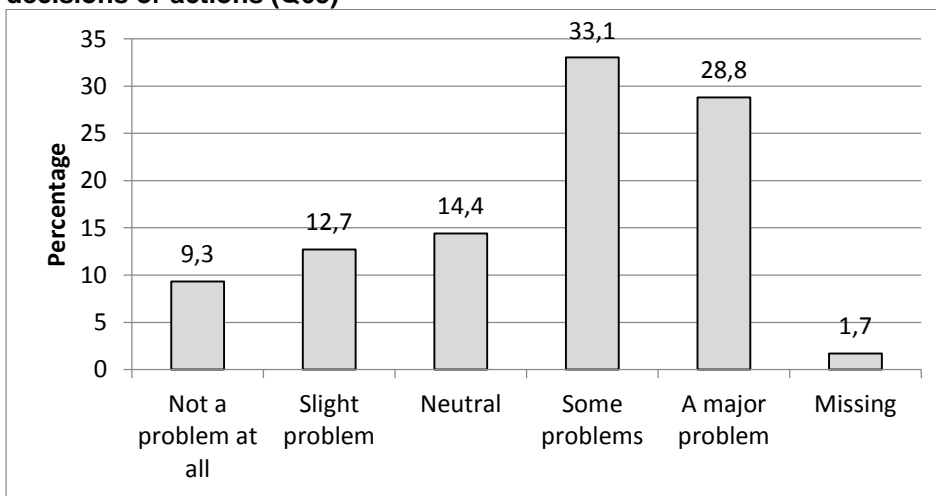


Table G66: Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (Q66)

	Q66	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	12	10.2	10.4	10.4
	Slight problem	23	19.5	20.0	30.4
	Neutral	21	17.8	18.3	48.7
	Some problems	40	33.9	34.8	83.5
	A major problem	19	16.1	16.5	100.0
	Total	115	97.5	100.0	
Missing	Missing	3	2.5		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G66: Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (Q66)

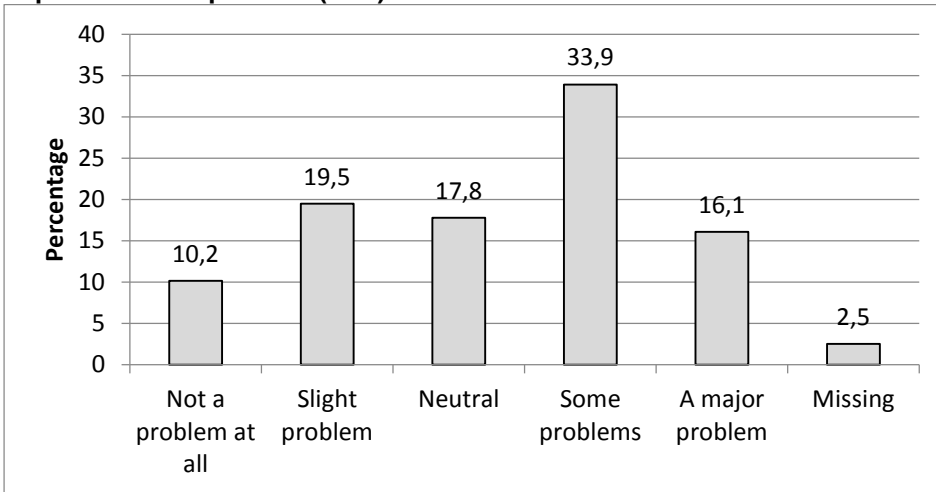
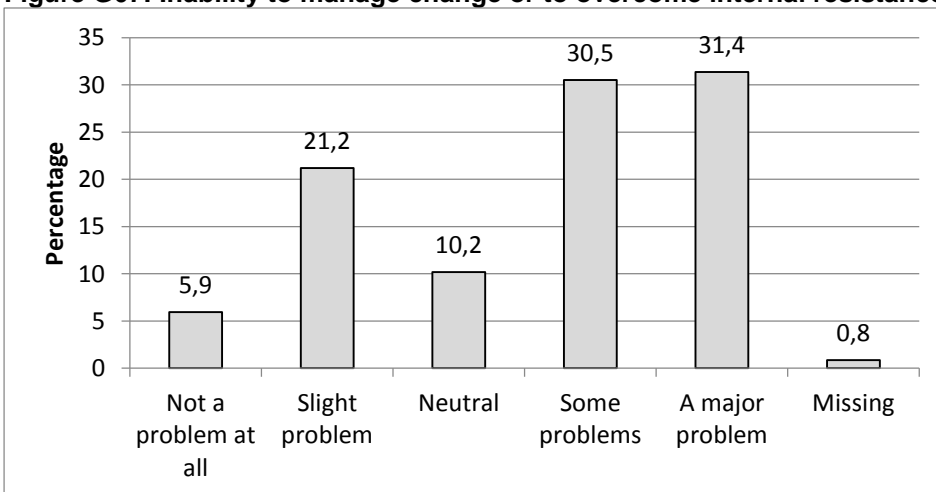


Table G67: Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67)

	Q67	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Not a problem at all	7	5.9	6.0	6.0
	Slight problem	25	21.2	21.4	27.4
	Neutral	12	10.2	10.3	37.6
	Some problems	36	30.5	30.8	68.4
	A major problem	37	31.4	31.6	100.0
	Total	117	99.2	100.0	
Missing	Missing	1	0.8		
	Grand total	118	100.0		

Figure G67: Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67)



APPENDIX H: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

1. Missing value analysis

A missing values analysis must be run before a CFA is performed, since AMOS cannot perform a CFA on data with missing values. The missing data analysis was done using SPSS and Table H1 below shows the number (percentage) of missing values for all variables with missing values. For example, the variable gender has 12.7% missing values. It should be noted that the values in the data below are ordered from the highest to the lowest percentage of missing values. In Table H1, 'N' denotes the number of missing values, 'Percent' indicates the percentage of missing values and 'Valid N' denotes the number of respondents that answered the question.

Table H1: Missing data analysis

	Missing		Valid N
	N	Percent	
Gender	15	12.7%	103
I leverage the skills, knowledge and capabilities of employees by sharing it across different business units in the division/business unit (Q25)	13	11.0%	105
I am always within my allocated budget (Q36)	8	6.8%	110
I use methods of leadership that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q30)	8	6.8%	110
I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (Q17)	6	5.1%	112
Which ONE of the following divisions do you belong to in the dti?	6	5.1%	112
Responses to customer problems or complaints take too long to implement (Q50)	5	4.2%	113
I work with others that are satisfying (leadership satisfaction) (Q31)	5	4.2%	113
Lack of upper management support of strategy implementation (Q61)	4	3.4%	114
Strategy implementation activities and work processes are properly coordinated in my division/business unit (Q46)	4	3.4%	114
Training and development in the organisation (Q41)	4	3.4%	114
The allocation of resources in the organisation (Q39)	4	3.4%	114
Leadership of the organization (Q38)	4	3.4%	114
The structure of the organization (Q37)	4	3.4%	114
I am able to identify core competencies and exploit them effectively (Q24)	4	3.4%	114
I encourage employees to be creative and innovative (Q15)	4	3.4%	114
Lack of understanding of the role of organizational structure and design in the implementation process (Q66)	3	2.5%	115
Upward and downward communication of the organisations strategic direction and implementation activities are adequate (Q47)	3	2.5%	115
We define precisely how we going to achieve our strategic objectives (Q44)	3	2.5%	115
The performance management system (Q40)	3	2.5%	115
I encourage training and development of skills sets required (Q35)	3	2.5%	115
I always achieve my business plan targets (Q33)	3	2.5%	115
I avoid getting involved when important issues are asked (Q26)	3	2.5%	115

	Missing		Valid N
	N	Percent	
I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (Q18)	3	2.5%	115
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort (Q16)	3	2.5%	115
I seek differing perspectives when solving problems (Q10)	3	2.5%	115
Which ONE of the following BEST describes the DOMINANT public sector strategy in your department?	3	2.5%	115
Number of completed years involved in leadership and strategy implementation in any organisation?	3	2.5%	115
Which ONE of the following BEST describes your current job title?	3	2.5%	115
Unclear communication of responsibility and/or accountability for implementation decisions or actions (Q65)	2	1.7%	116
Lack of incentives or inappropriate incentives to support implementation objectives (Q63)	2	1.7%	116
Poor or vague strategy (Q56)	2	1.7%	116
We are unsure whether the strategy we are implementing is worthwhile, effective or logical given the problems we face in public service (Q55)	2	1.7%	116
We spend lots of time reorganizing or restructuring, but we don't seem to know why this is important for strategy implementation (Q54)	2	1.7%	116
Important information is overlooked during implementation and does not get acted on (Q53)	2	1.7%	116
Implementation decisions takes too long to make (Q48)	2	1.7%	116
I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (Q23)	2	1.7%	116
I keep track of all mistakes (Q22)	2	1.7%	116
I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (Q21)	2	1.7%	116
I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes exceptions and deviations from standards (Q20)	2	1.7%	116
I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Q19)	2	1.7%	116
I nurture and motivate employees to develop their competencies (Q14)	2	1.7%	116
I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (Q12)	2	1.7%	116
I articulate a compelling vision of the future (Q7)	2	1.7%	116
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (Q3)	2	1.7%	116
Inability to manage change or to overcome internal resistance (Q67)	1	0.8%	117
Lack of feelings of ownership of a strategy or implementation plans among key employees (Q62)	1	0.8%	117
Inability to generate buy in or agreement on critical implementation steps or actions (Q60)	1	0.8%	117
Trying to implement a strategy that conflicts with the existing power structure (Q59)	1	0.8%	117
Not having guidelines or a model to guide strategy implementation efforts (Q57)	1	0.8%	117
Time or money is wasted because of inefficiency in the implementation process (Q52)	1	0.8%	117
The department reacts slowly or inappropriately to external pressures while implementing strategy (Q51)	1	0.8%	117
Effective coordination takes place within my division/business unit (Q45)	1	0.8%	117
We have precisely defined strategic objectives (Q43)	1	0.8%	117

	Missing		Valid N
	N	Percent	
Effective strategic planning processes (Q42)	1	0.8%	117
I can rely on colleagues in other divisions and business units all the time for support to deliver on my performance targets most of the time (Q34)	1	0.8%	117
The business unit/divisions key performance indicators are specific, measurable and achievable (Q32)	1	0.8%	117
I delay to responding to urgent questions (Q29)	1	0.8%	117
I avoid making decisions (Q28)	1	0.8%	117
I provide opportunities for employees to develop their core competencies (Q13)	1	0.8%	117
I get others to look at problems from many angles (Q11)	1	0.8%	117
I re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate (Q9)	1	0.8%	117
I express confidence that goals will be achieved (Q8)	1	0.8%	117
I talk optimistically about the future (Q5)	1	0.8%	117
I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission (Q4)	1	0.8%	117
I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (Q2)	1	0.8%	117
I talk about my most important values and beliefs (Q1)	1	0.8%	117
Which ONE of the following BEST describes your highest academic qualification?	1	0.8%	117
Age category	1	0.8%	117

Before the CFA was run, a missing data analysis was done to check whether values were missing in a random way or in a non-random way. The Little's MCAR (Missing Completely At Random) test was run and which was found to be desirable.

If the p-value of Little's MCAR test is less than 0.05 this indicates that the data is not missing in a random way (undesirable). On the other hand, if the p-value of Little's MCAR test is greater than 0.05, then this indicates that the data is missing in a random way (which is desirable). For Likert-type questions, which were used in the CFA, SPSS produced a p-value of 0.027 which is less than 0.05 meaning that the data is not missing completely at random and it is not safe to listwise delete cases or to use single imputation. Therefore multiple imputation was used. Since pooled results are generally more accurate than those provided by single imputation methods.

2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

A CFA using AMOS was done, since a CFA is conducted to confirm whether a theoretical factor structure can be supported. There are numerous fit measures that can be considered when a CFA is done, and the most common fit measures are listed in Table 2 with the corresponding acceptable levels. The interested reader is referred to the well-known book on AMOS by Barbara Byrne for more details on the statistics in Table H2 and their acceptable levels (Byrne, 2010).

Table H2: Statistics for CFA and their corresponding acceptable levels

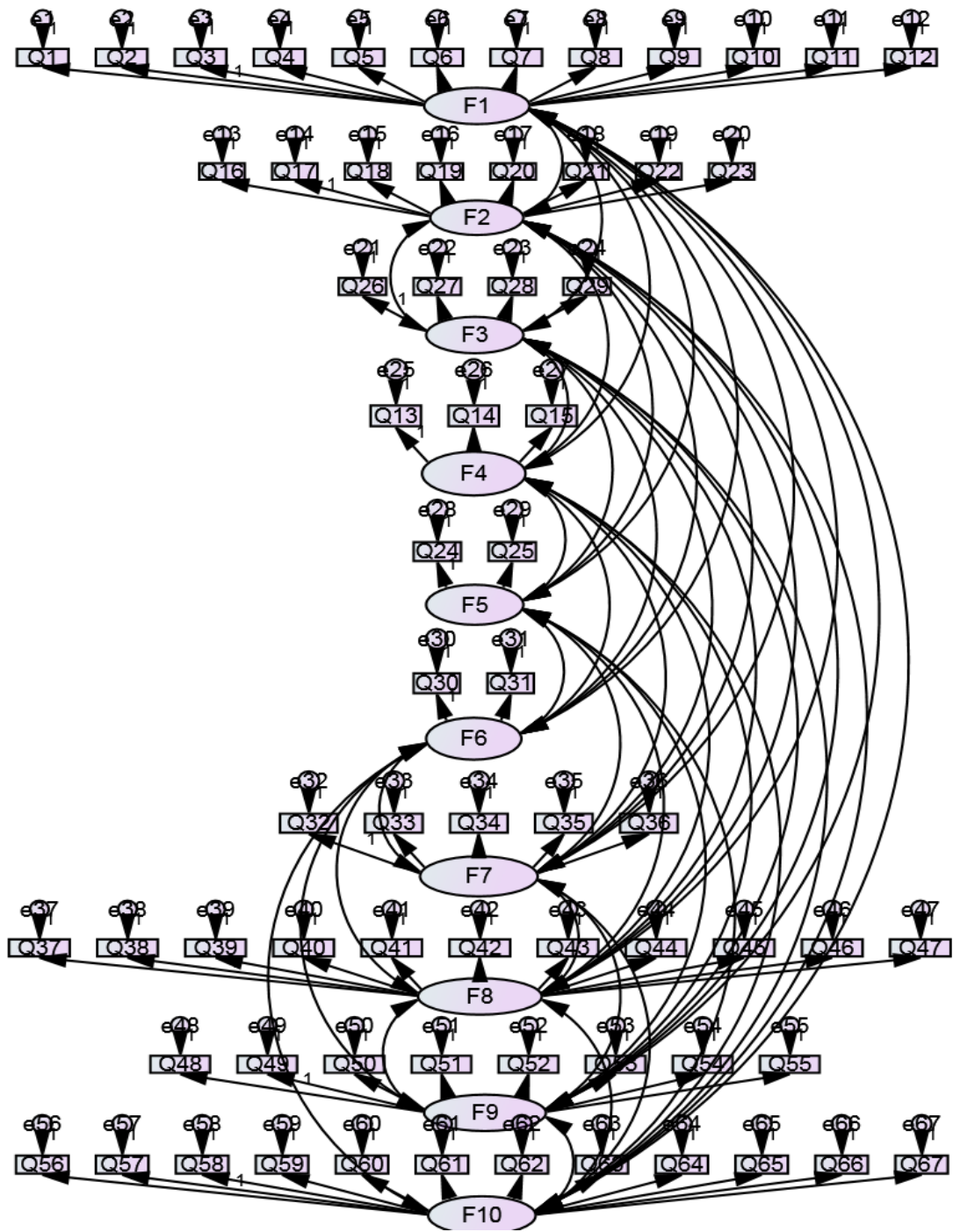
Statistic	Acceptable level
Normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	Between 1 and 2
p-value of the Chi-square test statistic	p-value > 0.05
Root mean-square error of approximations (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.05
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	GFI > 0.90
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	AGFI > 0.90
Comparative fit index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90

The theoretical model is given in Table H3 and a CFA was run with all 10 factors and with all corresponding items included.

Table H3: Theoretical factors and corresponding items

Factor	Label	Items
1	Transformational leadership	Twelve items:(1-12)
2	Transactional leadership	Eight items:(6-29)
3	Laissez-faire leadership	Four items: (26-29)
4	Exploration of core competencies	Three items:(13-15)
5	Exploitation of core competencies	Two items: (24-25)
6	Strategy implementation in respect of the leaders' job satisfaction	Two items: (30-31)
7	Service delivery outcomes	Five items: (32-36)
8	Drivers of strategy implementation	Five items: (37-41)- Adapted Five items: (42-47)-Developed
9	Problems to strategy implementation	Eight items: (48-55)
10	Obstacles to strategy implementation	Twelve items:(56-67)

Figure H1: CFA for the complete theoretical model



3. AMOS Output

The AMOS output is given below as follows:

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 2278
 Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 179
 Degrees of freedom (2278 - 179): 2099

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved
 Chi-square = 5323.870
 Degrees of freedom = 2099
 Probability level = .000
 Testing the null hypothesis that the model is correct, Bollen-Stine bootstrap p = .200

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	179	5323.870	2099	.000	2.536
Saturated model	2278	.000	0		
Independence model	67	8965.738	2211	.000	4.055

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.120	.480	.436	.442
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.307	.205	.180	.199

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.406	.375	.530	.497	.523
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.949	.386	.496
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	3224.870	3013.390	3443.520
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	6754.738	6466.506	7049.804

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	45.503	27.563	25.755	29.432

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	76.630	57.733	55.269	60.255

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.115	.111	.118	.000
Independence model	.162	.158	.165	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	5681.870	6178.686	6177.822	6356.822
Saturated model	4556.000	10878.612	10867.620	13145.620
Independence model	9099.738	9285.697	9285.374	9352.374

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	48.563	46.755	50.432	52.809
Saturated model	38.940	38.940	38.940	92.980
Independence model	77.776	75.312	80.297	79.365

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	49	50
Independence model	31	31

Clearly, this model is not acceptable (see Table H4 where it is shown that four out of the five statistical measures were unacceptable).

Table H4: Summary of the statistics of the complete theoretical model

Statistic	Acceptable level	Value for the complete theoretical model
Normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	Between 1 and 2	2.536 – unacceptable
p-value of the Chi-square test statistic	p-value > 0.05	0.200 - acceptable
Root mean-square error of approximations (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.05	0.115 – unacceptable
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	GFI > 0.90	0.480 – unacceptable
Comparative fit index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90	0.523 – unacceptable

Since the model fit is quiet poor, all items that loaded lowly were deleted from the model. In order to find the items that were loading poorly, the standardized regression weights in the AMOS output was investigated. The standardized regression weights, which are basically factor loadings, are given in Table H5 and all items with loadings less than 0.7 were deleted (these items are indicated with grey shading).

Table H5: Standardized regression weights for the complete theoretical model

	Estimate
Q1 <--- F1	.373
Q2 <--- F1	.561
Q3 <--- F1	.226
Q4 <--- F1	.612
Q5 <--- F1	.578
Q6 <--- F1	.759
Q7 <--- F1	.764
Q8 <--- F1	.628
Q9 <--- F1	.545
Q10 <--- F1	.648
Q11 <--- F1	.568
Q12 <--- F1	.636
Q16 <--- F2	.504
Q17 <--- F2	.474
Q18 <--- F2	.505
Q19 <--- F2	.479
Q20 <--- F2	.761
Q21 <--- F2	.787
Q22 <--- F2	.777
Q23 <--- F2	.602
Q26 <--- F3	.659
Q27 <--- F3	.618
Q28 <--- F3	.973
Q29 <--- F3	.780
Q13 <--- F4	.820
Q14 <--- F4	.918
Q15 <--- F4	.737
Q24 <--- F5	.409
Q25 <--- F5	.601
Q30 <--- F6	.775
Q31 <--- F6	.786
Q32 <--- F7	.361
Q33 <--- F7	.330
Q34 <--- F7	.340
Q35 <--- F7	.740
Q36 <--- F7	.607
Q37 <--- F8	.666
Q38 <--- F8	.832
Q39 <--- F8	.786
Q40 <--- F8	.896
Q41 <--- F8	.825
Q42 <--- F8	.920
Q43 <--- F8	.732
Q44 <--- F8	.676
Q45 <--- F8	.329
Q46 <--- F8	.361
Q47 <--- F8	.481
Q48 <--- F9	.664
Q49 <--- F9	.802
Q50 <--- F9	.615
Q51 <--- F9	.738
Q52 <--- F9	.652
Q53 <--- F9	.771
Q54 <--- F9	.701
Q55 <--- F9	.757
Q56 <--- F10	.633
Q57 <--- F10	.720
Q58 <--- F10	.282
Q59 <--- F10	.786

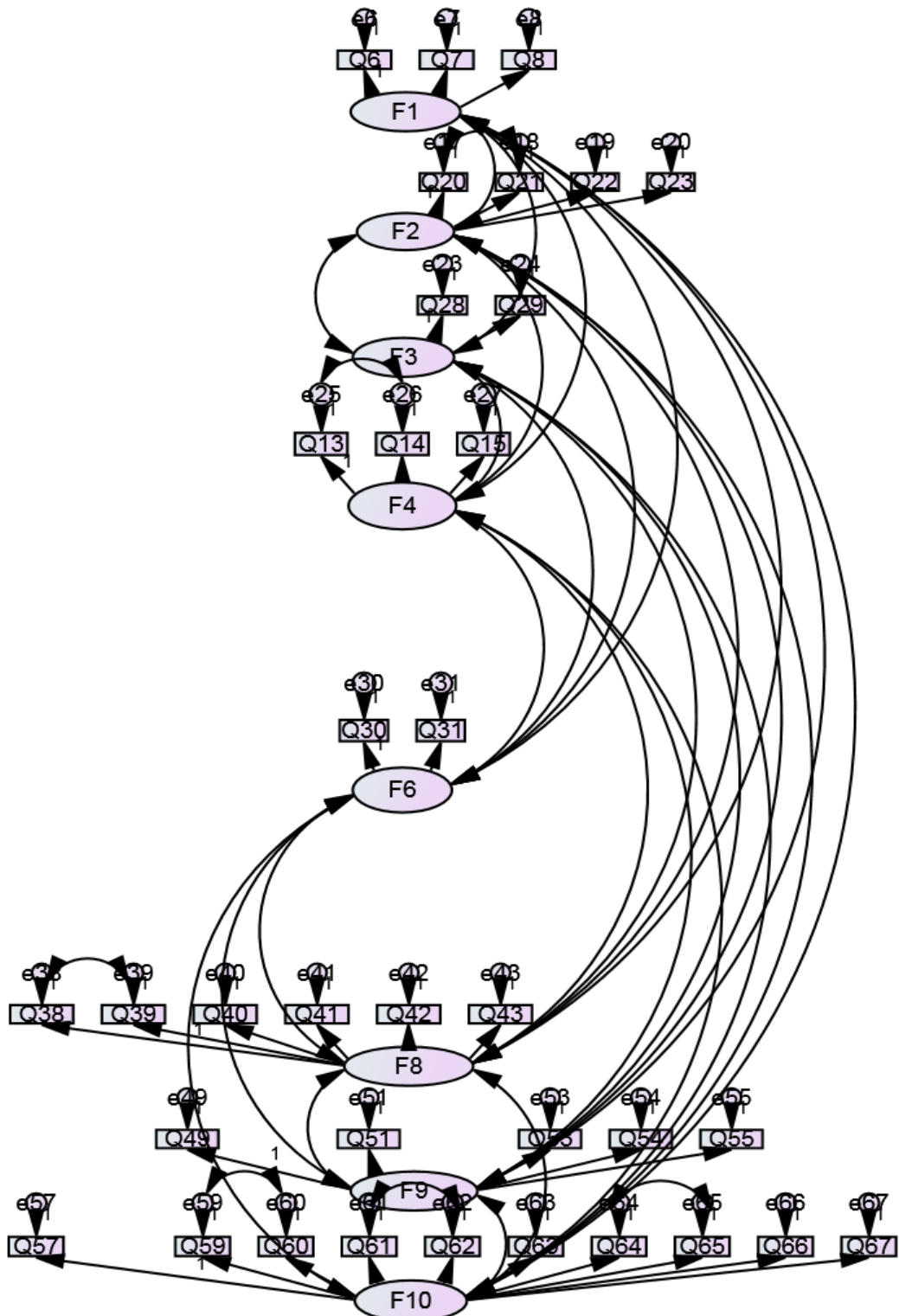
	Estimate
Q60 <--- F10	.792
Q61 <--- F10	.846
Q62 <--- F10	.820
Q63 <--- F10	.690
Q64 <--- F10	.809
Q65 <--- F10	.848
Q66 <--- F10	.882
Q67 <--- F10	.847

In addition to removing the items with low loadings, for a CFA the covariances of the errors must be investigated and all covariances that stand out (i.e. large values) must be covaried between the error terms.

4. Final Model

The final model is given in the Figure H2 with the corresponding AMOS output.

Figure H2: CFA for the final model



Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 991.567

Degrees of freedom = 526

Probability level = .000

Testing the null hypothesis that the model is correct, Bollen-Stine bootstrap p = .011

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	104	991.567	526	.000	1.885
Saturated model	630	.000	0		
Independence model	35	3653.573	595	.000	6.140

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.098	.688	.626	.574
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.450	.234	.189	.221

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.729	.693	.851	.828	.848
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.884	.644	.749
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	465.567	380.643	558.296
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	3058.573	2871.619	3252.913

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	8.475	3.979	3.253	4.772
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	31.227	26.142	24.544	27.803

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.087	.079	.095	.000
Independence model	.210	.203	.216	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1199.567	1292.012	1487.718	1591.718
Saturated model	1260.000	1820.000	3005.531	3635.531
Independence model	3723.573	3754.684	3820.547	3855.547

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	10.253	9.527	11.045	11.043
Saturated model	10.769	10.769	10.769	15.556
Independence model	31.825	30.228	33.486	32.091

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER	HOELTER
	.05	.01
Default model	69	72
Independence model	21	22

Table H6: Summary of the statistics of the final model

Statistic	Acceptable level	Value for the complete theoretical model
Normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	Between 1 and 2	1.885 - acceptable
p-value of the Chi-square test statistic	p-value > 0.05	0.011- acceptable
Root mean-square error of approximations (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.05	0.087 – acceptable
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	GFI > 0.90	0.688 - unacceptable
Comparative fit index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90	0.848 – close to acceptable

From Table H6 it can be seen that normed Chi-square and the *p*-value of the Chi-square test statistic are within the acceptable range. Although the root mean-square error of approximations (RMSEA) and comparative fit index (CFI) are not ideal, they are extremely close to the ideal values. For the RMSEA, it should be noted that, although most literature indicates that only values less than 0.05 are acceptable. Kelley and Lai (2011) indicate that if the RMSEA is greater than 0.1 this shows a poor fit. For this study the value of the RMSEA was 0.087 which does not indicate a poor fit according to Kelley and Lai (2011). Regarding the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) that is not acceptable, it should be noted that the GFI is a very conservative index and not as 'liberal' as for example the CFI. It is generally common for the GFI to be lower than the CFI. In summation, the model in Figure H2, with 10 factors and 35 items, is a good acceptable model.

APPENDIX I: Calculation for the weighted means

In this study the weighted means were calculated using the following technical formula:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \times w_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

where

Σ = the sum of

w_i = the weights (which in this case are the frequencies)

x_i = the values on the Likert scale

An example is given below for **Question 1**:

Q1	Likert scale x_i	Frequency w_i	$x_i \times w_i$
Not at all	1	2	2
Once in a while	2	4	8
Sometimes	3	39	117
Fairly often	4	49	196
Frequently, if not always	5	24	120

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \times w_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} = \frac{(1 \times 2) + (2 \times 4) + (3 \times 39) + (4 \times 49) + (5 \times 24)}{2 + 4 + 39 + 49 + 24} = \frac{443}{118} = 3.75$$

Therefore the weighted mean for question 1 is 3.75.

APPENDIX J: Detailed explanation on the generation of the histograms

1. Generating a histogram in SPSS for this study

A histogram is typically used to visually illustrate the shape of continuous data. For the factor *Transformational leadership*, Questions 6, 7 and 8 were the items loading onto it. For Questions 6, 7 and 8 the respondents had to respond on a 5-point Likert-type scale (which is ordinal data). Once the average is taken over the items loading onto a factor (i.e. once the average is taken over Questions 6, 7 and 8), these values are continuous (See Table J1 below).

Table J1: Illustration that the average of Likert scale questions gives a continuous variable

Respondent number	Q6	Q7	Q8	Average of questions 6, 7 and 8
1	5	5	4	4.67
2	3	3	3	3
3	5	5	5	5
4	5	5	4	4.67
5	5	5	5	5
6	5	5	5	5
7	5	5	5	5
8	4	3	3	3.33
9	5	4	5	4.67
10	5	5	5	5
11	5	5	5	5
12	4	5	5	4.67
13	4	4	4	4
14	4	3	3	3.33
15	5	4	4	4.33
16	5	5	5	5
17	5	4	3	4
18	2	2	3	2.33
19	5	5	4	4.67
20	4	4	4	4
21	4	4	4	4
22	5	5	5	5
23	4	2	4	3.33
24	5	4	5	4.67
25	3	3	4	3.33
26	3	3	4	3.33
27	5	5	5	5
28	5	4	5	4.67
29	4	4	4	4
30	5	3	5	4.33
31	5	5	4	4.67
32	5	5	4	4.67
33	5	5	5	5
34	3	3	3	3
35	5	4	2	3.67
36	5	5	4	4.67
37	4	3	4	3.67
38	4	4	4	4
39	5	4	5	4.67
40	4	4	4	4
41	4	3	2	3
42	5	4	5	4.67
43	4	3	3	3.33
44	5	4	3	4

Respondent number	Q6	Q7	Q8	Average of questions 6, 7 and 8
45	5	5	5	5
46	5	1	2	2.67
47	5	4	4	4.33
48	4	5	5	4.67
49	5	5	5	5
50	3	3	3	3
51	5	3	4	4
52	5	4	5	4.67
53	5	4	5	4.67
54	4	4	3	3.67
55	5	3	4	4
56	3	3	4	3.33
57	4	3	4	3.67
58	3	3	3	3
59	4	3	4	3.67
60	4	4	4	4
61	4	3	2	3
62	5	5	4	4.67
63	5	5	5	5
64	4	4	4	4
65	5	5	4	4.67
66	5	4	5	4.67
67	5	3	5	4.33
68	5	5	5	5
69	3	3	3	3
70	5	4	2	3.67
71	5	4	5	4.67
72	4	3	4	3.67
73	4	4	4	4
74	4	4	4	4
75	5	4	5	4.67
76	5	4	4	4.33
77	4	3	2	3
78	5	4	5	4.67
79	4	4	4	4
80	4	4	4	4
81	5	5	5	5
82	5	4	4	4.33
83	4	4	4	4
84	4	4	4	4
85	5	5	5	5
86	4	4	3	3.67
87	5	5	5	5
88	4	4	4	4
89	5	4	4	4.33
90	5	5	5	5
91	3	3	3	3
92	5	4	5	4.67
93	4	5	5	4.67
94	3	3	3	3
95	5	3	5	4.33
96	5	5	4	4.67
97	5	5	4	4.67
98	4	4	4	4
99	4	4	4	4
100	4	3	2	3
101	1	1	1	1
102	4	4	4	4
103	3	3	4	3.33
104	5	4	5	4.67

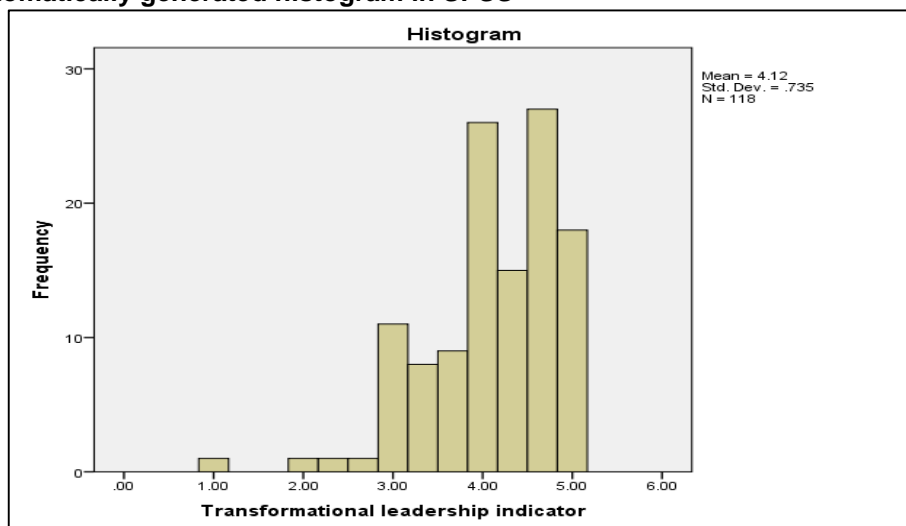
Respondent number	Q6	Q7	Q8	Average of questions 6, 7 and 8
105	4	4	4	4
106	4	4	5	4.33
107	4	4	5	4.33
108	5	4	4	4.33
109	5	4	4	4.33
110	5	5	3	4.33
111	4	4	5	4.33
112	2	1	3	2
113	5	4	4	4.33
114	4	4	4	4
115	3	4	4	3.67
116	4	4	4	4
117	5	4	5	4.67
118	4	4	4	4

SPSS automatically creates histograms by clicking

- 1) 'Analyze', then
- 2) 'Descriptive Statistics', then
- 3) 'Frequencies',
- 4) the variable of interest (here the average) is pulled in under 'Variable' and then
- 5) 'Charts' then
- 6) the option 'Histogram' is selected.

SPSS makes its own selection on the number of bins for which the continuous data is binned into. Figure J1 reflects the data that gives the histogram that was automatically generated by SPSS depicted in Section 5.2.5 Figure 5.1 of Chapter 5 and shown below.

Figure J1: Automatically generated histogram in SPSS



If we were to manually change the number of bins, then we can double-click on the histogram, and under the Properties window we select the tab 'Binning' and enter a number under 'Number of intervals'. After having customized the histogram to our specifications, it would look as follows.

Figure J2: Manually manipulated histogram in SPSS

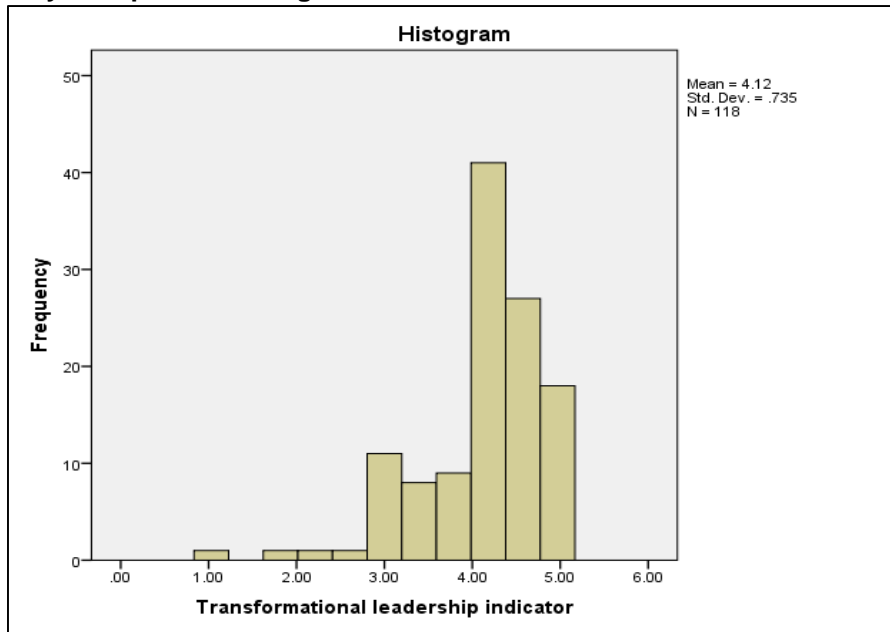


Figure J2 above looks visually similar to the one we have manually constructed in Excel (in order to show how SPSS generated its histogram). The steps for generating a histogram in Excel are given below and the Excel histogram should be compared to the histogram above.

2. Generating a histogram in Excel

A decision needs to be made about the number of bins and from statistical literature it is stated that any number of classes between 5 and 20 bins works. We have decided to work with 10 bins. Next, the bin width needs to be attained. This is done with a formula:

$$\text{Class width} \approx \frac{\text{largest data value} - \text{smallest data value}}{\text{number of classes}} = \frac{5-1}{10} = 0.5.$$

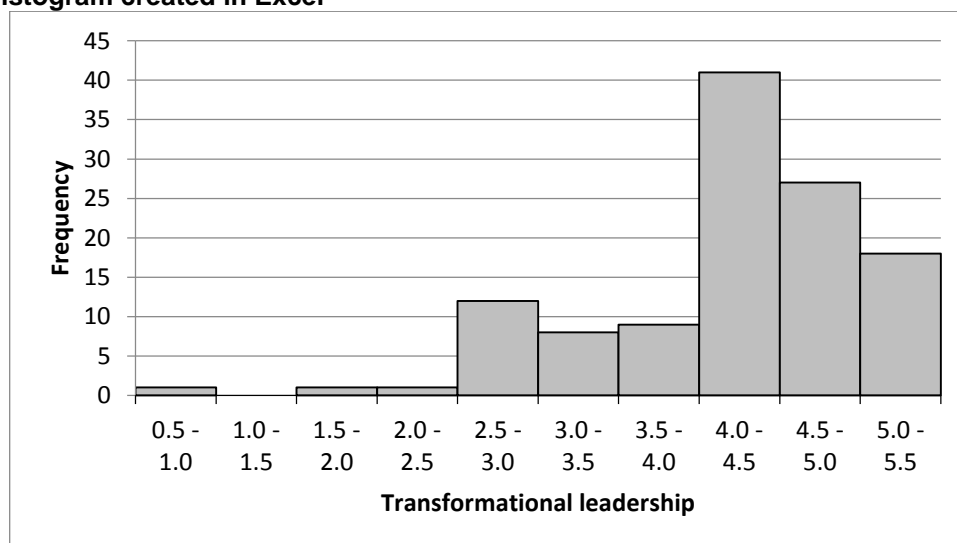
The next decision is about the starting point of the first bin. A good starting point is to take a value that is just smaller than the minimum value. Here, the minimum value equals 1, so we have decided to take 0.5 as the starting value. Thus, the starting value is 0.5 and the width is 0.5, so the bins are as follows:

Bins
0.5 - 1.0
1.0 - 1.5
1.5 - 2.0
2.0 - 2.5
2.5 - 3.0
3.0 - 3.5
3.5 - 4.0
4.0 - 4.5
4.5 - 5.0
5.0 - 5.5

Then we simply count the number of times a value (the averages in last column of Table J1) falls within each bin; these are the frequencies which are plotted on the y-axis of the histogram against the bins which are on the x-axis of the histogram.

Bins	Frequency
0.5 - 1.0	1
1.0 - 1.5	0
1.5 - 2.0	1
2.0 - 2.5	1
2.5 - 3.0	12
3.0 - 3.5	8
3.5 - 4.0	9
4.0 - 4.5	41
4.5 - 5.0	27
5.0 - 5.5	18

Figure J3: Histogram created in Excel



Note that the histogram generated by Excel (Figure J3) looks similar to the histogram that we manually manipulated in SPSS (Figure J2).